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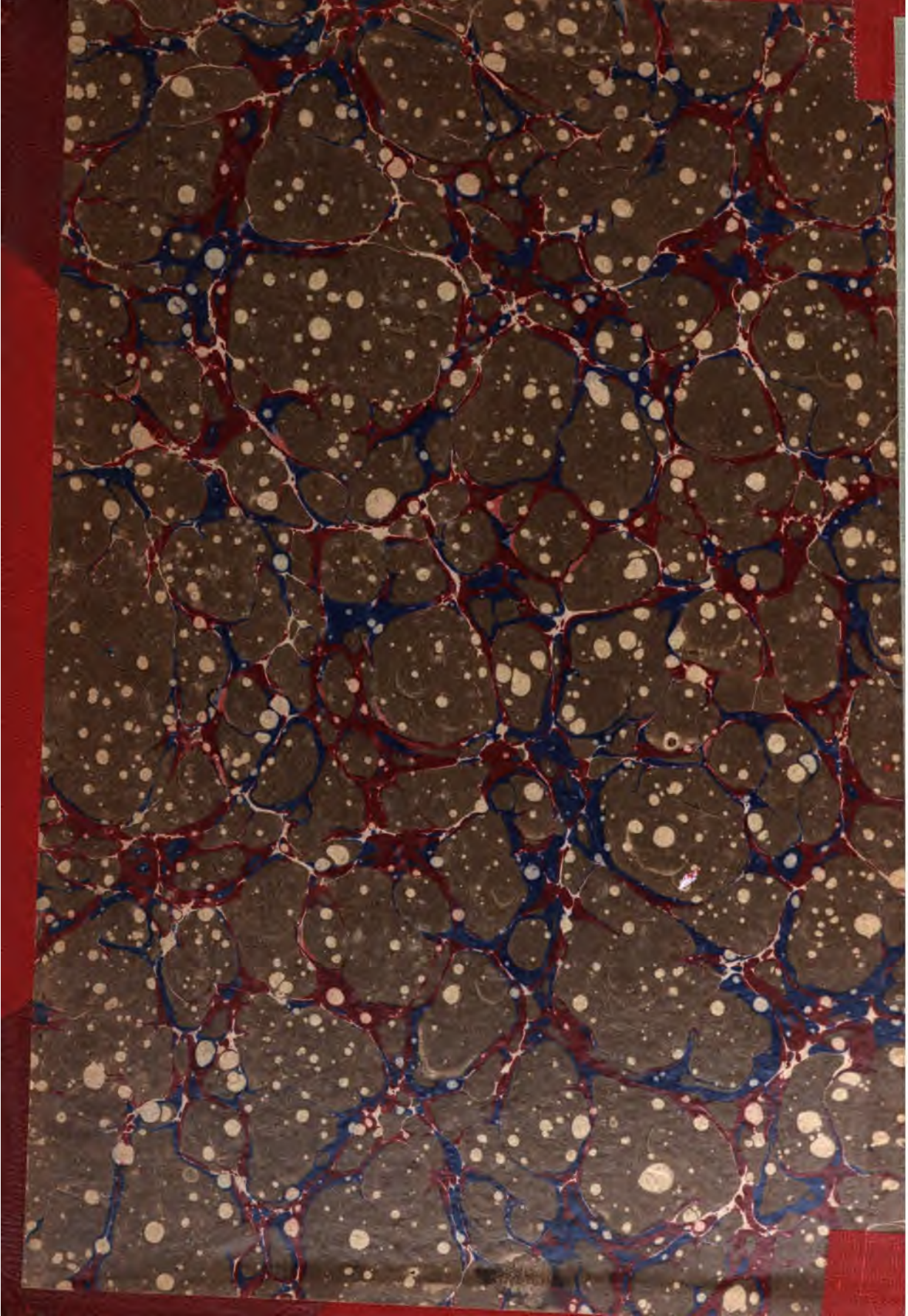
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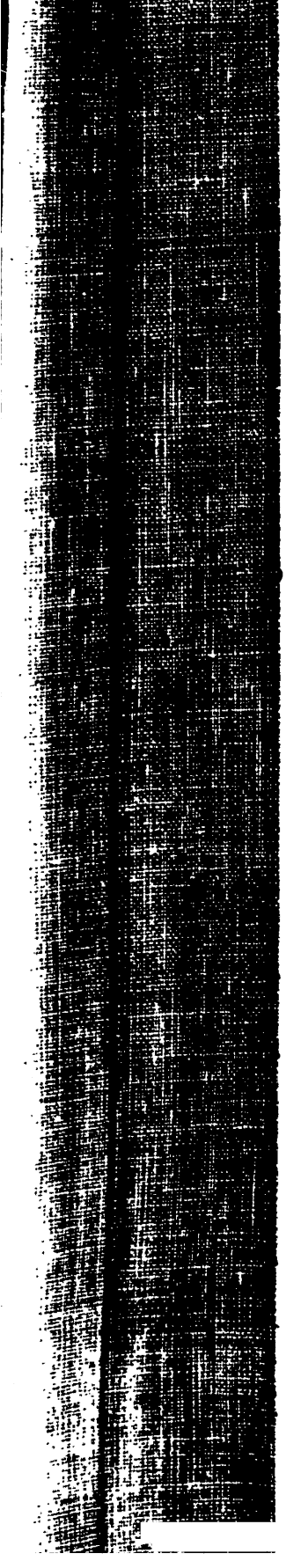
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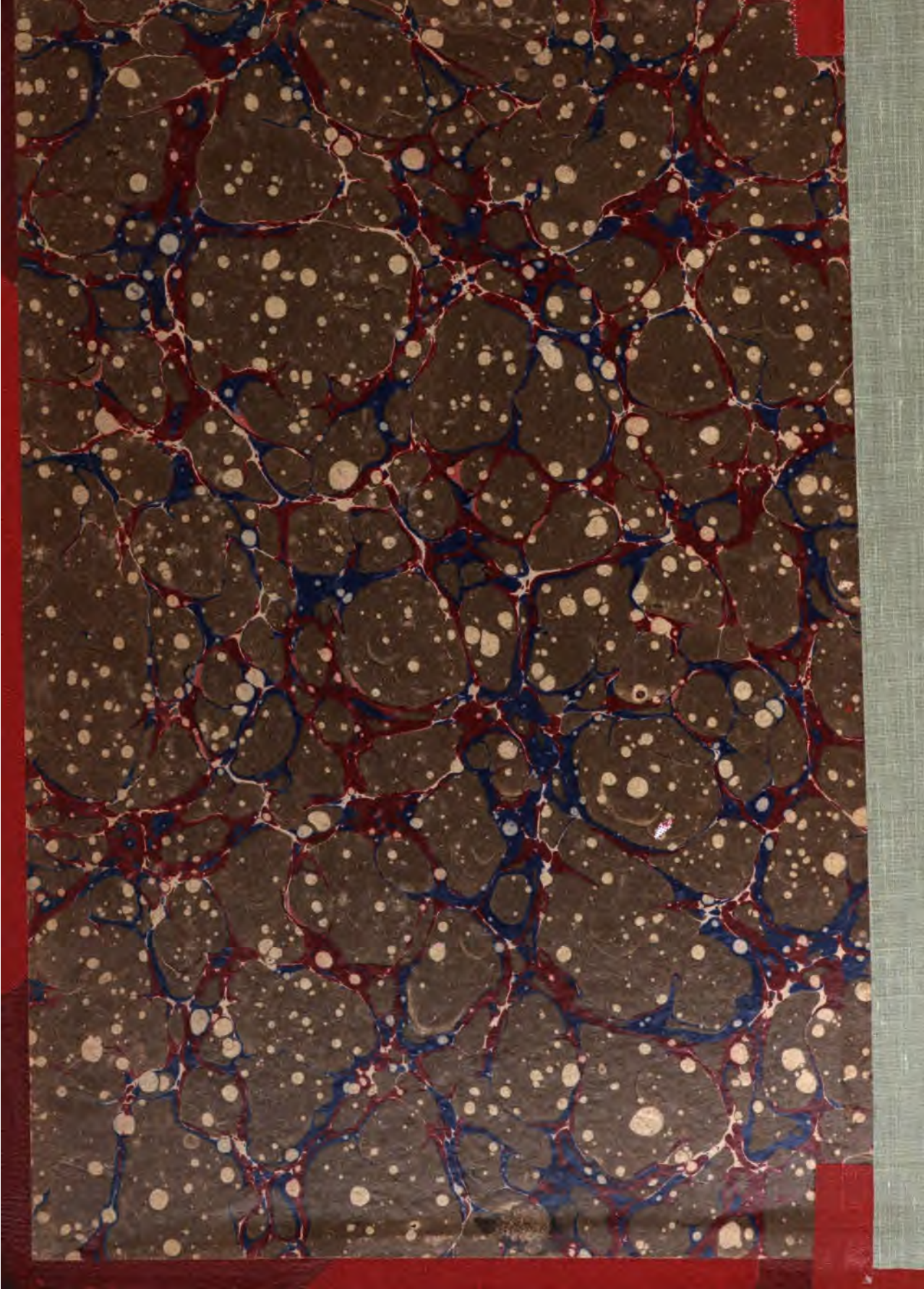
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FIELD MARSHAL LORD ROBERTS.

(Appointed in December to command all the British forces in South Africa.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Last Year of the Century.

Only twelve months remain in which to set in order all the things that belong to the expiring century, to the end of giving it a decent dismissal and to save the coming century from the handicap of an unfairly large burden of arrearage. There has been a rather curious misapprehension in the minds of many people as to the proper location of the year upon which we are just entering; and even in print there has been a good deal of allusion to the year now ended as the closing one of the nineteenth century. A half minute's clear thinking is enough to remove all confusion. With December 31 we complete the year 1899—that is to say, we round out 99 of the 100 years that are necessary to complete a full century. We must give the nineteenth century the 365 days that belong to its hundredth and final year before we begin the year 1 of the twentieth century. For some reason the mathematical faculty usually works far more keenly in monetary affairs than elsewhere; and none of the people who have proposed to allow ninety-nine years to go for a century would suppose that a nineteen-hundred-dollar debt had been fully met by a tender of $1,899. There would remain due just one hundred cents.

As to Leap Year and the Gregorian Calendar.

It is to be borne in mind that the year 1900 is not a leap year, although divisible by four. Under the Gregorian calendar the year consists approximately of 365 days, 5 hours, 49 minutes, and 12 seconds. The accumulated surplus over and above the 365 days amounts, in the course of a century, to very nearly 24¼ days. To indulge in a leap year every four years would require enough remnants of time stuff to make up 25 days for every century. The arrangement in practical use allows 24 leap years each for three consecutive centuries, and then gives the fourth century 25 such days. Thus, though it is not likely to concern many of us in an immediate, practical way, it may be remarked that the twentieth century will be one day longer than the nineteenth, since it is arranged that the twenty-fifth leap year which is assigned to every fourth century shall be brought into the calendar of the year that is divisible by 400. The failure to sacrifice three quadrennial leap years—that is to say, three extra days in every four centuries—has led to the discrepancy between what is known as the Julian, or old-style calendar, and the Gregorian.

Will Russia Drop the "Old-Style" Reckoning?

The old-style calendar simply reckons the year as consisting of 365¼ days, and takes care of the fractions by giving 366 days to every fourth year. The Russians, for civil and ecclesiastical purposes, have maintained the old style, without any readjustment, since the time of the Council of Nice, about the year 325, with the consequence that the discrepancy has grown to some twelve days. It is interesting to note the report that the Russians are about to abandon the old style and simply adopt the Gregorian calendar as in current use among all other leading nations. To do this now in the days of newspapers, telegraphs, and international communication will be a comparatively simple and easy matter, just as it has been found perfectly easy for American localities to cease regulating their clocks by the sun dial and to adopt "railroad time." Intercourse with the outside world has made it necessary for Russia to keep a double reckoning, and it is simpler as well as more accurate to drop the Julian system altogether and to observe the Gregorian.

The Century as a History-Making Influence.

There is no reason apart from custom why any especial significance should be attached to the arbitrary measure of time that we call a century. It merely happens that we reckon decimally rather than duodecimally, and thus measure off ten tens rather than twelve twelves. The alternation of the seasons gives a natural meaning to the year, whereas a

decade or a century is a purely arbitrary grouping. The main course of history is not much affected by these arbitrary transitions from one century to another, although, evidently, in less important ways the course of history is modified by the manner in which mankind agrees to shape affairs to correspond with measures of time to which custom has attached importance. Thus doubtless the nearness of the transition from one century to another had something to do with fixing the date upon which the Russians decided to make official use of the Gregorian calendar. The turn of the century obviously supplied a large part of the motive for the holding of the great French exposition that is to open several months hence; and the holding of this exposition, in indirect ways, will unquestionably, in the future, be seen to have affected the course of political history to no insignificant extent.

The Century-End and the Hague Conference.

The nearness of the end of the nineteenth century and the feeling that the twentieth century ought to open with a more auspicious outlook for peace and harmony doubtless had something to do with the calling of the Hague conference, and had still more to do with the spirit of the gathering and with its weighty results. The work of that conference was embodied chiefly in the form of a treaty providing a plan for the regular and permanent resort to arbitration in the settlement of disputes between nations. By authority of the President of the United States our delegates at the Hague conference signed that treaty. The Senate of the United States, sharing with the President the treaty-making power, must now ratify the convention by a two-thirds affirmative vote if this country is to stand as a party to the general agreement. No one will say that the adoption of this treaty will have established the millennial reign of universal peace; but it will certainly have been a most hopeful step in that direction. For the Senate of the United States to refuse to ratify the treaty, in this transitional year which is ushering in the new century, would seem to us to be making history in the retrograde rather than in the progressive sense. Mr. McKinley in his message to Congress urges ratification.

Senators, Ratify and Smooth the Path of History!

We print elsewhere in this number the full text of that memorable draft, and we join with other careful and serious students of the questions that are involved in respectfully asking the Senators, without any regard to party affiliations and with consideration for the main spirit and purpose of the treaty, and without much stickling about details, to honor themselves and show their faith in the better side of human nature and national character by voting cheerfully to make the United States a party to this international agreement. As Mr. Holls, of the American delegation, so ably explained in our November number, the treaty in no manner changes the position of the United States with respect to its traditional policy. It leaves us free to exercise under the Monroe Doctrine an oversight over the peaceful evolution of republican institutions in the western hemisphere, and to avoid complications with the concert of Europe in those affairs that have come by general consent to be supervised by that group of powers. There are cynics who will say that the professed interest of the United States in the settlement of disputes by arbitration is a palpable humbug in view of our painful and costly war with the Filipinos, still unfinished after almost a year. There are still more who will



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PRESIDENT M'KINLEY AND THE LATE VICE-PRESIDENT HOBART.



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THE LATE VICE-PRESIDENT HOBART.

gainsay the professed faith of the English in the possibilities of arbitration in view of their absolute refusal to arbitrate their differences with the Transvaal republic and in the face of the deplorable conflict now raging in South Africa. But these conflicts merely illustrate the horrible nature of war as an instrument for the remedy of difficulties or grievances of any sort, and render all the more urgent the advocacy of every principle, policy, and practical method by which wars may be rendered more and more infrequent.

The Late Mr. Hobart.

The death of the Hon. Garret A. Hobart, Vice-President of the United States, occurred at his home, Paterson, N. J., on November 21. Mr. Hobart had been ill for some months, and it was generally known that his retirement from public life was imminent, although it was by no means realized that his disease was destined to run its course so rapidly. Before his nomination to the Vice-Presidency in 1896 Mr. Hobart was a man prominent in his own State of New Jersey, well and honorably known among business men in New York City, and extensively acquainted with active Republican leaders throughout the country. He had been a successful business man, with varied corporate interests. He had headed the New Jersey delegation in national Republican conventions, and was known to have served prominently in both houses of the State Legislature, although not regarded as one of the office holding or seeking class. He brought to the office of the Vice-Presidency a remarkable amount of tact and good sense.

Functions of the Vice-President.

The active functions of the Vice-President are limited to the work of presiding in a somewhat honorary capacity over the deliberations of the Senate. He does not appoint the Senate committees, make its rules, or exercise any authority whatever, except that on rare occasions of a tie vote he has power to turn the scale. The Vice-President has no official or public relations with the President or Cabinet, and his importance lies in the chance that through the death of the President he may step from a position without authority to one that carries with it more responsibility and power than any other in the whole range of modern constitutional governments. Since such a thing is possible at any moment, it is of the utmost consequence to the country that the Vice-President be ready and able to take up the burden where his predecessor has laid it down. It has often been suggested that the Constitution of the United States be amended to make the office of the Vice-President more inviting to an active man by attaching to it certain real responsibilities and duties. But until it becomes perfectly clear what such duties ought to be, there is no reason to suppose that anything will be done to change that which is written in the organic law. Meanwhile a great deal can be done, without any change of the laws, to increase the influence and dignity of the Vice-Presidential position. For one thing, political parties should never fail to select candidates for this office who are acceptable in every way to their candidates for the Presidency.

Mr. Hobart's Public Influence.

It happened that Mr. Hobart and Mr. McKinley were congenial, and that the President set high value upon the counsel and coöperation of the Vice-President. And so, without holding a Cabinet portfolio, Mr. Hobart was in close confidential relations with President McKinley, on excellent terms with the members of the Cabinet, and in close touch with the policy and operations of the Government. Thus if death had suddenly claimed the President, Mr. Hobart would have been able to take up the reins of office with no danger of a break in the continuity of affairs and no probability whatever of any reorganization of the Cabinet or of any part of the executive government. Mr.

Hobart also made the most of his opportunities as presiding officer of the Senate. He mingled freely among the Senators; was diligent, impartial, and efficient in his parliamentary *rôle* as a presiding officer; and through the force of a very attractive personality and a wonderfully sound judgment and lucid intelligence, he was probably as influential in shaping the policies and expediting the business of the Senate as if he had been a member of that body of long standing. He was the acknowledged head of the Republican party of his own State, and held the devoted friendship of other leading New Jersey Republicans like the Attorney-General, Mr. Griggs, and the present governor.

Mr. Hay as "Heir Apparent."

A few years ago Congress enacted a new law to arrange the order of succession in case of the death of the Vice-President. As this law stands, the Vice-Presidency being now vacant, the members of the Cabinet, beginning with the Secretary of State, are in the line of promotion in case of the death or disability of the President. The functions of the presiding officer of the Senate will be assumed by a member of that body selected by his fellow-members and known as the President *pro tem.* This is a position that exists at all times, so that a chairman is ready at hand in case of the temporary absence of the Vice-President. But the office of President *pro tem.* gains an increased importance when, as at present, the Vice-Presidency is vacant. This post is occupied by Senator William P. Frye, of Maine, whose long and honorable public service and high personal character give him the respect and esteem of his colleagues of all parties. The Secretary of State of the United States is a man whose office has never been one of mere ease and honor, without work or anxiety; and it has been a doubly responsible position of late in view of the widened range of the foreign interests and concerns of our Government. Thus the man who has this arduous and delicate public business in hand is naturally an object of exceptional interest to his fellow-citizens. And now that the Hon. John Hay, in addition to the management under the President of the foreign relations of the country, has stepped into the position of "heir apparent," so to speak, his personality and career very properly acquire a fresh interest. President McKinley's health is not impaired, and his prospects for a second term are at least as favorable as were his prospects for a first term at the time of his nomination in 1896. There remain fourteen months of the quadrennial period for which he was elected. There is not much likelihood that the Hon. John Hay will be called to step to the Presidential chair from his position as the ranking member of the Cabinet. Nevertheless there is nothing more uncertain than human life; and it is not inconceivable that Mr. Hay might be President of the United States when this number of the REVIEW makes its appearance. We publish in this issue a sketch of the career of the Secretary of State, with glimpses of the nature of his present public activities, written by Mr. Henry Macfarland.



HON. WILLIAM P. FRYE, PRESIDENT OF THE SENATE.

Republican Plans for the Presidential Year.

The Republican National Committee met at Washington last month and decided to hold the next convention at Philadelphia on June 19. Although New York, St. Louis, and one or two other cities were in active competition for the honor of entertaining the great party gathering, the real contest quickly narrowed down to Chicago and Philadelphia. No Republican candidate for the Presidency has been selected by a convention sitting east of the Alleghanies for a great many years. McKinley was nominated in 1896 at St. Louis, Harrison in 1892 at Minneapolis and in 1888 at Chicago, Blaine in 1884 at Chicago, Garfield in 1880 at Chicago, and Hayes in 1876 at Cincinnati. It was hoped that the National Committee would change the basis of representation, in order to reduce in the convention what is now the absurdly disproportionate influence of

the non-Republican States. But it is difficult to bring about radical alterations of this sort, and the attempt at Washington last month completely failed.

Remarkable Party Harmony.

The spirit in which the convention plans were made was set forth in the following passage from the speech of Senator Depew, who appeared before the committee to advocate the claims of New York City: "This convention will probably be in session a fewer number of days than any of its predecessors. The ticket will be nominated by acclamation. There is no division of sentiment in our party as to who shall head it. The wisdom and statesmanship of President McKinley have satisfied the party and the country, so that he will receive the immediate and unanimous nomination of the convention, and that choice will just as certainly be ratified by the people. By the time the convention meets the choice for Vice-President will be equally clear. We shall have the unique, interesting, and inspiring spectacle of a great party going before the people without any of the jealousies or the acrimonies or heart-burnings of defeated convention candidates. The platform is already formulated in the minds not only of the party leaders, but of the voters of the country. It will point to an unexampled record of pledges fulfilled, of the beneficent results of Republican policies, and extraordinary prosperity. Its keynote will be gold and glory—gold, the standard which, once fixed beyond question, has given us the first rank among commercial nations, and the glory of our arms, which has made us a world power and opened for the enormous surplus of our fields and factories distant, exhaustless, and remunerative markets." It is certainly true that not a single influential member of the Republican party anywhere in the country is openly opposing the renomination of President McKinley. The candidate for Vice-President will quite probably be an Eastern man, and it was reported last month that the Hon. Elihu Root, of New York, now Secretary of War, had been so generally agreed upon by influential Republicans that no other name would be offered to the convention, unless Mr. Root should positively decline to accept a place on the ticket. Men of all parties will admit that Mr. Root's name would add positive strength, and that a better man could hardly be selected as Mr. McKinley's "running mate."



Photo by Pach Bros.

HON. CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW, OF NEW YORK.
(The most prominent of the new Senators.)

Another "Era of Good Feeling."

It was remarked last month by the New York *Times*, which is an independent Democratic newspaper, that the approaching campaign gave promise of being something like that of 1820, when Monroe was reëlected in what was known as an "era of good feeling" with practically no opposition whatever. But although Mr. McKinley's reëlection, as well as renomination, now seems highly probable, the situation in 1900 will not bear any literal comparison with that of 1820. Monroe received every electoral vote of all the States, with the single exception that one New Hampshire elector cast his ballot for John Quincy Adams. Southern Democrats and Northern Whigs alike acquiesced in the reëlection of President Monroe and Vice-President Tompkins. A good account of that election may be found in Mr. Stanwood's excellent "History of the Presidency." This year the Democrats and a considerable part of the Populists will almost certainly concur in the renomination of the Hon. William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, and it would be a great mistake, under those circumstances, for the Republicans to be too confident about the new "era of good feeling" or for the Democrats to confess defeat in advance. It will have been twenty-eight years since the people of the United States reëlected their President, and an opposing coalition is not obliged to have a very consistent programme of principles or a very scientific campaign. Millions of voters will feel that the Republican party, as led by its present chieftains, is too favorable to combinations of capital, too much inclined toward large military and naval expenditure, too ready to renounce forever the old American tradition of bimetallism, and, in short, too strongly disposed toward centraliza-

tion, imperialism, outlived tariff discriminations, and entangling adventures in diplomacy. It must be confessed that if the business community were not so averse to the possibility of the disturbing changes in the monetary and financial policy that Mr. Bryan's election might involve, the Republican outlook would be far less brilliant than it now is.



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MAJ.-GEN. LEONARD WOOD.

(The new governor of Cuba.)

Pending Questions— (1) Porto Rico.

Naturally, the character of the campaign will be much affected by the course of public events during the coming six months. The more rapidly the Republicans, with their present unobstructed sweep of power, find satisfactory solutions for existing problems, the better will be their position before the country next fall. Some of these pending questions have to do with the treatment of the island territories affected by our war with Spain. In his message President McKinley advises the prompt extension to Porto Rico of free trade with the United States. Political without commercial annexation could only be a bitter mockery. Porto Rico ought to have the full benefit of the American market, and needs nothing else to make certain the beginnings of a prosperous development. A revival of agriculture and business will make it comparatively easy to multiply schools and to train the people in the art of local self-government.

Cuba and Its Future.

Mr. McKinley's treatment of the Cuban question in his message is eminently satisfactory. He does not forget that Congress in April, 1898, committed itself and the country to the policy of turning the government of Cuba over to the Cubans in the due course of time. The various measures that have been pursued since the close of the war have been in preparation for Cuban independence. The treaty of Paris gave to the Spanish inhabitants of Cuba a period of time ending on April 11 next in which to decide whether to remain subjects of the Spanish crown or to accept Cuban citizenship. Meanwhile the new census of the island will have been completed. Thus it will be possible, after April 11, as it will not have been possible any sooner, to make up a roster of citizenship as a basis for the choice of a constitutional convention. The President's plan looks squarely toward the establishment of an independent Cuban republic and the withdrawal of the military forces of the United States. It is important above all things that each successive step should be taken in an orderly and responsible manner, and the situation does not call for precipitancy or mere experiment. Brig.-Gen. Leonard Wood, whose management of the governorship of Santiago province has been so warmly praised, was made a major-general of



A WELCOME IN CUBA FOR GOVERNOR WOOD.

(Cuba will have had a Santa Claus this season, sure enough.)

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

volunteers last month and appointed governor of the whole island to succeed General Brooke, who returns to the United States. Whether agreed upon in writing or not, the future republic of Cuba will have to accept a certain moral protectorate on the part of the United States, and will further have to allow this country some right of guidance in the completion of needful sanitary reforms, in Havana and elsewhere, that will tend to exempt the United States in the future from the frequent epidemics that in times past have visited us from Cuban ports. Undoubtedly there will be a great party in Cuba favorable to the plan of seeking admittance to the American Union as a State after the island has entered fairly upon its home-rule career.

New Senate Committees.

Altered territorial conditions have led to the creation of several important new standing committees of the Senate. One of these, of which Senator Foraker has been made chairman, will consider all matters affecting our relations with Cuba. Another, of which Senator Lodge is chairman, will have to do with the Philippine Islands. A member of this committee is Mr. Beveridge, the new Senator from Indiana, who spent a considerable part of last year in the most arduous kind of travel and investigation in the Philippine Archipelago, besides studying on the ground such questions as the relation of the United States to the future trade of China and other problems of the far East. Since his return Mr. Beveridge has kept his own counsel so far as the public is concerned, but it is reasonable to suppose that his special preparation will be valuable to the country not only in the committee-room, but also on the floor of the Senate chamber. Senator Lodge announces that while the committee will be diligent in the study of Philippine questions and the collection of information, its more active functions will not begin until the war in the islands is at an end.



THE MYSTERIOUS ONE.

The reporters go up to the sphinx
And demand to know just what it thinx
Of the Philippine Isles;
But the sphinx only smiles
And replies: "That's a secret, by jinx!"

From the *News* (Indianapolis).

Mr. McKinley on the Philippine Question.

President McKinley reviews the history of the struggle with the Filipinos at great length and with the utmost frankness. His presentation of facts forms a highly impressive defense of the essential justice and humanity of the policy that his administration has pursued. The President's views concerning the governmental future of the Philippines are clearly set forth. He recognizes the fact that there is no present unity of race, language, or other interests, and that the problem of governmental progress for the archipelago is to be solved in very much the same way that the old man in the fable taught his sons how to break the bundle of fagots. Externally the Philippines may be regarded as an entity; internally there are many entities of far greater diversity of race, language, religion, and civilization than the various entities that make up the West Indies, for example. We must analyze the Philippine situation, therefore, and deal patiently one by one with its component factors.

The Island of Negros.

The President illustrates this by showing how we have already dealt with the island of Negros. We have a military governor there selected by General Otis, who represents the highest authority. There is a civil governor and an advisory council, elected by the people of Negros. The advisory council has legislative functions, while the office of the civil governor carries on ordinary administration under the general oversight of the military governor. This general plan will probably be found to suit the needs of various other islands.

The Sulu Group.

The Sulu group—though under our sovereignty so far as the world at large is concerned—are a cluster of Mohammedan islets with a sultan of their own and a quasi-independence, under our protection. It is not feasible for us immediately to attempt the control of the interior life or customs of the population governed by the Sulu Sultan. We have long been sovereign over most of the territory comprised within the United States; but

through most of our history it has not been considered possible to interfere with the tribal organization or customs of the Indian population of the great Indian territory or the frontier reservations. In like manner, our relations to the Sulu Islands would not justify us in the attempt to suppress polygamy, for example, by immediate measures of a drastic nature.

Guam, Per Contra.

Our possession of the island of Guam, on the other hand, which lies in the Ladrone archipelago, is of a different nature, and renders it feasible to attempt without delay to enforce civilized standards of conduct such as exist in many of the small Malayan islands which have been transformed under missionary influence. Governor Leary reports good progress, everybody having been set at work and polygamy and concubinage having been effectively prohibited. Slavery continues to exist in the Sulu group, and it will, doubtless, be the policy of the President and Congress to get rid of it as rapidly as possible. Our representatives have already persuaded the Sultan of the Sulus to agree that all slaves may be allowed to buy their freedom. Further steps toward emancipation should be taken as rapidly as possible, and undoubtedly will be taken.

Luzon and the Progress of the War.

The reconstruction of government in the great island of Luzon must of course await the conclusion of the war. The active campaign that we described last month resulted in the almost complete disintegration of the armed insurgents. Our soldiers marched and fought with prodigious energy, under hardships uncomplainingly borne and with a skill in the adaptation of their means to the exact conditions that the brave Englishmen fighting in South Africa so pitiably lack. The American officers have not only shown themselves swift and daring campaigners, but their keen wits have seldom failed them, and the cunning strategy of men trained in Indian fighting seems to have so fastened its traditions upon the American army that even the younger officers can be trusted to avoid pitfalls. Thus on November 28, fifty troopers under Lieutenant Munro, of the Fourth Cavalry, received the surrender of Bayombong, making prisoners of 800 armed men, with their weapons, stores, and supplies; and this was done without the firing of a shot, through a harmless ruse that created the impression in Bayombong that the Americans were coming with a large force. It is all very brave and fine, perhaps, to fight openly in the English fashion, without the faintest conception of strategy, but it is a much more desirable thing to score points in warfare without the useless sacrifice of life. At best, war is bloody work. On December 4, at Vigan, 200 Americans, most of whom were ill from hard marching, held their position with small loss against an attack of about 1,000 insurgents, who after several hours of fighting were completely routed. The specific attempt to capture Aguinaldo had not succeeded as this number of the REVIEW went to press, but most of his immediate party had been taken in hand, and it was known that Aguinaldo in the middle of December was hiding in disguise in the rough and remote province of North Ilocos, in the extreme northwest corner of Luzon. Our officers, meanwhile, had been making use of the good season to clear central Luzon of all important bodies of insurgent troops, and to penetrate at almost every point the provinces skirting the long stretch of coast-line on the west side of Luzon north of Manila Bay. The president of the last Filipino Congress, members of Aguinaldo's cabinet, important generals as well as civilians—and, in short, almost all the ablest of the insurgents except Aguinaldo himself—have been gradually falling into the hands of the American troops. In a word, the war seems to be drawing near a conclusion. On the 19th there came the sad news that General Lawton had been shot and killed. He was a soldier whose praises were in all mouths and whose services to his country had been great.



SO NEAR AND YET SO FAR.

General Otis reports that Aguinaldo is nearly caught—in fact is within a cocoanut's throw!
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



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HON. DAVID B. HENDERSON, OF IOWA.

(The new Speaker of the House.)

Republicans in Full Power.

The new Congress, as we remarked last month, has a working Republican majority in both houses. The Republican forces both in the Senate and in the House of Representatives are in very cordial relations with the President, and recent experiences in caucus would indicate on the part both of Representatives and Senators an unusual degree of harmony among themselves as to Republican policy and the work to be done in the present session. It is a good while since either of the great parties has had as clear and unobstructed a chance as the Republicans now have at Washington to carry out a given line of party policy. Heretofore, whatever the predominant Republican views on the money question have been, as reflected in the House of Representatives and in the administration, the Senate has had opinions of its own for which it has stood like a rock. Gradual changes in the *personnel* of the Senate have, for the first time in a great many years, resulted in what appears to be a clear majority of men who believe in the frank avowal and future maintenance of the actual existing gold standard of the country. This means a great change.

Mr. Henderson in the Speaker's Chair.

The previous understanding that Mr. Henderson, of Iowa, would be agreed upon as the Republican candidate for Speaker of the House of Representatives was promptly ratified when Congress assembled in the first week of December. The caucus of Democratice members resulted in the selection of the Hon. James D. Richardson, of Tennessee, as their candidate for Speaker, which merely signified that Mr. Richardson would be recognized as the leader of the Democratic minority in the House. Mr. Bailey, of Texas, who was the leader of the Democrats in the last House, with Mr. De Armond, of Missouri, actively supports the new leader. Mr. Richardson has served in Congress for fourteen years. His views as to silver, trusts, "expansion," and the foreign policy of the country are in general those of Mr. Bryan. Mr. Henderson's term as Speaker was begun auspiciously, and Congress was gratified to learn that committee appointments would be ready for announcement before the holiday adjournment. Old leaders in Congress have disappeared rapidly of late years, and the Democratic party in particular has lost the well-known figures in the House of a period so recent as that of the Wilson tariff bill. Speaker Crisp has passed away, Mr. Wilson has retired from politics, Mr. Bland is dead. Mr. Bailey's prominence in the last House was an evidence of the rise of new men, as was also the candidacy of Mr. William Sulzer, of New York, last month, for the position that Mr. Richardson secured.



Photo by Bell.

HON. J. D. RICHARDSON, OF TENNESSEE.

(Democratic leader in the House.)

The Roberts Case.

The first incident of importance in the opening history of the new Congress, after the installation of the new Speaker, was the successful protest against the swearing in of Mr. Brigham Roberts, the member-elect from Utah. The leadership in the opposition to Mr. Roberts was taken by the Hon. Robert W. Tayler, of Ohio, who presented with great force the grounds upon which he believed Mr. Roberts to be legally disqualified for membership. A petition against the seating of Roberts on the ground that he was a polygamist had been signed by several million persons in pursuance of a crusade actively managed by the New York *Journal*. Mr. Roberts was allowed to speak in his own behalf, and his case was referred for prompt consideration to a special committee, of which Mr. Tayler was made chairman. It is expected that the committee will report that Mr. Roberts is ineligible on the ground that, having lost his political rights as a convicted polygamist in territorial days, under the Edmunds law, his failure to comply with the conditions upon which amnesty and restoration were subsequently offered leaves him under the old ban. It is now the opinion of many people that Mormon polygamy is undergoing an extensive revival, and that the federal courts ought to have jurisdiction over the question, as in the territorial days. Hence there has arisen the question whether steps ought not to be taken at once, by an amendment of the Constitution, to give Congress the power to legislate against polygamy.

Monetary Bills to the Front.

Through the long recess the Senate had had a committee framing a money bill, and leading Republicans of the House had been working on that question, while the outside organization of business men whose views have been represented by a standing committee of the Indianapolis monetary conference had also for many months past been quietly but incessantly at work. The President dealt with the subject in his message, recognizing expressly the fact that our monetary standard is gold, and advising legislation to confirm that standard and to enable the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain it when necessary by a sale of gold bonds. Measures were promptly introduced in both branches of Congress, differing in various details, but not fundamentally opposed to one another. It was thought likely that these bills would be passed, after a reasonable amount of debate, very much as introduced, and then sent to a joint conference committee to be fused into final form. Since, for a long time, the United States has maintained gold payments, the proposed legislation will not so much change the conditions that have existed heretofore as it will serve to make change more difficult in the near future. The pending measures provide for the maintenance of an ample reserve fund and the protection at par of the various kinds of money now in circulation. It is proposed to change the national banking law in ways that will facilitate the establishment of national banks in small places, and also to make the issue of bank notes more easy and profitable, in order to improve the elasticity of the volume of the circulating medium.

The Gold Standard as Republican Doctrine.

The Republicans went into the last national campaign on the ground of opposing the full and free use of silver as a money metal by the United States, except as a result of agreement on the part of leading European nations to do the same thing. It is evidently the intention of the Republicans to go into the Presidential campaign of the present year with the statement that it has been found impossible at present to induce European nations to unite in the remonetization of silver, and that the prosperity of the United States absolutely demands that there be no further uncertainty as to the intrinsic significance of the word "dollar." The Republicans will maintain that henceforth, both in public and in private transactions, the final meaning of the word "dollar" should be 25.8 grains of gold of a certain fineness—namely, 90 per cent. Our adoption for practical purposes of the same standard of value as that which all the principal nations of the commercial world now use has nothing necessarily to do with an ideal solution of one of the greatest and most difficult of problems. The extent of what is to be said of such a measure is that to the majority of people who have given close thought to the question this seems to be the best thing that can be done in the closing year of the nineteenth century.

Metallic Versus Ideal Money.

Before we have completed the twentieth century we may have lived quite beyond the need of using a metal or any combination of metals for intermediary service in the exchange of products. Present standards, when tested in the light of ideal conditions and possibilities, seem crude, arbitrary, variable, and inefficient. It is not necessary to renounce one's ideals, nor yet to give up efforts to bring about their realization, even though one accepts for the present the best working solution that offers itself. The principal argument against the gold standard, as advanced a few years ago, was based upon an apparent average decline in the prices of staple

commodities, as measured by gold bullion, this being taken to indicate that gold was becoming scarcer and more costly. The evidence to support this contention is by no means conclusive, nor has it been strengthened very much by the course of prices within the past few years. It is perhaps true to say that the greater part of the people who, a few years ago, felt themselves to be personally the losers by virtue of the maintenance of the gold standard, have now so adjusted their affairs that any radical change would probably hurt them more than it could help them. Speaking in general, the farmers are in a position far more favorable than that which they occupied in 1896; and perhaps no class of legitimate producers and business men can better afford to take their chances on the future effects of the firm maintenance of the single gold basis in this country than those who own and cultivate the land.



HON. JESSE OVERSTREET, OF INDIANA.
(In charge of House currency bill.)

The House Bill Passed on December 18.

A special rule of the House of Representatives called for the closing of the debate on the currency bill on Monday, December 18. Mr. Overstreet, of Indiana, who was in charge of the bill, accordingly on that date called for the ayes and noes, and the roll-call resulted in its passage by a vote of 190 to 150. Eleven Democrats, six of whom were from New York, voted in its favor. No Republicans voted against it. Evidently there has come about a very striking change in Republican sentiment, as shown in this mere fact that every Republican member of the House has deliberately placed himself upon an uncompromising gold standard platform. The Senate will debate the bill at considerable length, and will doubtless pass it in a form different enough so that a week or two of conference will be required to give the measure its matured form. It is probable that President McKinley's signature will not be attached to the bill much before March 1. The details of those parts of the measure that relate to banking and to the interchangeability and redemption of the various parts of our circulating medium are naturally open to much discussion.

The House Committees.

On the same day the Speaker announced his arrangement of the House committees. It was the common verdict that he had managed a difficult and delicate business with tact and skill. In so far as possible, Mr. Henderson fulfilled reasonable expectations, observing the claims of seniority with the utmost strictness. Mr. Payne, of New York, who had succeeded the late Mr. Dingley, remains at the head of the Ways and Means Committee; Mr. Cannon, of Illinois, is chairman of the Committee on Appropriations; Mr. Ray, of New York, of the Judiciary; Mr. Brosius, of Pennsylvania, of Banking and Currency; Mr. Hepburn, of Iowa, of Interstate and Foreign Commerce; Mr. Southard, of Ohio, of Coinage, Weights, and Measures; Mr. Burton, of Ohio, of Rivers and Harbors; Mr. Grosvenor, of Ohio, of Merchant Marine and Fisheries; Mr. Hitt, of Illinois, of Foreign Affairs; Mr. Boutelle, of Maine, of Naval Affairs; Mr. Loud, of California, of Post-Offices; Mr. Lacy, of Iowa, of Public Lands; and Mr. Sherman, of New York, of Indian Affairs. The civil-service reformers have reason to be pleased with the appointment of Mr. Gillett, of Massachusetts, at the head of the committee on that subject.

The Treasury Statement.

Mr. Gage's annual report to Congress as Secretary of the Treasury shows that the income of the Government from all sources for the fiscal year that ended June 30 was $610,982,004. The total expenditures for the same period were $700,093,564, leaving a deficit of $89,111,560. Apart from revenue, the Treasury had received from the sale of 3-per-cent. war bonds almost $200,000,000. As compared with the previous fiscal year, the Government's income had increased almost $117,000,000, while its expenditures had increased almost $162,000,000. Mr. Gage estimates that for the fiscal year which is now half

ended there will be in round figures a revenue of $640,000,000 and an expenditure of $600,000,000, showing a surplus of $40,000,000. The postal service has reached a point where income and outgo almost exactly balance, the amount received and paid out being in round figures $100,000,000. If this item were omitted from both sides, it would be found that in round figures it now takes from $500,000,000 to $600,000,000 to pay Uncle Sam's annual bills, and that he is looking to the custom-houses for from $200,000,000 to $230,000,000 a year income and to the internal revenue system for anywhere from $275,000,000 to $300,000,000, miscellaneous sources bringing in about $25,000,000. The interest-bearing debt of the United States now amounts to a little over $1,000,000,000. Mr. Gage calls attention to the phenomenal development of our exports, with the result that the past year has witnessed a larger volume of foreign trade than any previous one. The unprecedentedly large amount of gold in the Treasury is regarded by Mr. Gage as making it especially opportune for Congress to push to conclusion the gold standard measure now pending. The report is particularly full and able in its discussion of the history and problems of American banking.

Secretary Root's Report.

Mr. Root's annual report as Secretary of War is a document of immense interest, comprising as it does a history of the operations in the Philippines, an account of what has been done under our military occupation of Cuba, a statement of the administrative work that has been done in Porto Rico, and many other matters of the utmost current importance. Among the chief recommendations are those for the improvement of the army organization, which call for a radical change in the existing staff system, and the establishment of a war college for the training of officers in the practical business of modern warfare. Mr. Root is able to make a gratifying report upon the health of the troops, and his statistics show that from the opening of the past year up to November 1 the total loss of life among our men in the Philippines had been 843, of whom 366 had died of disease, 477 having been killed in battle or having died from wounds or other injuries.

Other Reports.

As to the report of the Secretary of the Navy, it is able and satisfactory at every point, further increasing the confidence reposed by the country in the wisdom and ability of Secretary Long and those who are associated with him in the work of administering and developing our naval force. The shipbuilding programme of the immediate future is to take the direction of swift cruisers and numerous small and inexpensive vessels, rather than that of battleships. The Postmaster-General, Hon. Charles Emory Smith, makes a report which shows not only expansion in our domestic postal service, but interesting developments in the islands which have now come under our jurisdiction. The new experiment of the free-delivery system in the country districts has resulted well enough to justify the Postmaster-General in recommending the rapid extension of the plan. The strongest part of the report is that which deals with the abuses of the "second-class" privilege, by which the Government loses many millions of dollars a year on matter which ought not to be carried at pound rates. The report of Mr. Hitchcock, Secretary of the Interior, discusses various topics of great importance, such as the management of the public lands, forest reserves, the Patent Office, and the Pension Bureau.

Mr. Chamberlain's War in South Africa.

It had been the confident boast of the British promoters of the war in South Africa that their troops would eat their Christmas dinners at Pretoria, Johannesburg, and Bloemfontein. The Tory press of England spoke of the Boer as a mere fly on the wheel of the chariot of Progress, to be crushed at a single turn. It was Mr. Chamberlain's opinion, undoubtedly, that the Boers would not fight. As we explained at the time, Mr. Chamberlain never dreamed of bringing a hideous war upon England, being confident in the potency of those methods of his that had for some time been lauded by his admirers as the "new diplomacy." His theory was that the way to get all you want in dealing with a small power is to invent pretexts for a quarrel, appear to have serious grievances, enter upon a course of ever-shifting and increasing demands, and, while negotiations are still pending, to ship troops and make all the appearance of preparation for war. To Mr. Chamberlain's great surprise, the small nation of like blood with the men who under William of Orange fought so gloriously against the army of the Spanish Inquisition spoiled the game of the new diplomacy by preferring to fight against incomparable odds rather than to do the obliging and logical thing and permit themselves to be bluffed. Before marching to Bloemfontein and Pretoria, General Buller's fine army had to perform what the average Englishman supposed would be the merest holiday diversion of relieving General White's troops penned up at Ladysmith, in the upper part of Natal, and the smaller British garrisons under siege at Kimberley and Mafeking.

Reverse Upon Reverse.

When the war opened every skirmish was reported to the British press through the War Office at London as a magnificent victory for the Queen's forces. But at length it became impossible to conceal the fact that the untrained Boer farmers were fighting just as bravely as the most famous regiments of British regulars, and that the big-booted, full-bearded farmers who commanded the Boers were far better generals, in so far as strategy and modern tactics are concerned, than the magnificently uniformed and much-vaunted generals of the British army. The formidable brigades pushing up the westward line to relieve Kimberley had met with reverse after reverse and had been compelled to fall back upon the defensive, even while within sight of the flash-light signals of the Kimberley garrison. Meanwhile the still more formidable army under the personal command of Gen. Sir Redvers Buller himself had been trying to get across the Tugela River, at or near Colenso, in order to advance to the relief of Ladysmith. It was scarcely to be supposed that the Boers were strong enough in that neighborhood to be able to keep General White's forces penned up at Ladysmith, while also effectively checking General Buller's army at the Tugela River. But the unexpected happened with a vengeance at that point on December 15

Buller's Disaster.

There were two fordable places about two miles apart. At 4 o'clock on the morning of the 15th General Buller advanced his entire army with the intention of crossing the Tugela at one or the other of these fords. His forces were grouped in three brigades, one of which was to try the right-hand ford, another the left-hand ford, and the third brigade to take a central position, in order to support either or both of the two other forces as might be necessary. Early in the day Buller found that General Hart, who was commanding the brigade on the left, was meeting with such deadly resistance that he could not possibly force a passage, and Buller accordingly instructed him to withdraw. At the same time Buller ordered General Hildyard, who was on the road leading to the right or east ford to advance quickly. At the same time he sent some twelve pieces of artillery to support the attack, these guns being under command of Colonel Long. This artillery officer, in his zeal to secure an advantageous position with short and effective range against the enemy on the other side of the stream, advanced with all his guns close to the river; whereupon he found that he had gone into a Boer ambush. Most of the artillery horses were immediately killed, and the gunners were either captured, killed, wounded, or driven away. Ten out of twelve pieces of artillery were abandoned, and one other piece was lost in the course of the day's fighting. It was useless to try to drive General Hildyard's brigade, no longer supported by artillery, against the shell fire from the Boer batteries on the other side of the ford; and so the whole British army fell back to its camp at Cheveley. Our map on the following page shows clearly the localities named.



A BRITISH NAVAL GUN IN ACTION NEAR THE TUGELA.



PROPHETIC.

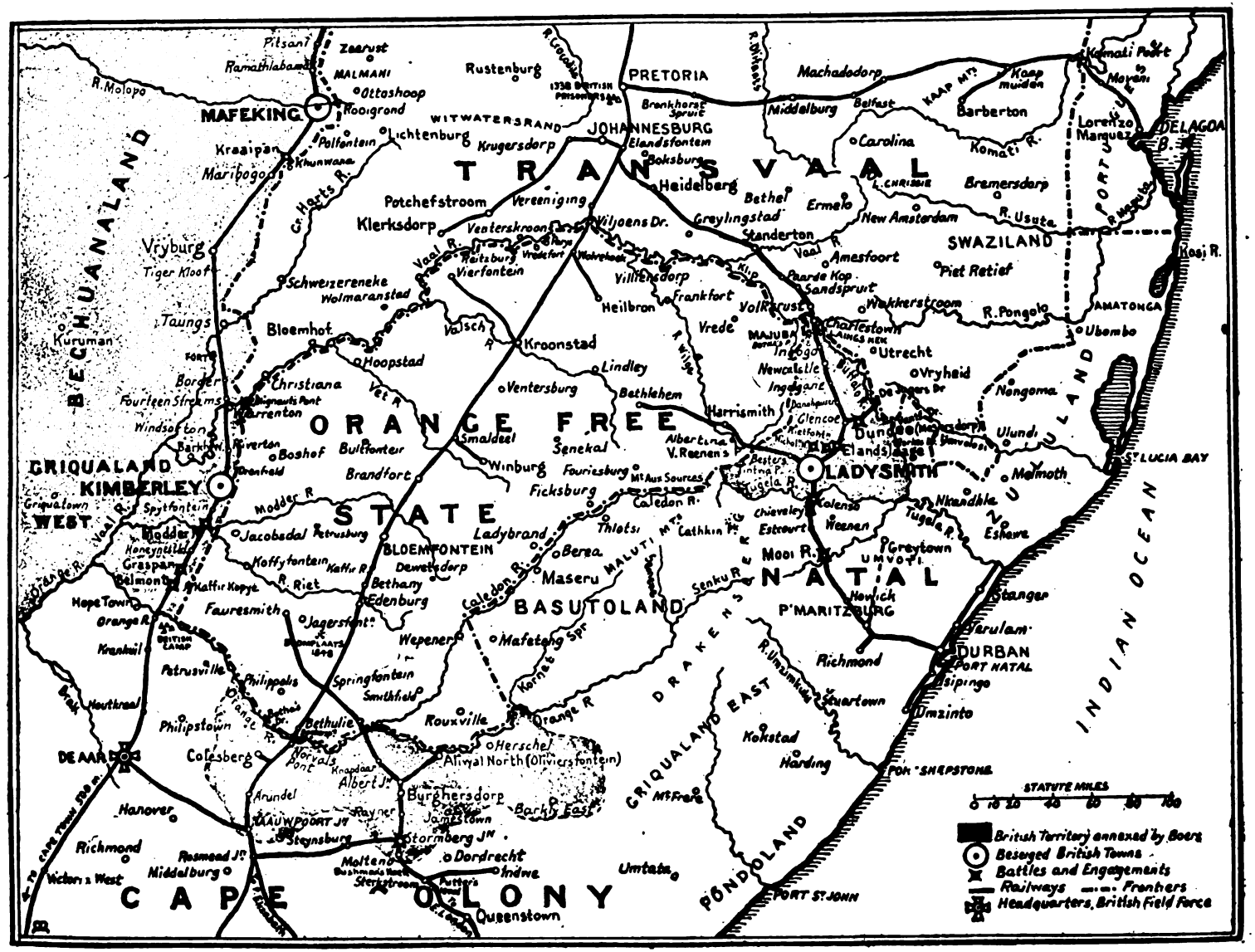
GENERAL BULLER: "I thought I told you to give him battle?"

SIR GEORGE WHITE: "So I did, and you see the result. When he gets at you it will be the same way."

From the *Novoe Vremya* (St. Petersburg).

Agitation in London.

The first reports gave no idea of the extent of the British loss of men, although the tone of Buller's dispatch led the London press to the conclusion that British arms had suffered no such reverse since the time of the great Indian mutiny, more than forty years ago. One paper indeed declared that nothing so bad had happened since the surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown—an affair, by the way, that is most notably described in Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's new novel, "Janice Meredith." Some editors were demanding that Lord Kitchener be sent to South Africa, and others were spread-


TRANSVAAL
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL
BASUTOLAND
BECHUANALAND
GRIQUALAND WEST
CAPE COLONY
GRIQUALAND EAST
PONDOLAND
ZULULAND
SWAZILAND
DELAGOA B.
INDIAN OCEAN
DRAKENSBERG
MAFEKING
KIMBERLEY
LADYSMITH
PRETORIA
JOHANNESBURG
DURBAN
P'MARITZBURG
BLOEMFONTEIN
DE AAR JC
Vryburg
Kuruman
Taungs
Bloemhof
Kroonstad
Vereeniging
Potchefstroom
Klerksdorp
Heidelberg
Middelburg
Belfast
Barberton
Machadodorp
Komati Poort
Lorenzo Marquez
Carolina
Ermelo
Bethel
Standerton
Amersfoort
Piet Retief
New Amsterdam
Volksrust
Wakkerstroom
Utrecht
Vryheid
Dundee
Glencoe
Newcastle
Harrismith
Vrede
Frankfort
Heilbron
Villiersdorp
Vredefort
Viljoens Dr.
Greylingstad
Bethlehem
Ventersburg
Lindley
Winburg
Senekal
Ficksburg
Fouriesburg
Brandfort
Boshof
Bultfontein
Smaldeel
Jacobsdal
Petrusburg
Koffyfontein
Dewetsdorp
Thaba Nchu
Bethany
Edenburg
Ladybrand
Berea
Maseru
Thlotse
Caledon R.
Caledon Sq.
Wepener
Mafeteng
Springfontein
Smithfield
Rouxville
Orange R.
Philippolis
Philipstown
Petrusville
Hopetown
Griquatown
Kimberley
Barkly West
Boshof
Christiana
Warrenton
Windsorton
Schweizereneke
Wolmaransstad
Hoopstad
Vierfontein
Vaal R.
Vet R.
Modder R.
Riet R.
Orange R.
Kraaipan
Maribogo
Pitsani
Ramathlabama
Zeerust
Malmani
Ottoshoop
Rooigrond
Pelfontein
Lichtenburg
Khunwana
Rustenburg
Krugersdorp
Witwatersrand
Brenkhorst Spruit
Boksburg
Elandsfontein
Greylingstad
Standerton
Paarde Kop
Sandspruit
Villiersdorp
Frankfort
Heilbron
Vrede
Majuba Hill
Charlestown
Ingogo
Newcastle
Ingagane
Dundee
Glencoe
Elandslaagte
Ladysmith
Colenso
Estcourt
Weenen
Mooi R.
Greytown
Umvoti
Howick
Pietermaritzburg
Richmond
Durban
Port Natal
Isipingo
Stanger
Tongaat
Verulam
Umzinto
Kokstad
Harding
Port Shepstone
Port St. John
Umtata
Umtamvuna R.
Mt. Frere
Mt. Aux Sources
Drakensberg
Tugela R.
Buffalo R.
Nongoma
Ulundi
Melmoth
Eshowe
St. Lucia Bay
Nkandhla
Zululand
Komati R.
Usuta R.
Pongola R.
Amatonga
Ubombo
Lourenzo Marquez
Delagoa B.
Komati Poort
Kaap Mts.
Carolina
Barberton
Middelburg
Belfast
Machadodorp
Komati Poort
Moyeni
Kaapmuiden
Bremersdorp
L. Chrissie
Ermelo
New Amsterdam
Swaziland
Usuta R.
Pongola R.
Amatonga
Ubombo
Utrecht
Vryheid
Nongoma
Ulundi
Melmoth
Eshowe
St. Lucia Bay
Nkandhla
Zululand
Tugela R.
Buffalo R.
Drakensberg
Mt. Aux Sources
Mt. Frere
Umtamvuna R.
Umtata
Port St. John
Pondoland
Griqualand East
Kokstad
Harding
Port Shepstone
Umzinto
Isipingo
Stanger
Tongaat
Verulam
Howick
Pietermaritzburg
Richmond
Durban
Port Natal
Greytown
Umvoti
Mooi R.
Estcourt
Weenen
Colenso
Chieveley
Ladysmith
Elandslaagte
Dundee
Glencoe
Newcastle
Ingagane
Majuba Hill
Charlestown
Ingog



DEPARTURE FROM WELLINGTON OF A NEW ZEALAND CONTINGENT FOR SOUTH AFRICAN SERVICE.

ing the rumor that Lord Wolseley himself would embark to lead the troops to victory. Predictions were freely made that the Tory government which had allowed Chamberlain to plunge the country into a war for which it was so ill prepared would certainly be overthrown, while the newspapers of all parties congratulated the British empire upon the magnificent courage it was showing in its grim determination to go on with the war in spite of reverses and disasters Meanwhile the War Office was accepting with pathetic gratitude the cabled offers of Australia and Canada to send further succor to the hard-pressed mother land. But for the grief and dismay in English homes and the genuine grit and manhood of the men fighting in far-off Africa, there would have been a ludicrous aspect to the heroics and hysterics of the London press. All the Boers, of both republics—men, women, and children combined—hardly begin to equal in number the population of the obscure suburban town of West Ham, near London. Yet the very same London papers which a few days ago thought the Boers could not and would not fight, and that a few British regiments could go to Pretoria without firing a shot, had now gone to the opposite extreme of regarding the Boer armies as the most formidable ever known in the history of warfare, and were begging their readers to consider that the British empire was engaged in a life-and-death struggle.

The Opinion of Mankind at Large.

This tone merely invited the contempt of the world, while it also provoked the freer expression of enthusiastic admiration for the magnificent stand of the Dutch farmers against such overwhelming odds. A race that can show such qualities as the Boers have exhibited in the last three months ought not to be exterminated. Its hardy stock is needed in the work of developing the Dark Continent. We all know well that the English in the course of a few more weeks or months can hammer and blunder their way through to Pretoria, for the simple reason that they have money, ships, and guns without limit. They can, if need be, transport a million fighting men to Natal and Cape Colony, while the whole Boer nation is already in the field, so far as the two republics are concerned, and the prospect of assistance from any outside quarter is too remote to be seriously considered. The war against the American colonies was a shameful thing for England, and about the only Englishmen who have come out of it decently on the page of history are the Chathams, Foxes, and Burkes, who saw the truth and spoke it with courage. England lost in that war, and her Burgoynes, Howes, and Cornwallises won no glory for themselves or their country. England will win in the present war, but it will be Commandants Joubert, Cronje, and the other Boer



General Joubert.

GENERAL JOUBERT AND SOME OF HIS MILITARY ASSOCIATES.

leaders who will come out with military renown, rather than the Bullers, Methuens, Gatacres, or Whites. And there are Boer statesmen, too.

Disasters to the Armies Led by Methuen and Gatacre.

The extreme dismay of England over the disaster to Buller's army at the Tugela River was due chiefly to the fact that it came as a climax, having been preceded only a few days before by disasters of considerable magnitude to the army that



GENERAL GATACRE.

was endeavoring to relieve Kimberley under Lord Methuen, and the further humiliation of the loss of several regiments in the northern part of Cape Colony under General Gatacre's command. The Boers were becoming very active in the upper districts of Cape Colony, and General Gatacre, with about 4,000 troops, was in command of British interests along the Orange River. On Saturday, December 9, General Gatacre marched from his camp at Malteno to attack a Boer station at Stormberg, some thirteen miles distant. His spies had reported to him that the enemy's force was weak and could be readily surprised and captured. He marched forth accordingly, with fine British confidence, straight into the Boer ambush to which he had been invited. He left behind him about 700 men, nearly all of whom happily were not killed, but taken prisoners.

Lord Methuen's Defeat at Magersfontein.

While Gatacre was thus suffering in his attempt to keep open the line of communication between Lord Methuen's army and its large base of supplies at De Aar—and in general to protect the upper part of Cape Colony from the hordes of Orange Free Staters—Lord Methuen, with his main force of perhaps 12,000 men, having fought every inch of the way from the Orange River to the Modder River, and having crossed that stream, was expected by England to push straight into Kimberley without much further delay. Imagine, therefore, the disappointment at the War Office in London when the news of Gatacre's defeat on the 9th was followed by a dispatch from Lord Methuen, sent on the 12th, telling of a fearful and unsuccessful battle beginning on Sunday night, the 10th, and continuing well through Monday, the 11th, at Magersfontein, which lies near the railroad line, some four miles north of the Modder River, toward Kimberley. The Boers had carefully intrenched themselves along one of those little eminences known as a "kopje." They were extraordinarily successful several times during Monday in drawing the British forces up to within a few hundred feet of the trench lines, covered with leaves or otherwise obscured, with the consequence of an irresistibly deadly fire from the Boer rifles. A day or two later it was reported that General Methuen's loss was 832 and that the Boer casualties were almost as great. The most notable per-



GENERAL LORD METHUEN.

sonage who fell in that battle was Brigadier-General Wauchope, who led the Highland brigade. In commenting on this disastrous affair, which so decisively checked Lord Methuen just as it was supposed that he was about to relieve Kimberley, the sentiment of the London press was well expressed by the *Westminster Gazette*, which declared: "If England ever needed a victory, it is now; and it is to Buller, the soldier, strong,

cool headed, and reticent, that the country looks for this victory." This expression of reliance upon Buller appeared on December 14. On the next day General Buller's expected battle was fought at the Tugela River, but, as we have shown, it turned out a worse reverse than Lord Methuen's at Magersfontein.

Redoubling British Efforts.

On Sunday evening, December 17, it was announced in London that upon the advice of the military authorities her majesty's government had decided to call out all the remaining portion of the regular army reserves. It was further declared that a strong force of volunteers selected from the yeomanry regiments would be formed for service in South Africa, and that nine battalions of militia would be allowed to volunteer for service outside of the United Kingdom, with an equal number of militia battalions embodied for service at home. Acceptance of additional volunteers from the colonies, chiefly Australians and Canadians, was also announced. General Joubert said some months ago that if the English ever marched to Pretoria it would be with the loss of 10,000 British lives. Up to about December 18 or 20 it was calculated in London that the losses had already amounted to nearly 8,000; but this means, of course, not deaths, but men thrown out of active combat, and includes the wounded and the prisoners. Following the announcement that immense reënforcements would be dispatched as quickly as possible to South Africa, the notice was posted that "as the campaign in Natal, in the opinion of her majesty's government, is likely to require the presence and undivided attention of Gen. Sir Redvers Buller, it has been decided to send Baron Roberts of Kandahar and Waterford as commander-in-chief in South Africa, with Lord Kitchener as chief of staff." Lord Wolseley remains in England, in supreme command of the military forces, and Lord Roberts, who returned several years ago from India, after a military experience there of some forty years, and who stands next to Lord Wolseley in authority and eminence as a British general, is to take charge of the military situation in South Africa, presumably using Cape Town as headquarters. It is obvious that since the war has become so much more stubborn and difficult than had been anticipated, it is necessary that there should be some general direction of the campaign as a whole; and Buller, with his hands more than full on the Tugela River, is not in a position to direct operations on the railroad line from Cape Colony to Kimberley. Lord Kitchener's appointment as Lord Roberts' associate and chief of staff found that officer at Khartoum, where much progress has lately been made in the pacification of the tributary regions. Kitchener started at once for Cairo, whence he will presumably have taken passage on a transport before this number of the REVIEW reaches its readers. As an organizer he is accounted the best man in the British army. Volunteers were enrolling freely in England in the last twelve days of December.



THE LATE GENERAL WAUCHOPE.
(Killed at Magersfontein.)



GEN. SIR CHARLES WARREN.
(Who reached Cape Town last month.)

The British Outlook at Large.

It was deemed probable in London that General Buller's army, which numbered about 20,000 men, would remain virtually inactive for a week or two, awaiting the arrival of reënforcements, while the Boers would make redoubled efforts to capture Ladysmith, with the possibility that General White might resolve upon a desperate effort to cut his way through and join Buller and Clery at Colenso. At least it is now certain enough



GEN. LORD KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM.

(Who goes to South Africa as chief of staff to Lord Roberts, for portrait of whom see frontispiece.)

that those who seek excitement in the sensations and uncertainties of warfare will find the news from South Africa worth following through the month of January. Meanwhile England's free hand in the treatment of the South African question is not seriously threatened from any outside quarter, although sensational rumors have attributed to Menelik of Abyssinia the intention of trying to oust the British from the Soudan. The visit of the Emperor of Germany to his grandmother, the Queen of England, was utilized to the best advantage by Mr. Chamberlain and the British Government for the purpose of strengthening the impression that Germany and England have come to an understanding that amounts to an unwritten alliance. Mr. Chamberlain several weeks ago was indiscreet enough to talk in public about American sentiment and the existence of a virtual Anglo-American alliance. As against Mr. Chamberlain's speech, which was reported on December 1, it is enough to refer to the sentences in President McKinley's message, sent to Congress on December 5, setting forth our Government's strict neutrality as between the combatants in South Africa.

European Matters.

Germany and France have in the past month been giving very great attention to the subject of large naval expansion. The governments of both countries are drawing morals from the recent and present experiences of the United States and England. France is building a fleet of submarine boats and is discussing the project of the immediate expenditure of $100,000,000 on a programme of general naval increase. The French press, particularly the more disreputable illustrated papers, have been venomously hostile toward England of late, but such expressions do not in any manner represent the French Government. Naturally, France will endeavor at all points to strengthen her colonial position while England has so large a contract on her hands in South Africa; but this does not necessarily mean anything more pronounced than thrifty and watchful statesmanship. The same thing may be asserted of Russia. The United States, meanwhile, is giving particular attention to the future of trade in those parts of the Chinese empire over which French and Russian "spheres of influence" have been extended. Secretary Hay has asked for written guarantees that American trade will be as free under the new order of things as heretofore under our treaties with China. Mr. John Barrett in this number of the REVIEW presents a very timely discussion of our commercial interests in the far East, and especially in the vast Chinese empire.

Boston's Progress.

The great cities of the country have, almost without exception, projects of exceptional interest and moment on their hands. They are developing with swift strides, and with all their faults and failures of municipal administration they have much to congratulate themselves upon. Boston, which held a municipal election last month, has been carried by the Republicans, ex-Mayor Hart having been victorious by about 2,000 majority over Gen. Patrick A. Collins, who was nominated on the Democratic ticket to succeed Mr. Quincy. Boston has of late made notable advancement in the appointments of a modern metropolis. The problem of transit at the heart of the city has been successfully solved by the completion of a subway system. Through underground tunnels, whose white walls are rendered as bright as day by incandescent lights, the trolley cars from all



HON. THOMAS N. HART.
(Boston's new mayor.)

directions pass safely, quickly, and conveniently to and from the crowded center of the town. A bridge of great strength and width was opened several weeks ago across the Charles River, upon which is carried the structure of the elevated railroad, and which also bears the tracks of surface trolley lines.

New York's Problems.

The success of the subway scheme in Boston has doubtless had some influence upon the promotion of the plan of a great underground electric rapid transit railroad for New York City. The city controller, Mr. B. S. Coler, who is the chief financial officer of the municipality, is doing everything in his power to further the project, which also has the support of the corporation counsel, Mr. Whalen. Thus the Rapid Transit Commission finds its course more smooth than ever before, and the tunnel road is regarded as having an excellent chance of early realization. Many serious defects have been found in the working of the charter for the Greater New York, and it has been known for some time that the Legislature, which meets at the beginning of the present month, would be deluged with bills calling for the amendment of the charter in all sorts of ways. It is thought possible that the Legislature may authorize Governor Roosevelt to appoint a new charter commission to deal with the whole subject. The water-supply question has continued to have much attention, and the citizens, under the lead of the Merchants' Association, have organized for the purpose of defeating a proposed private water-supply contract. The plan of a State constabulary system to supersede the direct municipal control of the New York police seems to have been abandoned for the present, although the findings of the Mazet legislative inquiry might seem to have given abundant justification to the State for taking the police out of the hands of Tammany Hall.

Philadelphia's Water.

Philadelphia has voted to issue $12,000,000 of bonds for the improvement of its water supply, and it is proposed to erect a modern filtration plant. The alarming ravages of typhoid fever in Philadelphia last year supplied all the argument that was needed, and the vote in favor of issuing the bonds was about five to one. Private interests, encouraged by the ease with which Philadelphia was induced to turn over the municipal gas plant to a company, had been trying to get control of the water supply. Unquestionably these same interests will be eager to get hold of the proceeds of the new bonds, in order to turn the filtration business into a private enterprise and sell pure water at monopoly prices to Philadelphia's politician-ridden inhabitants. There are other badly governed cities, but doubtless no great city on earth is so badly governed as Philadelphia.

Chicago's Drainage Canal.

Chicago is about to inaugurate the immense drainage canal by means of which water will flow from Lake Michigan into the Illinois River, and thence down the Mississippi, diverting the sewage of Chicago from the lake and thus protecting the city's water supply from contamination. Naturally, the people who live on the banks of the Illinois and Mississippi Rivers are not sure that the Chicago sewage will bring them any benefits. Cities like St. Louis which pump their water supply directly from the river are wondering to what extent the Chicago drainage canal may pollute the great "Father of Waters." While it is not likely that any serious results could be recognized at St. Louis, not only that city, but other river towns, will owe something to the Chicago drainage canal if it has the effect to frighten them into the early completion of filtration plants that will meet the tests of modern bacteriology. Elsewhere, this month, we publish an article on this great Chicago undertaking.

Mayor Phelan and San Francisco's Projects.

The remarkable new charter of San Francisco will go into operation under the direction of Mayor Phelan, who has been triumphantly reëlected. This Re-

VIEW explained the new charter at length in the number for last May. Mr. Phelan was first elected in 1896. At that time the fourth freeholders' charter which had been submitted to the people since 1880 was defeated. Mr. Phelan appointed a convention of a hundred men representing all shades of opinion, who in turn selected a new board of freeholders to draft a charter. This board was indorsed by the people, as was its subsequent work, in spite of most powerful opposition from certain political and corporate interests. Mr. Phelan's recent campaign was waged on strictly municipal lines, and under all the circumstances he was abundantly entitled to be chosen for the work of instituting the new order of things. His first task is the appointment of thirty-three men for the principal commissionerships, the mayor having the unconditional appointment as well as the removal of those officers. One reason why certain corporate interests should have been opposed to the election of Mr. Phelan is sufficiently explained when one is familiar with the recent history of the franchise tax question in San Francisco. The street-railroad companies twenty years ago secured fifty-year charters. They have been taxed on $3,000,000 or $4,000,000 worth of property, although, according to the market value of their securities, the roads were worth something like $20,000,000. The Supreme Court of California having approved a rule laid down by a country assessor for valuing franchises, Mayor Phelan took it up and recommended it for application in San Francisco. He states it as follows: "To arrive at the value of a franchise for taxation, deduct from the market price of the stock and bonds the assessed value of the tangible property, and the difference will be the value of the franchise." Last year, under Mayor Phelan's encouragement, the assessor adopted this rule and added $19,000,000 to the assessment roll on this score alone. This assessor has now been reëlected on the same ticket with Mr. Phelan by a majority of two to one. He is a practicing physician, Dr. Washington Dodge by name. Under that feature of the new charter which requires the submission to the voters of propositions for the incurring of bonded indebtedness, two special elections were to be held, on December 27 and 29. One of these was to act upon the question of extending the park system, the other upon the building of school-houses, a large hospital, and a much-needed drainage system.



HON. JAMES D. PHELAN.
(Reëlected mayor of San Francisco.)



MAYOR PHELAN ADDRESSING UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES AT ARMY TRANSPORT DOCKS, SAN FRANCISCO.



BRITISH WARSHIPS LYING OUTSIDE DELAGOA BAY TO INTERCEPT SUPPLIES FOR THE TRANSVAAL.

(A correspondent in Delagoa Bay writes: "We are practically cut off from everywhere here, and the *Philomel*, *Widgeon*, and *Magicienne* watch day and night to see that nothing in the way of arms, ammunition, or foodstuffs come into the harbor for the Transvaal. The vessels lie just outside the three-mile radius, and examine the manifest of each ship that arrives in the bay." Our illustration is from a sketch by F. Jeffrey Hill.—From the *Graphic*, December 9, 1899.)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(*From November 21 to December 19, 1899.*)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 4.—The Fifty-sixth Congress holds its first session....David B. Henderson (Rep.), of Iowa, is elected Speaker of the House of Representatives; Brigham H. Roberts (Dem.), of Utah, is refused permission to take the oath of office pending a decision on the question of his eligibility....Both branches adjourn as a mark of respect to the memory of Vice-President Hobart.

December 5.—The President's annual message is read in both branches....The House, by a vote of 302 to 31, refers the charges against Representative-elect Roberts, of Utah, to a special committee appointed by the Speaker.

December 6.—The currency bill prepared by the Republican members of the Finance Committee is introduced in the Senate.

December 7.—Speaker Henderson appoints the House Committee on Rules.

December 8.—In the House a rule is adopted providing that the debate on the currency bill shall begin on December 11 and continue one week.

December 11.—Debate is begun in the House on the Republican caucus committee's currency bill.

December 12-13.—In the House the debate on the currency bill is continued.

December 14.—The Senate committees are reorganized under Republican control....The House debate on the currency bill proceeds.

December 15.—Minority assignments to the Senate committees are announced....General debate on the currency bill is closed in the House.

December 16.—The House currency bill is reported from committee of the whole without amendment.

December 18.—The House passes the currency bill by a vote of 190 to 150, 11 Democrats voting with the Republicans....Speaker Henderson announces the committees. (See page 13.)

December 19.—The Senate substitute for the House currency bill is reported.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

November 21.—Vice-President Garret A. Hobart dies.

November 23.—Domestic rates of postage are extended to Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Guam.

November 25.—The funeral of Vice-President Hobart at Paterson, N. J., is attended by the President, his Cabinet, the justices of the Supreme Court, members of the Senate and House of Representatives, and other officials.

November 29.—Secretary Gage extends the time for bond purchases by the Treasury till December 23.

December 2.—In the House caucuses at Washington David B. Henderson, of Iowa, is unanimously nominated by the Republicans for Speaker, and James D. Richardson, of Tennessee, is nominated by the Democrats.

December 5.—In the Massachusetts municipal elections the cities of Fall River, Malden, Taunton, Northampton, Pittsfield, and Quincy choose Republican mayors; Lawrence and Springfield are carried by the Democrats; New Bedford Democrats and Independents reëlect Mayor Ashley; and Mayor Chase, Socialist, is reëlected in Haverhill.

December 6.—President McKinley nominates Brig.-Gen. Leonard Wood to be major-general of volunteers.

December 7.—The Democrats of the Virginia Legislature nominate Senator Thomas S. Martin, to succeed himself.

December 9.—The certificate of election as governor of Kentucky is given to W. S. Taylor (Rep.).

December 12.—Thomas N. Hart (Rep.) is elected mayor of Boston; Republican mayors are also chosen in Lynn, Melrose, Newburyport, and Holyoke.

December 13.—President McKinley appoints Gen. Leonard Wood military governor of Cuba; General Brooke is relieved of command and ordered to Wash-

ington....Governor Poynter, of Nebraska, appoints ex-Senator William V. Allen (Pop.) to take the seat of the late Senator-elect Hayward (Rep.).

December 15.—The Republican National Committee votes to hold the national convention of the party at Philadelphia on June 19, 1900.

December 18.—Secretary Gage offers to increase the Government's deposits in depository banks, with a view to a relief of the monetary stringency.

December 19.—The Virginia Legislature reëlects Senator Thomas S. Martin.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

November 21.—The Emperor of Austria summons all the party leaders in the Reichsrath to confer with him on the crisis in the constitution....The French Chamber begins the discussion of the budget.

November 22.—The conspiracy trial in Paris is concluded.

November 23.—Obstructionists block all business in the Austrian Reichsrath.

November 27.—The French Chamber, by vote of 480 to 44, agrees to the special credit of 60,000,000 francs for the defense of the French coast and colonies; it also passes a credit for the embassy at the Vatican by 349 votes to 202.

November 28.—The Italian finance minister makes his budget statement in the Chamber at Rome.

December 2.—Gen. José Manuel Hernandez, leader of the revolt against the Castro government of Venezuela, takes the city of Maracaibo after a sixteen-hour battle....The Peruvian cabinet resigns.

December 5.—The German cabinet agrees to the repeal of the Prussian law forbidding the affiliation and coalition of political clubs and societies.

December 6.—The Queensland ministry resigns.

December 11.—Emperor William's new naval programme is introduced in the German Reichstag....The Spanish Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 131 to 83, rejects a motion demanding the withdrawal of the naval estimates.

December 13.—The Spanish Chamber of Deputies, by a close vote, rejects a motion demanding the abolition of the under-secretaryship of the navy.

December 14.—The Swiss Federal Assembly elects Walther Hauser, Radical, president for 1900.

December 18.—General Hernandez surrenders the principal part of the city of Maracaibo, Venezuela, to the government troops.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

November 23.—The question of the French settlement at Shanghai is satisfactorily arranged on the conditions proposed by Lord Salisbury to the French ambassador last July....The Egyptian troops under Colonel Wingate defeat a force of dervishes to the south of Omdurman.

November 25.—Colonel Wingate's column of Anglo-Egyptian troops comes up with the Khalifa on Om Debrikat, 170 miles south of Omdurman, and defeats him utterly; the Khalifa is killed and his whole camp taken.

November 29.—The British and German ambassadors at Washington hold conferences with Secretary Hay regarding Samoa.

November 30.—Ambassador Choate speaks in London on Anglo-American relations....Colonial Secretary Chamberlain speaks at Leicester on England's foreign relations.

December 2.—A treaty for the partition of Samoan territory between the United States and Germany is signed at Washington by Secretary Hay and the British and German ambassadors.

December 4.—A parcels-post treaty between the United States and Guatemala is signed at Washington.

December 9.—France demands the degradation of the viceroy of Canton, on the ground that the order to execute the Chinese magistrate responsible for the murder of the French officers at Montao has not been carried out....The terms of the new reciprocity treaties negotiated by the United States with France and Great Britain, respectively, are made public.

December 15.—The German military *attaché* is withdrawn from Paris because of attacks made in the course of the Dreyfus trial.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.

November 21.—Communication with Estcourt is interrupted....The hospital ship *Spartan* lies in Durban harbor with the wounded....The New Zealand contingent arrives at East London.

November 22.—General French arrives with a force of 3,000 men at Hanover Road Station....The Boers control the railroad line between Mooi River and Estcourt; the telegraph wires are cut between Estcourt and Pietermaritzburg.

November 23.—Lord Methuen attacks the Boer position at Belmont and gains a complete victory....Sir Redvers Buller has left Cape Town for Natal....The Boers continue to shell the British camp on the Mooi River.

November 24.—It is reported that 400 Dutch joined the Boers at Barkly.

November 25.—Lord Methuen advances; there is a battle near Graspan, in which the Boer position is carried at the point of the bayonet....Communication with Estcourt is restored....It is reported that the Boers capture 350 rifles and 4,000 rounds of ammunition at Barkly.



LORD METHUEN'S ADVANCE TO THE RELIEF OF KIMBERLEY.

(Captain Boileau, of the Royal Engineers, constructing a flying bridge over the Orange River for the conveyance of horses. From a photo by Lieut. A. C. Girdwood.)
From the *Graphic*.



A SORTIE WITH THE ARMORED TRAIN FROM LADYSMITH.

November 26.—The Boers occupy Stormberg; reënforcements arrive....The Boers between Estcourt and Mooi River retreat.

November 27.—General Gatacre occupies Bushmanshoek.

November 28.—Lord Methuen's force attacks a strong Boer position on the Modder River; Lord Methuen describes it as "one of the hardest and most trying fights in the annals of the British army;" the total British losses are 471 officers and men.

November 30.—Ladysmith is effectively shelled by the Boers from Lombard's Kop.

December 8.—A detachment of the British troops at Ladysmith successfully storms Lombard's Kop, capturing a Boer gun.

December 10.—General Gatacre attempts to surprise the Boer position at Stormberg, in Natal; the attempt results disastrously, his forces being raked by the Boers' rifle and artillery fire, without a possibility of replying; the total British losses are 687 officers and men and 2 guns; the Boer loss is slight.

December 11.—General Methuen, in attempting the relief of Kimberley, attacks the Boers' position at Magersfontein, north of the Modder River; the troops find it impossible to face the terrible fire of the Boers and are forced to retire; 15 British officers, including General Wauchope and the Marquis of Worcester, are killed, and 47 wounded, the total loss being 832.

December 13.—Boer troops advancing south in Cape Colony toward Naaupoort are driven back by General French with a loss of 40 killed and wounded, the British losing 10 men.

December 15.—The British forces in South Africa suffer their third serious reverse within a week; General Buller, in attempting to force the passage of the Tugela River at Colenso, is repulsed, with a loss of 1,097 officers and men and 11 guns.

December 18.—The British War Office announces that Lord Roberts will be sent to South Africa as commander-in-chief, with Lord Kitchener as second in command, and that 100,000 additional men will be sent.

THE FIGHTING IN THE PHILIPPINES.

November 24.—Bautista, president of the Filipino Congress, surrenders himself to General MacArthur.

November 26.—At Pavia, island of Panay, the Eighteenth and Nineteeth Regiments drive the Filipinos out of their trenches; a captain and 1 private of the Eighteenth are killed....Marines landed from the *Oregon* capture Vigan.

November 28.—Colonel Bell disperses the insurgents on the divide between the Dagupan valley, in Luzon, and the ocean....Bayombong, in the province of Nueva Viscaya, defended by 800 armed Filipinos, surrenders to Lieutenant Monroe and 50 men of the Fourth Cavalry.

December 3.—Gen. Gregorio del Pilar, one of the Filipino insurgent leaders, is killed in a fight with the American troops near Cervantes, northern Luzon.

December 4.—Vigan, held by American troops under Lieutenant-Colonel Parker, is attacked by 800 Filipinos, who are driven off, leaving 40 killed and 32 prisoners; the American loss is 8 enlisted men.

December 11.—General Tierona, the Filipino insurgent commander in Cagayan, at the extreme northern end of Luzon, surrenders the entire province to Captain McCalla, of the *Newark*.

December 18.—General Lawton is shot and instantly killed near San Mateo, in Luzon.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

November 28.—The publishing house of Harper & Brothers, New York, makes an assignment to the State Trust Company.

November 29.—A wreck occurs on a section of the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad, near Paterson, N. J., not protected by a block-signal system; 6 persons are killed and 22 injured.

November 30.—A steel mill costing $1,000,000 is put in operation in Birmingham, Ala.



A COMPANY OF BOER PRISONERS ON THE WAY TO PIETERMARITZBURG.

December 2.—A tidal wave causes much damage on the Chilean coast.

December 4.—In a collision on the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad near Salida, Colo., 6 persons are killed and several others seriously injured.

December 6.—A mob at Maysville, Ky., tortures and burns to death a self-confessed negro murderer about to be tried for his crime.

December 9.—An explosion of gas in the Carbon Hill coal mines at Carbonado, Wash., causes the loss of 32 lives.

December 10.—Fire in Augusta, Ga., causes a loss of more than $500,000.

December 11.—The fifteenth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor is opened in Detroit.

December 12.—A sugar company with a capital of $100,000,000 is organized to operate in Cuba, Porto Rico, and Hawaii, as well as in the United States.

December 14.—The one hundredth anniversary of the death of George Washington is appropriately observed; President McKinley delivers an address at Mount Vernon.

December 16.—The Broadway National Bank of Boston closes its doors.

December 18.—There are heavy declines in stock on the New York exchanges; the Produce Exchange Trust Company fails and the suspension of Henry Allen & Co. is announced; the banks come to the relief of the money market.

December 19.—The New York clearing-house banks pool $10,000,000 of loanable funds for the purpose of relieving the money stringency by loans.

OBITUARY.

November 21.—Vice-President Garret A. Hobart, 55....Dixon Kemp, the British yacht designer, 60.

November 23.—Thomas Henry Ismay, founder of the White Star Line, 63....James McManes, for many years the acknowledged Republican leader of Philadelphia, 78.

November 24.—Rev. Samuel May, a well-known abolitionist, 89....Ex-Congressman A. J. Hosletter, of Indiana, 81....Henry H. Hall, Assistant Treasurer of the United States in Lincoln's administration.

November 25.—Col. George R. Davis, director-general of the World's Fair of 1893, 60....Rev. Dr. Robert Lowry, a prominent Baptist clergyman and author, 73.

November 27.—Charles F. Coghlan, the actor, 58....Ex.-Gov. Samuel H. Elbert, of Colorado.

November 28.—Ex-United States Senator Thomas W. Tipton, of Nebraska, 82....Calvin Dewolf, one of the earliest of the Illinois abolitionists, 84....Judge John R. Putnam, of Saratoga, N. Y., 70....James A. Scott, editor of the *Irish Times*, 67.

November 29.—Prince di Ruspoli, senator and mayor of Rome....Baron Karl F. W. von Wrangel, 87....Rev. Dr. George Colfax Baldwin, Troy, N. Y., 82.

November 30.—Judge Henry Holliday Goldsborough, of Baltimore, 82.

December 1.—Col. Cadwallader Jones, of South Carolina, 86.

December 2.—John I. Blair, the railroad financier, 97.

December 4.—Judge John A. Woolson, of the federal bench of Iowa, 57.

December 5.—Senator-elect Monroe L. Hayward, of Nebraska, 59....Sir Henry Tate, founder of the Tate Galleries at Westminster, 80....Rev. Father John B. Hespelein, of the Redemptorist Order, 78.

December 6.—James McConnell, editor of the Philadelphia *Evening Star*, 55.

December 7.—Commander Charles P. Howell, U. S. N., who was engineer of the *Maine* when that vessel was blown up in Havana harbor, 50.

December 8.—Joseph C. Hoagland, a well-known manufacturer of baking powder, 58....Judge E. K. Foster, of Florida, 58.

December 11.—Commander Edward Parker Wood, U. S. N., who commanded the gunboat *Petrel* in the battle of Manila....Baron Penzance (James Plaisted Wilde), a distinguished English lawyer, 83.....Maj.-Gen. Andrew G. Wauchope.



THE LATE LIEUT. THOMAS M. BRUMBY.
(Admiral Dewey's flag lieutenant.)

December 12.—Sir George A. Kirkpatrick, formerly lieutenant-governor of Ontario.

December 13.—Col. Julius Walker Adams, the pioneer engineer of the Brooklyn Bridge, 87....Lucius R. O'Brien, the Canadian landscape painter, 67....Gen. Jasper Packard, a veteran of the Civil War, 67.

December 17.—Lieut. Thomas Mason Brumby, US.N., Admiral Dewey's flag lieutenant in the battle of Manila, 44....Lieut. F. H. S. Roberts, son of Field Marshal Baron Roberts, of the British army, 27....William H. Carpenter, of the Baltimore *Sun*.

December 18.—Maj.-Gen. Henry W. Lawton, U. S. V., 57....Bernard Quaritch, the well-known London book dealer, 82.

HISTORY OF THE MONTH IN CARICATURE.



CHANDLER AND SPOONER ADMIRE FLOWERS.

MASON GREETS HIS OLD FRIEND FAIRBANKS.

HANNA AND DEPEW PROMENADE.

(The *Journal's* cartoonist, Homer Davenport, sees a few smiles on the Senate floor before the gavel falls.)

THE opening of the new Congress in an atmosphere of almost unprecedented Republican harmony gave the cartoonists a theme last month which some of them exploited very cleverly. Mr. Davenport made a series of caricature sketches of the leaders in both houses, from which we select for this page. On the page that follows, "Bart," of the Minneapolis *Journal*, represents Speaker Henderson and Mr. Frye, President of the Senate, as pouring bills into the Congressional



JUST A DASH AT SPEAKER HENDERSON—BY DAVENPORT.
(The *Journal* cartoonist's "lightning sketch" of the successor of Reed while in deep thought.)
From the *Journal* (New York).



CONGRESSMAN RICHARDSON, OF TENNESSEE, THE NEW DEMOCRATIC LEADER.
(As seen by the *Journal's* cartoonist, Homer Davenport.)



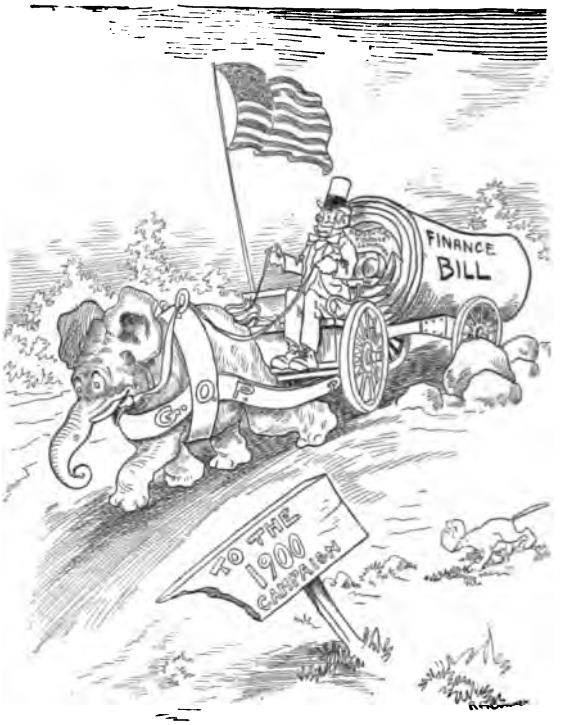
RESPONSIBLE FOR THE GRIST.

DEMOCRATIC PARTY: "Well, if those chaps don't get things to suit them now they have themselves to blame. They're the whole thing this time."—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

hopper, while the big Republican elephant turns the crank, and the Democratic donkey stands by with an air of freedom from responsibility. Mr. Bowman, of the Minneapolis *Tribune*, presents the Republican party as making its way into the Presidential campaign of this year with the pending finance bill as its heaviest piece of artillery. From a great number of cartoons on the action of the House in refusing to seat Mr. Roberts, of Utah, we select two, which appear at the bottom of this page.



"THE OPEN DOOR."—From the *Herald* (New York).



GOING INTO ACTION.

The Republicans bring up the heavy artillery. From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



A KICK COMING.

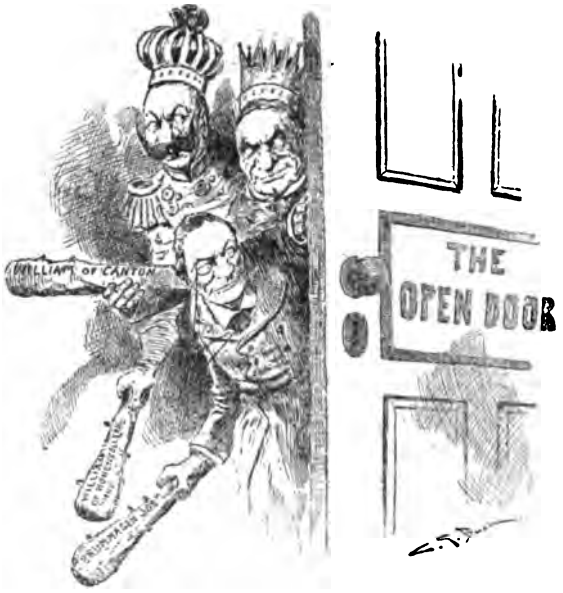
With the two old parties acting together, polygamist Roberts is likely to make a sudden exit from Congress. From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE LATEST INTERNATIONAL MARCH.

"God Save-Hoch Der-Doodle."

From the *Journal* (New York).



THE NEW DREIBUND.

From the *World* (New York).

America in diplomacy and international affairs is of late a topic that cartoonists on both sides of the Atlantic have found frequent opportunity to discuss. The alleged good understanding that has been brought about between England, Germany, and the United States is celebrated by Mr. Davenport in a cartoon at the top of this page; while Mr. Bush, of the *World*, represents the German Emperor, Mr. McKinley, and Joseph Chamberlain as prepared to defend the "open door" to Chinese markets against all comers. "Bart," of the Minneapolis *Journal*, raises again the everlasting question of the American hog in German-American legislation and diplomacy, and also gives his idea of the value of Uncle Sam's new prestige in the matter of maintaining advantageous commercial relations with China. This is a question about which Secretary Hay, of the State Department, has been concerning himself, and the bearings of which are well shown in an article in this number of the REVIEW from the pen of the Hon. John Barrett.



A TEST OF TRUE FRIENDSHIP.

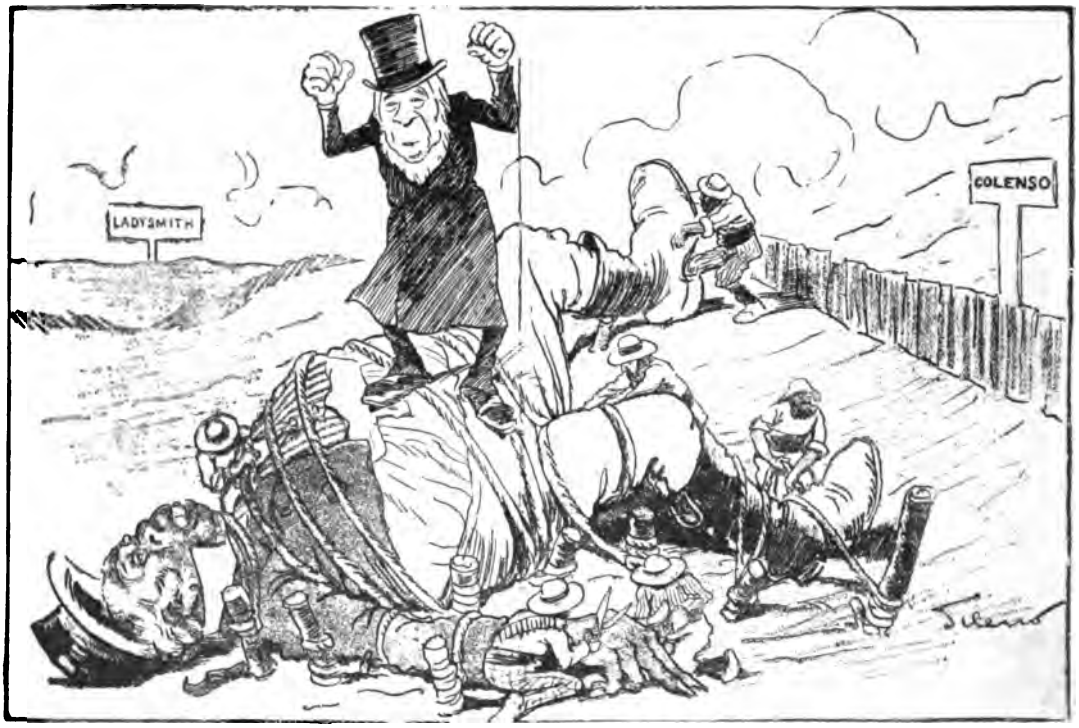
UNCLE SAM: "Love me, love my pig."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



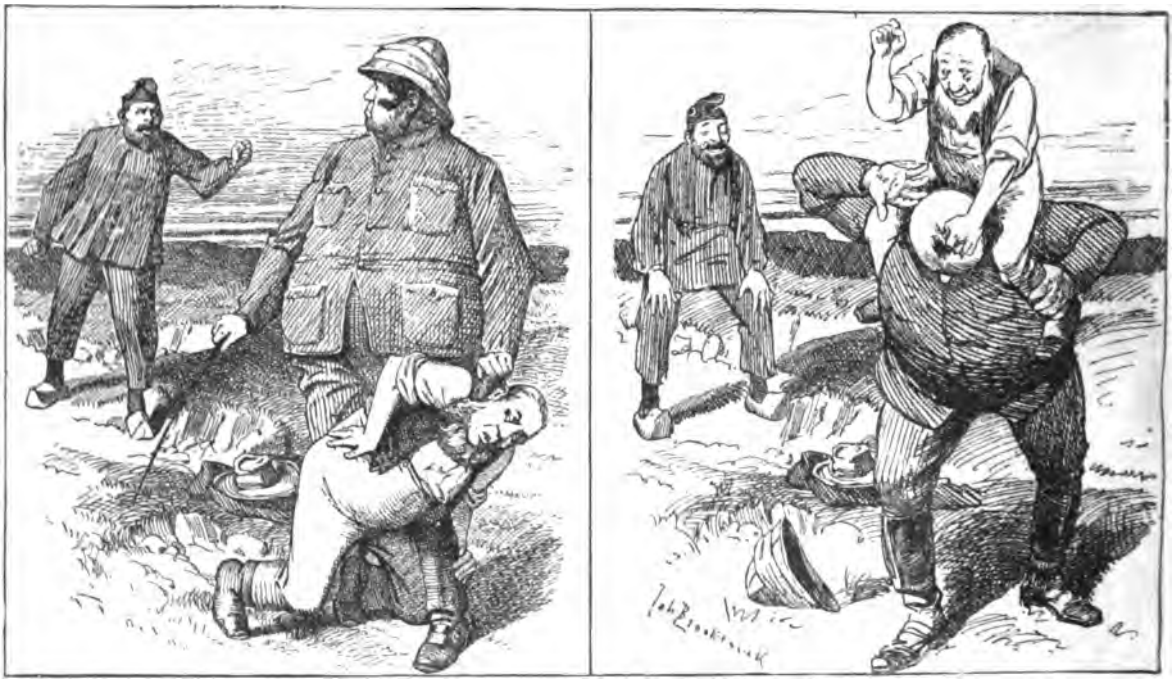
THE OPEN-DOOR POLICY.

UNCLE SAM: "Guess this door won't slam shut now. What you think?"—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis.)



THE EXTRAORDINARY TRAVELS OF GULLIVER.

KRÜGER: "Ha! ha! How do you like war, you great giant?"—From *Gédeon* (Madrid).



A DUTCH VIEW.

HOW "MOONSHINE" WOULD HAVE IT.

FRANCE: "*Sacré Angleterre! Vive Krüger!*"

From *Moonshine* (London).

HOW IT REALLY IS.

FRANCE: "Ha! ha! ha!"

JOHN BULL: "Au! au! au!"

From *Amsterdammer* (Holland).

SECRETARY JOHN HAY.

BY HENRY MACFARLAND.



SECRETARY JOHN HAY.
(From a picture taken in 1896.)

THE death of Vice-President Hobart made Mr. John Hay, of the District of Columbia, Secretary of State, the successor apparent to the Presidency in case of the "removal, death, resignation, or inability" of President McKinley before March 4, 1901. When Vice-President Hendricks died, in the first Cleveland administration, it so happened that there was no Speaker of the House and no President *pro tempore* of the Senate. Congress, realizing the disadvantages and dangers of the awkward arrangement for the Presidential succession through the Vice-President, Speaker, and President *pro tempore*, changed the law so as to provide a certainty that there would be seven men ready to succeed in case of the "removal, death, resignation, or inability" of both the President and Vice-President, that they should all be of the President's party, as the Speaker and President *pro tempore*, the only successors under the old law, might not have been, and, indeed, that they should be of the President's own selection. For this purpose Senators Edmunds and Hoar, who were most active in the matter, selected the seven Cabinet offices then existing, that of Secretary of Agriculture not having been created, and the act of Congress of January 19, 1886, entails the succession through the incumbents of those offices "until the disability . . . is removed or a President shall be elected." There is a proviso in the act that it shall apply only to such Cabinet officers as have been confirmed by the Senate, are eligible under the Constitution to the office of President, and not under impeachment by the House of Representatives at the time they are called to the office of President.

In case of need the other members of the Cabinet would succeed to the Presidency in the following order: Secretary of the Treasury Gage, Secretary of War Root, Attorney-General Griggs, Postmaster-General Smith, Secretary of the Navy Long, Secretary of the Interior Hitchcock, the offices being named in the law in the order of their creation. The present Secretary of Agriculture, Mr. James Wilson, was born in Scotland and would, therefore, be ineligible to the Presidency even if his office had been brought into the line of succession.

The fact that Secretary Hay may at any time before March 4, 1901, come to act as President of the United States, invests with new interest one of the most interesting men in our public life. The bare possibility that he may at any time be called upon to exercise the great powers and perform the great duties of the office of President of the United States has increased the attention already given to him and his acts by other public men, who, in the speculations and calculations for the future which are as common with politicians as with poets, now reckon with a possible President of the United States as a new factor in the person of the Secretary of State.

Nothing shows Secretary Hay's standing among public men better than their general agreement that he would make an admirable President, who would be likely to be nominated at the end of his temporary service for a full term in the White House.

It is needless to say that Secretary Hay himself would deplore any circumstance that would make it necessary for him to take the reins of government from the hands of President McKinley, who has been for so many years his choice for the Presidency and whom he did more

than almost any other man to nominate and elect, and that he recoils from even contemplating such a contingency.

But the uncertainty of life makes it inevitable that other men should be thinking about the near



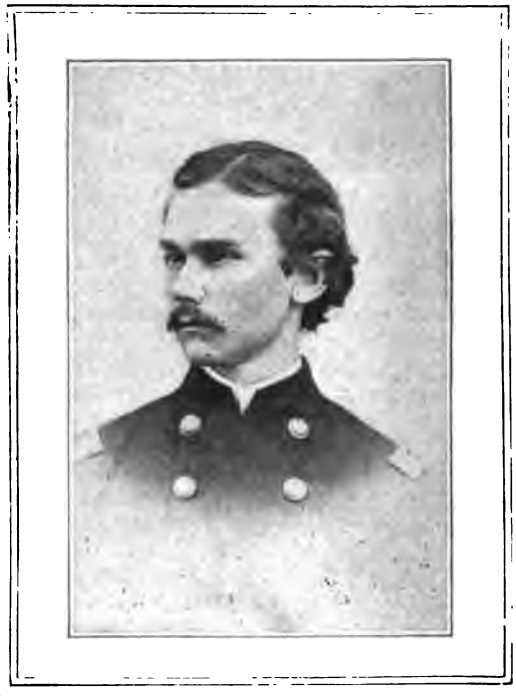
JOHN HAY IN 1861.

(Assistant secretary to President Lincoln.)

possibility that Secretary Hay, who began his public career as a young man in the White House with President Lincoln, may end it in the White House as President himself.

No one since the early days of the republic, when the men who came to the Presidency were selected from a small class of specially trained leaders, has had such preparation for the duties of the Presidency as Mr. Hay—or rather Colonel Hay, to use the title conferred upon him by President Lincoln, which has so dominated the much greater titles received since that he is generally called Colonel Hay to this day.

A man of great and varied abilities, graduating at Brown University at twenty, he began by studying law with Abraham Lincoln in Springfield; gaining admission to the bar of the Supreme Court of Illinois in 1861; coming immediately to Washington as assistant secretary to President Lincoln, acting also as his adjutant and aid-de-camp and serving as his eyes and ears in the field for a time under Generals Hunter and Gillmore with the brevet of colonel; going, upon President Lincoln's death, as secretary of the legation at Paris for two years, then as secretary of legation and *chargé d'affaires* at Vienna for over a year, and then after a short interval going as secretary of legation to Spain for over a year; returning to become editorial writer on the New York *Tribune* for five years, during seven months of which he was editor-in-chief; taking an active part in the Presidential canvasses of 1876, 1880, and 1884; serving as Assistant Secretary of State from November 1, 1879, until May 3, 1881, and acting as president of the International Sanitary Congress; taking the chief place in our diplomatic service as ambassador to Great Britain, March, 19, 1897. and becoming Secretary of State September 20, 1898—this bare outline of his public employments shows the unusual variety and importance of the experience he has had. He has been called the "favorite of fortune," and he would doubtless admit that he has had exceptional opportunities (indeed, he has laughingly said that he owes his success to persistent pursuit by the fickle jade), but he has certainly improved them all to the utmost. Although he has never served long in any one office, except the four years as assistant secretary to President Lincoln, he has made his mark and added to his reputation by his thorough and skillful work in every post, official and professional, which he has held, so that although he is now only sixty-one, he has accom-



COLONEL HAY IN 1865.



Photo by Hollinger.

SECRETARY JOHN HAY.

(From his latest photograph.)

plished much more than most public men could have done in a much longer career. Colonel Hay's good fortune appears in the timeliness of his opportunities as when he went as ambassador to London at the very hour when more could be done and more easily done than ever before to bring Great Britain and the United States into friendly relations, and also when this would be of the greatest service to the United States; and again when he came to the head of the State

Department, equipped with the invaluable experience and knowledge acquired at London, just as the United States, become a "world power," began to figure prominently in the diplomacy of the world. Colonel Hay has not worked harder than other men, but he has worked under favorable conditions which made all his work tell most effectively, and this is why it has not been necessary for him to serve long in any post in order to accomplish important results.

Colonel Hay's great good fortune, the cornerstone of his successful career, was his early association with Abraham Lincoln. He is the only survivor in prominent place of Lincoln's men, and is distinguished from other public men by the characteristics which he developed under Lincoln's training. What he learned from "the first American" in the intimate association of the four most heroic years of our history has proved to be more important to him than all that he has learned from all other sources. The principles and methods, both in politics and statesmanship, which he learned from Lincoln have been of invaluable service to him, and in the almost filial relation existing between him and the martyr President Colonel Hay absorbed much of the spirit and character of his master, the greatest politician, the greatest statesman, the greatest man of his time.

Colonel Hay's paternal ancestors were, of course, Scotch, John Hay, the first in America, arriving in Virginia in the middle of the last century. His son Adam was a Revolutionary soldier and a friend of Washington, and his grandson, John Hay, was a lover of liberty, who left Kentucky, where his father had brought the family, for Illinois because he would not live in a slave State. Charles Hay, his son, and the father of Secretary Hay, was a well-to do physician in the little town of Salem, Ind., when he married the daughter of the Rev. David A. Leonard, a Rhode Island man of English ancestry. It was natural that his mother's son should be sent to Brown University after receiving a good preparation at home in an atmosphere of real culture. In college young Hay did well, especially in English composition, writing his first poetry, some of which was published afterward in the "Pike County Ballads." He was popular with the faculty and with the students, for then, as now, he had the attractiveness of vivacity, humor, and good manners.

It was characteristic of his well-balanced mind that when he graduated he inclined on one side to literature and on the other side to the law and of his Scotch practical wisdom that he decided for the law. Immediately, within a year after he left college and before he was twenty-one, he met the great opportunity of his life when he was introduced by his uncle, Malcolm Hay, to Abraham Lincoln, who took him into his law office at Springfield.

Mr. Lincoln, then the acknowledged leader of his profession and his party in the State of Illinois, and with an increasing national reputation, liked young Hay from the first. In spite of the disparity in age, temperament, and social and educational experiences, they had much in common. From the first Mr. Lincoln must have found pleasure in the quick sympathies, the sunny disposition, and the unswerving loyalty of the brilliant youth, and it is certain that they grew closer and closer together until they were parted by death. Mr. Lincoln learned to rely upon young Hay implicitly, and to depend upon him not only for service of all kinds and under all circumstances, but for such sympathy as he did not get from most of those around him. Mr. Hay's constant cheerfulness was especially grate-



MISS HELEN HAY AND MR. ADELBERT HAY, CHILDREN OF THE SECRETARY.

(Mr. Adelbert Hay is on his way to Pretoria in the capacity of United States consul to the South African Republic. Miss Helen Hay inherits decided literary talent from her father and has recently published a book of verse.)

ful to the melancholy hero in the shadows of the great national tragedy which ended with his own assassination. Mr. Hay's ready appreciation of Mr. Lincoln's peculiar humor and of his favorite humorous writings was agreeable to Mr. Lincoln, when so many men, like Mr. Stanton, could not understand why Mr. Lincoln told or read funny things under the terrible tension of waiting for battle news.

National politics had already claimed Mr. Lincoln when young Hay entered his office, and the next year it became a headquarters of the Republican party, which had nominated him for the Presidency, so that Mr. Hay did not have much opportunity to learn law from his great preceptor, but he did learn enough to gain admission to the bar just before he started with Mr. Lincoln on his memorable journey to the White House. But Mr. Hay was learning larger lessons than the law could teach and developing more rapidly and perfectly than if he had been a mere law student. He was in the very heart of the remarkable campaign of 1860 making his start as a public writer and speaker, although his most important services were rendered privately. He not only found ample practice for his abilities, but he made the acquaintance of the leaders of the Republican party, and began to learn their motives and methods and the unwritten history of our politics. Like all his experiences, it was richly preparatory, and yielded fruits during the following four years in the White House and, indeed, ever since. Mr. Lincoln brought him to Washington as a matter of course, because he liked and needed him, and through all the storm and stress and labor that followed, Mr. Hay, vigorous in mind and body, cheerful and tactful, stood by Mr. Lincoln's side as though he had been his son. There were bright hours and pleasant incidents, of course; and it was at this time that Mr. Hay was introduced by Mr. Lincoln to Amasa Stone, of Cleveland, who had known Mr. Lincoln in Illinois, where he laid the foundation of his large fortune in building railroads, and whose beautiful and cultivated daughter ten years later married Mr. Hay.



MRS. JOHN HAY.
(Wife of the Secretary.)

As Colonel Hay the President's adjutant saw service in the field for several months, chiefly to obtain information for the President. The war over, the assassination came, cutting short all the plans of the great President and therefore of his private secretary. Although Colonel Hay was only twenty-six, he had had such an extraordinary training that he was recognized as well fitted for the important diplomatic positions at Paris, Vienna, and Madrid, to which he was successively appointed after he had rendered his last service at the grave of his great captain.

It was while he was at Madrid that he wrote those delightful impressions of Spanish life which appeared in 1871 under the title of "Castilian Days," after he had returned to become an editorial writer on the New York *Tribune*. "Pike County Ballads" were also published in 1871; the best of them, including "Little Breeches" and "Jim Bludso," which won instant appreciation for their humor, pathos, and force, were written in about three weeks that year. They were handed with the others that he had written during his college years to James T. Fields, who liked them so much that he published them.

Colonel Hay left the *Tribune* in 1875, having married Miss Stone and removed to the handsome home which Mr. Stone built for them on Euclid Avenue, in Cleveland. His marriage, which brought him wealth, made a great change in Colonel Hay's circumstances, but it made no change in the man himself. The virility of his character successfully resisted the temptation to become a *dilletante* or a mere society man. Colonel Hay has remained the energetic and ambitious, manly man that he was, neither weakened by luxury nor made snobbish by "the unconscious arrogance of conscious wealth." Although the spur of poverty was removed, he has worked as hard as ever, and has improved the new opportunities which his marriage brought of gratifying his literary, social, and political ambitions.

"The Life of Lincoln," written in collaboration with his fellow-secretary, Mr. Nicolay, which will be his literary monument, was perhaps made possible by the leisure of the first ten

years of his married life. It is said that "The Life of Lincoln" was not known in England before Mr. Hay went there as ambassador, the best English papers referring only to "Pike County Ballads" and "Castilian Days" in enumerating his literary works, not knowing, of course, that he had also written "The Breadwinners." But no modern historical work has been more successful in the United States than "The Life of Lincoln," which secured at once a great circulation and the approval of the best critics. After all, Colonel Hay never practiced the profession he learned in Lincoln's law office, and has been a *littérateur* rather than a lawyer, although his real profession has been that of diplomat and statesman. He returned to Washington to serve for two years with his customary success as Assistant Secretary of State under President Hayes, and then, after presiding over the International Sanitary Congress, took the editorial direction of the New York *Tribune* during the exciting Blaine-Conkling controversy, which ended in the assassination of President Garfield, while Mr. Whitelaw Reid went on his wedding journey to Europe. Later on he changed his residence from Cleveland to Washington, and has since made his permanent home in the beautiful house, one of the finest examples of Richardson's art in Washington, which he built on Lafayette Square, just north of the White House.

Until President McKinley, at the beginning of his administration, appointed Colonel Hay ambassador to Great Britain, he had not been conspicuous in public life for fifteen years. But that was because, always unostentatious, and indeed retiring, he had avoided prominence, declined public office, and kept out of the newspapers. For during all those years, besides working in literature and meeting all social demands especially with a gracious hospitality, Colonel Hay was a power in politics, more, rather than less, important because he worked chiefly behind the scenes. He appeared from time to time on the Republican stump to make speeches notable for their cleverness, clearness, and cogency, but he was never conspicuous in conventions or hotel lobbies, at the White House, the Capitol, or the Cabinet offices. But in the inner councils of the Republican party his influence was potent, and the party managers knew how freely he gave his time, his efforts, and his money for the success of his principles and candidates. President McKinley was long his candidate for the Presidency, and he thoroughly appreciated all that Colonel Hay did for him, and also the unusual fitness of Colonel Hay for public service. He would have made Colonel Hay Secretary of State at the beginning of his administration if he had not been constrained by circumstances to transfer Senator Sherman to the State Department. It was well, however, both for Colonel Hay and the administration, that he was sent just at that time as ambassador to Great Britain, for his public and private services there were of high order and great importance. In that propitious hour, when the interests of both countries drew them closer together to their mutual advantage, he did all that the American ambassador could do to promote the friendliest relations and to secure our share of the benefits. The policy of benevolent neutrality which England followed to our advantage in the Spanish war was promoted by his efforts, and he utilized its influence in every possible way. Colonel and Mrs. Hay, blessed with fine social gifts and with the means to make them effective, made the best impression on English society. Colonel Hay's public addresses were models of their kind and examples of propriety which might well be followed by all our ambassadors. Colonel Hay made personal friends of most of the leading men of England, and through the opportunities of the embassy gained the friendship of many continental statesmen. When he returned to become Secretary of State, after less than eighteen months' service, he left behind him a shining reputation, and he brought back invaluable knowledge of the statecraft of every court in Europe.

Beginning his service as Secretary of State



IN THE HALL OF SECRETARY HAY'S WASHINGTON HOME.

with this wealth of information, which many of his predecessors did not have after four years' service at the head of the Department and having a perfect acquaintance with the methods, traditions, and archives of the Department, and a thorough knowledge of the diplomatic corps in Washington, as well as of our leading public men, Colonel Hay came fully equipped to his latest and greatest opportunity and did not have to lose time in preparing to work. In London he had been taking world views. He saw the affairs of the world as English statesmen see them, comprehensively and completely. In September, 1898, very few of our public men saw in such a way. It was, therefore, fortunate for the country, as well as for Colonel Hay, that when the United States had for the first time to deal with world affairs as a world power she obtained as Secretary of State a man who could see clearly and comprehensively our interests around the world. The new Secretary of State was (and is) a firm believer in Washington's teaching against entangling foreign alliances. Like the President, he has never said or done anything that would justify in the slightest degree the campaign charges that he had arranged for an alliance, formal or informal, with Great Britain or any other country. He is equally a believer in the Monroe Doctrine and has repeatedly made this thoroughly understood in the European capitals. But while he has been careful to keep this country out of the quarrels of Europe and to keep Europe from interfering politically with the affairs of this continent, he has not hesitated to utilize, in temporary conference and co-operation, the advice and assistance of any nation in the promotion of our interests, now spread world-wide. He has considered these interests as inter-related, and therefore the diplomacy of the State Department under his direction has treated our foreign affairs as a whole. There has been marked unity as well as unusual skillfulness, vigor, and tactfulness in it, but its chief characteristic has been its sagacious foresight.



RESIDENCE OF SECRETARY HAY IN WASHINGTON.

His great achievement will appear in history as the maintenance of the "open door" in China and the consequent postponement, if not prevention, of the threatened dismemberment of that empire, which will probably be considered one of the greatest achievements ever won by our diplomacy. It has already made a great impression upon all the governments of the world and has already had important results. When Colonel Hay took the portfolio of State, fifteen months ago, the peace commission had not begun the negotiation of the treaty of Paris with Spain, and all Europe was wondering what the United States would do with its new influence in the affairs of nations, then fully recognized as a result of its unexpected demonstration of power in the Spanish war. The ablest English and continental statesmen then regarded the retention of the Philippines by the United States as inevitable, which most American statesmen did not see, and, looking beyond, faced the larger question, also hidden from most American statesmen, of what this would mean in the future of China and all the Orient. Colonel Hay came home seeing these things in this large way. In his conferences with the President and in the Cabinet councils during the progress of the negotiations at Paris he doubtless gave advice affected by such a long and broad view of the most important subject. Whether he wanted it to be so or not, he saw that the United States had become a power in Asia and that she must make the most of her opportunity there. When he signed the treaty of Paris he saw clearly what it involved in this as in other directions. He early took steps toward securing from the great powers, who had already mapped out a division of the Chinese coast among themselves, a formal recognition of our right to the "open door" under our commercial treaties with China. They real-

ized, of course, that this meant that they could not appropriate to themselves the markets of China as they had already planned to do. Russia, France, and Germany, who were the most aggressive in these designs, also realized that they could not afford to ignore or to offend the United States, the new power of the world, with sovereignty over the Philippines, especially as Great Britain's interest in the matter lay rather with the United States than with them, and Japan, the new power of the Orient, ambitious to control in China and Korea, was ready to lend her aid to the United States. So verbal assurances that the "open door" should be maintained in China were given by all the powers interested. This did not content Secretary Hay, and he asked for similar assurances in writing. Some of the powers demurred, and so showed that the written assurances were needed. They intimated that instead of them they would like to give the United States an equal slice of the territory of China. Secretary Hay made them understand that the United States would not participate in the division of China and must have the written guarantees of the "open door." When they realized that he meant just what he said they promised to send the assurances in writing. The United States, acting simply for herself and the conservation of her rights under treaties with China, has not only fully protected them, to the incalculable advantage of the United States and her commerce, but has preserved the integrity of China's territory. Secretary Hay's diplomacy maintained the peace of nations by preventing any concerted attack upon Great Britain during her Transvaal trouble, and, indirectly, promoted the new understanding between Great Britain and Germany which works powerfully to the same end and also to the advancement of our interests in the East.



DINING-ROOM IN SECRETARY HAY'S HOUSE IN WASHINGTON.

The satisfactory settlement of the Samoan question, so troublesome and so costly in life and money to the United States, by an agreement which gives us Tutuila with the best harbor in the Pacific, without depriving us of any of our commercial rights in the other islands, which are left to Germany, was related to the greater achievement.

So, in a sense, was the other notable success of Secretary Hay's first year, the *modus vivendi* with Great Britain which provided a temporary boundary line through the disputed territory on the Alaskan coast without surrendering to Canada any of the tidewater privileges for which she was really contending. This agreement, so creditable to Secretary Hay, removed a real danger of bloodshed on the border and opened the way for new negotiations to determine, by arbitration or otherwise, the permanent boundary line, and so to bring about a general settlement of all the important questions at issue between the United States and Canada.

Besides these more conspicuous results Secretary Hay's quiet, effective work has been fruitful in many ways. The American success at The Hague and the treaty resulting from it, the treaties of reciprocity with France, Argentina, and the British West Indies are evidences of it; new treaties with Spain will soon be added to these. The constantly increasing routine work of our diplomacy can only be mentioned as part of the Secretary's daily task not generally appreciated, together with the very important and delicate duties created by the daily inquiries of diplomats, politicians, and newspaper men. Secretary Hay has, of course, done his full duty as a Cabinet adviser of the President on questions quite outside of his own Department, so that his time has been very fully occupied.

Yet he has his work so well in hand and dispatches it so quickly and easily that he almost always leaves his office at 4 o'clock with his desk perfectly clear. Much of his time after office hours, however, must be given to social duties, which are more exacting in the case of the Secretary of State than of any other member of the Cabinet. In these, however, he has the efficient

assistance of his charming and accomplished wife and his two charming and accomplished daughters, one of whom, Miss Helen Hay, in her published sonnets shows her literary inheritance. The Secretary's eldest child is his son Adelbert, who at twenty-three has just been sent by the President to take the difficult and possibly dangerous post of consul at Pretoria, in the Transvaal, in charge of both American and British interests surrendered by Mr. Macrum. Mr. Adelbert Hay was graduated at Yale just in time to go with his father to the London embassy, where he took his first lessons in diplomacy with his father, like John Quincy Adams with his father. Since Secretary Hay's return his son has been acting as his unpaid secretary, except when he was in Luzon last spring with the sons of Senator Hale and Representatives Dalzell and Wadsworth and had the privilege of accompanying the army in the campaign from Manila to Malolos. He is a big, bright, attractive and sensible fellow whom the President has several times wanted to put in the diplomatic service. But his father would not let him go until this special need arose and with it an opportunity for valuable experience and distinguished service. The Secretary's youngest child is a boy of fourteen at boarding-school.

The Secretary's home life in Washington in winter and at his beautiful place in Newbury, N. H., in summer approaches the ideal. The Hays are not extreme "society" people and have found time for other interests besides those of the fashionable set. Secretary and Mrs. Hay give generously, but modestly, in philanthropy, and especially to and through the Church of the Covenant (Presbyterian), which they attend in Washington and of which Secretary Hay is a trustee.

Secretary Hay is not a club man, although he belongs to fashionable clubs in Washington and elsewhere, but finds his chief happiness in his home. He is a great pedestrian and a familiar figure on the streets of Washington, rather short and sturdy in build, walking briskly with the swing of youth, and always perfectly dressed. He has a fine, strong face with keen, dark eyes, which demand eyeglasses, and black hair and bushy beard turning gray.

He is so young for his years, so agile and virile in mind and body that his friends feel that he may be elected President after President McKinley finishes his second term, if he does not become President before.

Secretary Hay may have written much poetry since the "Pike County Ballads" of 1871, but he has published only one poem, a hymn of invocation (to the noble tune of "Federal Street") which he wrote by request for the fifteenth International Christian Endeavor Convention in Washington in July, 1896. This hymn, which comes nearer to being a bit of self-revelation than anything else which this reticent man has published, is as follows:

"Lord, from far-severed climes we come
To meet at last in thee our home.
Thou who hast been our guide and guard
Be still our hope, our rich reward.

"Defend us, Lord, from every ill;
Strengthen our hearts to do thy will.
In all we plan and all we do
Still keep us to thy service true.

"Oh, let us hear the inspiring word
Which they of old at Horeb heard.
Breathe to our hearts the high command:
'Go onward and possess the land!'

"Thou who art Light, shine on each soul!
Thou who art Truth, each mind control!
Open our eyes and make us see
The path which leads to heaven and thee!"



SECRETARY HAY'S SUMMER HOUSE IN NEWBURY, N. H.

OUR INTERESTS IN CHINA—A QUESTION OF THE HOUR.

BY JOHN BARRETT.

CHINA is a world opportunity. She is also a world necessity. Her undeveloped possibilities and the inexorable need of foreign markets are compelling the attention and activity of all expanding and producing nations to her limitless fields of exploitation and trade.

No country, in view of our new responsibilities in the Pacific, is more concerned in the material and moral future of China than America. No greater or more diversified openings await legitimate American effort in foreign lands than in China. When the present era of prosperity might naturally end and both home and foreign demands be supplied, the markets and development of Cathay should long continue to bring dividends to capital and wages to labor that would otherwise remain idle. Therefore few questions concern more directly our economic welfare than the protection and extension of our interests in that empire.

Before we owned Hawaii and the Philippines we gave only passing heed to China. Now that our possessions carry us across the Pacific and make her a near neighbor, we are beginning to realize the truth of her riches, present and potential. Our future prominence in the Pacific and the value of the Philippines will largely depend on the full fruition of our opportunities in China. If we neglect the field of trade and material achievement, allow the door of commerce to be swung bang in our faces, permit the lapse of plain treaty rights, and forsake our present position, where we to-day stand alone among the powers uncompromisingly for the integrity of the empire, it would seem consistent and reasonable that we should surrender the Philippines to Germany, ask England to build and control the trans-isthmian canal, expect Japan to lay and own the Pacific cable, and retreat from our new position as the paramount power of the Pacific, and possibly and logically in due time the paramount power of the wide world.

Happily the recent vigorous but diplomatic action of the Secretary of State looking to positive assurances from the powers concerned that our rights will be respected, supported by the unqualified language of the President's message, indicate that at this crisis the Government will not fail in its duty. Public sentiment, however, must be educated to the importance of Asiatic markets and to the necessity of supporting the Government if the best results would be obtained without delay.

Those of us who in government service have traveled repeatedly up and down the China coast and far into the interior have been hammering away for years on America's undeveloped opportunity in the Orient, when people at large were not interested. What we say now is chiefly in confirmation of our former position, when everybody is interested, and not merely to follow and discuss a popular subject or be in line with the drift of public opinion.

CHINA'S GREAT POSSIBILITIES.

A summarized glance at China's possibilities will show at once the good reason for all the newspaper reports and government bulletins about our Chinese policy. China has an area of over 4,000,000 square miles, or greater than all the United States, a population commonly estimated at 350,000,000, or seven times that of the United States, and only 350 miles of railroad, or not one five-hundredth of the mileage in the United States. Imagine what will come when China is gridironed with trunk and cross lines. China has now an annual foreign trade of only $250,000,000, or not $1 per head. If we apply the six-dollar rate per head of Japan or the ten-dollar rate of Java, we have, in using 250,000,000 as the most conservative estimate of China's population, the reasonable figures—when China shall be thoroughly opened and her government reformed and strengthened like those of Japan and Java—respectively of $1,500,000,000 and of $2,500,000,000; for all experts agree that under like conditions the buying and selling capacity of the average Chinaman would equal that of the Japanese or Javanese. At the present moment America's exports to China do not exceed through all channels, including Hong Kong, $30,000,000, while the official figures are still lower. If we look over the list of China's imports we will find that over half of them could be supplied by the United States in successful competition with other lands, which fact applied to present imports of $175,000,000 should make our share over $115,000,000, or if applied to future im-

ports of $750,000,000 (the half of the first conservative estimate of total trade) the splendid sum of $500,000,000.

If I were asked how long must we wait for such vast trade, I would point to the fact that Japan developed her foreign trade from $30,000,000 in 1879 to $240,000,000 in 1897, or in less than twenty years; or from less than $1 to $6 per individual, as the population is now 40,000,000, against 33,000,000 twenty years ago. If it were contended that China cannot repeat or equal such a record or is too poor in money resources, the history of the Yang-tse Valley trade could be cited as an illustration of possibilities. When the Yang-tse—one of the greatest inland navigable waterways—was first opened to trade with the outer world, a few small steamers and $500,000 represented the foreign portion. Now one can go from Shanghai to Hankow, 600 miles into the heart of China, on finer and larger craft than those which run from New York to Albany, and the annual foreign trade exceeds $50,000,000, with only a few of the cities open as treaty ports and much of the valley made inaccessible by local barriers of officialdom and taxes. If 10,000 miles of main and branch railroad lines are built south of the Yang-tse in the great reach of country between it and the Sekiang River system and an equal amount to the north across and beyond the Yellow River to Pekin, so that interior resources can be developed, products brought to market, and more imports bought in turn and conveyed inland, there will inevitably follow a development in these sections that should surpass the record of the Yang-tse ports.

IMPORTANT CHINESE CHARACTERISTICS.

Give the Chinaman a fair chance and he will astonish the world with his trade capacities. He is a natural born merchant—much more so than the Japanese, Korean, Siamese, or Javanese. He will buy and sell wherever there is opportunity. The more he has to sell the more he will purchase. Judging the Chinese in San Francisco and New York is no just measure of them in China. Here a mistake is too often made in the character and possibilities of the race. The environment in China is so entirely different from that in America that the life in the latter is not typical of that in the former.

Accompanying, moreover, the Chinaman's industry and frugality are immense undeveloped natural resources of iron, coal, copper, lead, tin, gold, and silver, as well as vast agricultural wealth not now appreciated. That the field is new in material advancement, if old in history, is shown by the fact that nowhere does the interior seem crowded in population or the area exhausted in cultivation to any great or continuous extent. It might be stated that China is materially about where the United States was seventy-five years ago, although the empire has a history, religion, and philosophy that run grandly back for 2,000 years. The American who, studying Asia now for the first time, as most Americans are, thinks of the Chinaman as a barbarian or savage labors under sad error. The civilization of their masses is far below ours, but they are not an uncivilized people in the sweeping use of the term. Wherever they come in contact with foreigners and trade becomes organized their merchants are generally trustworthy, while all foreign houses place implicit dependence in their Chinese *compradores*, or managers, and their native assistants. It is remarkable, but interesting, that the longer the foreigner resides in China the better he likes the people. They improve on acquaintance. It is not denied that they have bad qualities enough, but they are far outweighed by the good under fair conditions. The great middle and lower classes are naturally honest, and the upper classes who are merchants have a similar reputation. The rottenness of China, so often mentioned, is confined largely to the official class or bureaucracy—to the "politicians," in plain American terms—and it may be a case with us to a certain degree of living in a glass house as far as criticism along this line is concerned.

The Chinese people, if not the government, are virile. The conditions for great advancement and development—national, social, and political—throughout all China are favorable as far as the quality of the inhabitants is concerned. When the sway of tradition and of rigidity of custom and habit are supplanted by the spirit of progress engendered by the opening up of the interior and by reform in officialdom, the world will be surprised at the capacity of the Chinese for assimilation of new ideas and methods of life and business.

Most Chinese are shrewd. The passing hawker may be deceitful, but the resident merchant or dealer is uniformly fair in trade transactions. Your servant will quietly exact or take his "squeeze," but he will not let anybody else cheat you. The former is to him a legitimate perquisite.

CAPITALISTS AND LABORERS.

If one is impressed on the one hand with the squalor and filth of average Chinese cities, towns, and homes, he is compelled to note on the other hand the large number of clean, well dressed, bright-appearing men that he sees either sprinkled among the countless coolies on the streets or in

the stores and *yamens* of the merchants. In the important coast points of Canton, Hong Kong, Amoy, Foochow, Shanghai, Cheefoo, and Tientsin, the proportion of able, wealthy, and prepossessing men is surprisingly large. In Bangkok, Siam, a score of Chinese merchants, rice and saw millers, worth over $1,000,000 each, called on me at the legation when I had the honor to be dean of the diplomatic corps, and with marked dignity, politeness, and forcible argument asked that I call a meeting of the corps to consider certain needed changes in the Siamese tariff. In Singapore, Hong Kong, and Shanghai are many men of means, education, and prominence who live in beautiful homes, send their children to the best schools, and are elected to the city councils. There is, moreover, throughout China a much larger element than generally known who are strongly in favor of a new *régime* and progress in the empire, but they keep quiet in ordinary times, although carrying on educational work in order to protect themselves against charges of sedition or arrest.

Labor in the large Chinese cities is organized to a degree that would surprise our labor leaders. There is not an able-bodied man that does not belong to some powerful society that controls and directs his movements. Some of the worst strikes on record have occurred among the coolies at Hong Kong and at Bangkok, and they are respectively British and Siamese ports not in China.

This suggests one reason why General Otis' order keeping the Chinese out of the Philippines may not be altogether wise. They are undeniably needed for labor despite native prejudices against them, but there is no danger whatever of more Chinese coming to the Philippines than are actually required. The importation of Chinese into Manila, as into Bangkok, Singapore, Batavia, and all other Asiatic points outside of China, is regulated to a remarkable nicety by societies who have charge of the coming and going of men. The supply is invariably regulated to the demand so as not to make a glut in the labor market. Not one Chinaman leaves Amoy, the principal point of departure for the Philippines, unless he is under the charge of some society. Likewise the return of Chinese laborers to China is regulated according to whether they are able to work and how much they have accumulated. There will be little danger of the Chinese overrunning the Philippines unless the natives die out, in which case they will be needed. In Siam they are an absolute necessity for labor and business, but they are not in the way of the natives. The conditions in Siam and the Philippines are almost identical. My views may be at variance with the able Philippine commissioners, Schurman, Dewey, Otis, Denby, and Worcester, but they are based on good comparative data, and I think Admiral Dewey and President Schurman hold similar opinions.

THE PEOPLE THE GREAT FACTOR.

I have devoted this amount of space to general observations on the Chinese people because, first, they are points often overlooked, and, second, our interests in China must naturally depend largely on the capacity and quality of the inhabitants. Her millions of people are her chief stock in trade, and they are increasing rapidly, with corresponding increase of consumption. The Chinaman fortunately takes kindly to foreign products, manufactured and raw, when he has money to purchase them or is taught to use or consume them.

The contention that the Chinese may some day become a mighty competing force and that we should let them alone is constantly encouraged by those opposed to our legitimate expansion in the Pacific. Even if it is granted that such a time will and must come, the fact remains that during the long years that will elapse before competition can become a serious question, the nations of Europe will bend their unlimited energies to supply the Chinese wants of raw and manufactured products and gain all the vast profits of trade which would otherwise be ours, entailing a loss upon us of uncounted millions. Even if China is eventually to be the home of cheap manufacturing and cheap labor, let us lay by for that rainy day the vast reserve capital that we can earn by the trade of the present.

From careful study of Chinese labor I am not, however, inclined to take a pessimistic view of the future. Economy of labor and machinery is being perfected to such a point in America that our laborers and producers will always be able to hold their own. The dangers of the future are exaggerated and purely hypothetical. Experiments of the present need not cause us any fear for the years of competition that are to follow. The price of labor in Japan and in many of the Chinese ports has doubled in the last eight years and is now on the upward trend. Mere numbers, which is the chief advantage of Asia, does not yet counterbalance America's superior skill, and the few natives that will develop high skill in comparison to the large proportion of Americans is a further consideration of importance.

OPPORTUNITY TO BE DEVELOPED.

The opportunity for American trade expansion in China is often minimized by its critics on the

ground that it is now so small. To me this is the most favorable feature. It means that great possibilities are ahead. If we had long made a vigorous effort to develop commerce with the Orient and had attained no larger results there might be reason for complaint. As it is, we have not even yet begun to compete for our share of the Oriental trade on lines that must bring ample rewards. A few years ago not 1 per cent. of our manufacturers were at all familiar with the Asiatic field; to-day not more than 10 per cent. realize the magnitude and variety of the Asiatic opportunity. If the total of our present exchange of commodities with Asia is not impressive compared to the totals of other lands, it is, however, in fact surprisingly large in view of our limited efforts. With all Asia and Oceanica, which are closely associated, our commerce in round numbers amounts to only $150,000,000 in a grand total of over $2,100,000,000, or not more than 7 per cent.; but a study of conditions will prove that in due time, with our strong new position in the Philippines, which are the geographical, commercial, and strategical center of the mighty broken coast-line that extends from Melbourne on the south right away for 8,000 miles to Vladivostock, we should have to our credit at least half this interesting total. If a circle of 2,500 miles radius is drawn with Manila as the center, it will take in such important but widely separated points as Vladivostock on the north, Sydney on the south, and Calcutta on the west. No similar circle drawn around any other Asiatic port will include more centers of population and commerce. With the Philippines as the base of our operations we are upon the threshold of vast possibilities not only in China, which is only 600 miles away, but throughout the remainder of Asia and Oceanica, including Australia, which at its northern point is only 900 miles from the southern end of the Philippines.

With the present Philippine foreign trade of $33,000,000—developed to that figure under the depressing influence of the old *régime*—enlarged in the near future under progressive American control to $150,000,000 per annum; with the islands possessing a larger variety of great marketable staple products than any other Asiatic land in proportion to area; with a people who are naturally fond of foreign importations when they have money with which to buy, as they will have in times of peace; and with all the principal lines of steamships, European and American, that ply to and fro between Asia and, respectively, Europe through the Suez Canal, America across the Pacific, and Australia through the island seas, preparing either to make Manila a port of call or to establish new and quick connections from Hong Kong, Singapore, and Shanghai—with all these favoring conditions America indeed stands to-day with unsurpassed facilities to exploit successfully not only the commerce of China, but of the entire trans-Pacific world. Coöperating with Manila will be San Francisco, San Diego, Portland, Tacoma, and Seattle, just appreciating as never before the future before them in the Pacific and the influences that will make them great capitals like our Atlantic *entrepôt*.

If we will lose no time in digging the Nicaragua Canal and laying the trans-Pacific cable, to follow up the decisive advantage of holding the Philippines and maintaining the open door in China, there is a future before us in the Pacific which should compel the honest acknowledgment of even the most pessimistic and cynical critics of our Asiatic policy, if they would for a moment view the situation with unprejudiced eyes or take the sincere word of those who for years have faithfully studied the field on the ground and would be guilty of flagrant neglect of their country's best interests or of gross stultification if they did not portray this Asiatic opportunity as it has unfolded itself to their own eyes.

RESULTS ALREADY OBTAINED.

The start that we have already obtained in China is encouraging. Few people appreciate that she provides the chief market for the export of our manufactured cotton goods, and that the majority of the new cotton mills established throughout the South are solely supplying the Chinese trade. With this growing demand for manufactured cotton in China and for raw cotton in Japan the South is as much concerned to-day as any part of the United States in the development of Asiatic markets. She should be the last section of the United States to oppose a progressive policy in the Pacific. In 1900 it is altogether probable that America will sell $12,000,000 worth of cotton goods in China. Last year they reached nearly $9,000,000. When I first visited the Orient our sales of cotton goods did not exceed $2,000,000. At the present rate of increase the value of the trade should reach $30,000,000 at least in another ten years. Northern China and the part that is considered as coming under Russian influence consumes the major part of this product. It therefore behooves us to see that there is no discrimination against such imports in favor of the output from the new cotton mills of southern Russia which are preparing to compete for the Asiatic trade.

Corresponding to the development of the cotton trade in the north, with Shanghai as the base and Chefoo, Tien-tsin, and Newchwang as dis-

tributing centers for the interior, is the growth of the flour exports to Hong Kong and southern China. A few years ago consuls and business agents said that there would be no market for American flour in China. Now the entire sales to the far East have reached in a short time the considerable total of $6,000,000 per annum; yet only a few of China's millions know what flour is. The time is coming when the farmers of the Pacific coast States will be independent of the Liverpool wheat market and dispose of all they can produce in the form of flour to Asia's millions.

As the Orient calls for the flour, timber, and other raw supplies of the Pacific coast or far West, the manufactured and raw cotton of the South, it is providing an important market for the great variety of manufactured iron, steel, and general hardware products of the Eastern States and central West, as well as the petroleum of the Middle States. Therefore the whole country is concerned in the Chinese opportunity and in maintaining our inalienable treaty rights of commerce throughout that empire.

CHINA'S RICH ENVIRONMENT.

The limits of space do not permit in this discussion of China that the wonderful details of her environment should be narrated. Passing reference only can be made to Japan's new life as a full-fledged power where America is held in high favor by statesman and coolie alike. Her foreign trade of $240,000,000 may be slightly curtailed at first by the inauguration of the new tariff during the past year, but the outlook for enlarged commerce with the United States is most encouraging. Japan has a praiseworthy record of progress, and she merits all the credit she receives, despite adverse comment now and then on the effect of her rapid advancement and methods of trade. Korea is an inviting field of material exploitation, with her opportunities for the safe investment of capital, as well as for extending a commerce which is now small. Eastern Siberia under Russian development is proving a growing and valuable market for both our raw and manufactured products. Siam on the south is the most progressive independent country in all Asia after Japan, and has a king who ranks as one of the foremost statesmen in Asiatic politics. A wonderfully rich country, on the eve of extended development and now a neighbor of ours (Bangkok being only 1,200 miles from Manila), she is worthy of our attention. Java has proved a marvel under Dutch control and shows what we can do in the Philippines. With the same area as Luzon, but not equal to it in resources, Java supports 20,000,000 in contentment and thrives on a foreign trade of $250,000,000. The exchange of trade at Hong Kong, Britain's chief Asiatic outport of empire and commerce and Manila's nearest neighbor, is over $250,000,000, and it is not an uncommon thing for sixty merchant vessels of all nations to be loading and unloading in her crowded harbor. Singapore, Manila's approach from the southwest and another British success, boasts of an annual exchange of $180,000,000. And there are other interesting countries and cities near to China and the Philippines, but they must be left out in this rapid epitome.

PRESENT EXPORTS AND NEEDED INCENTIVES.

That this article may be as complete as possible within its limitations and answer the inquiries of those who wish to learn more of China, I will enumerate some of the principal exports that are already going to China in greater or less quantities, but most of which can be expanded: Manufactured and raw cotton; petroleum or kerosene oil; flour and other breadstuffs; canned goods, including fruit, butter, milk, cheese, and meats; lubricating oils; timber and manufactured woods; medicines and chemicals; wines, spirits, and beers; tobacco, especially in cigarette form; all kinds of machinery and hardware; locomotives, cars, rails, bridges, structural iron; clocks and watches; sewing machines and bicycles; telephones, telegraph supplies and electric railroads, lights, and fans; paper; leather; and, if the field is properly exploited, a long list that comes under the commercial head of "muck and truck." To many this enumeration is interesting as showing the variety of the trade opportunity in China. The Philippines will, moreover, consume a proportionate share of these same products.

In response to the specific question, What are some important steps that should be taken to build up our commerce with China and other Oriental lands aside from the canal, cable, and open door? the answer can be made: A commission should be sent to the far East as outlined in President McKinley's message to investigate and report fully on the commercial situation; a parcel post system, like that which European nations already have, should be established with the Orient for the benefit of our Asiatic merchants in sending samples, etc.; larger and faster steamers should be placed on the Pacific, and the advisability of extending reasonable subsidies to our merchant marine should be carefully considered in order that it may be fostered and built up in competition with old-established European lines; there should be located at all the principal Asiatic ports American banks or branches thereof, for there are none at present and all business is

done through British and European banks; experienced, competent men should be sent to the Orient to represent individual firms, and dependence not be placed on circulars, catalogues, and letters; commercial *attachés* should be appointed to our legations and leading consulates who are men of practical business training; the consuls who have mastered the field with its difficulties and proved their worth should be retained; and the preparation, by study of the language, of specially trained men at Pekin for the permanent force of assistants at legations and consulates, encouraged as recommended by Secretary Hay in the diplomatic and consular bill.

COMMISSION AND EXPOSITION.

The commercial commission proposed by President McKinley has a practical sound that will appeal to the manufacturing and exporting interests of the entire country. The remarkable success of similar commissions that have visited China from Great Britain, France, and Germany is a sufficient and convincing precedent. It should not be large enough to be cumbersome, but should have on its staff, if possible, experts, for instance in such great lines of export as dry goods and textiles and of hardware in its comprehensive sense. Its work should not only include studying all features, favorable and unfavorable, of demand and supply with reference to a market for our manufactured and raw products, but possibilities of imports from China or return cargoes for our ships. The latter to give low outgoing rates must have paying freight both ways. The conditions of Oriental life, trade, and government are such that a commission of this kind, not suited to European lands, would be the only successful means of obtaining a vast amount of data that we need for the extension of our commerce. The sooner it is named and set to work, the greater will be the benefits. The reports of consuls are good, but local and limited; those of the commission will be both general and local, and conclusions will be reached by broad comparisons.

The advisability of establishing a permanent exposition of American products at Shanghai has been much discussed by our exporters and merchants. It has not, however, been enthusiastically favored, because there is an impractical, harmful side to such efforts unless well managed and extensively supported. It should be comprehensive and excellent in every respect, or it would be a failure. If established and conducted by mere promoters or men not having the confidence of both American and Asiatic merchants, it would not be permanently successful. If, however, it is encouraged by representative American exporters and Asiatic importers and has the moral support of such bodies as the American Asiatic Association in New York and Shanghai, the chambers of commerce and merchants' associations of New York and San Francisco, and is managed by men indorsed by them, it should prove of great advantage to trade.

MISSIONARIES AND DIPLOMATS.

While this article is not intended to cover the details of the moral problems involved in China's development, there is no desire to minimize them. America's opportunities to raise the civilization of the Chinese, to promote the well-being of the masses, to encourage education on modern lines among the people, to spread the healthy influence of Christianity, and to urge reforms in government and administration without unwarranted meddling are coördinate with her possibilities of material exploitation. The work of American missionaries that has been going on for over half a century in China has been productive of far greater good than is generally appreciated. Especially have the educational and medical branches of their unselfish labor been fraught with excellent results. After careful study of the missionary field not only in China, but in Siam, where the work came for years under my closest observation, I can say that I do not agree with the adverse and superficial conclusions which one hears so often in the clubs and at the dinner-tables of the treaty ports. The King of Siam and Marquis Ito, of Japan, two of Asia's most representative statesmen, have more than once assured me of their sympathy with the missionaries, while the former has repeatedly given them material assistance. The efforts of Rev. Gilbert Reid to establish an international institute at Pekin for the education of the higher classes of Chinese are approved by the government of China and are worthy of hearty American support.

With the missionaries quietly striving to ameliorate religious and social conditions, with our ministers and consuls jealously guarding our political and commercial interests, with our business agents actively and successfully competing with those of Europe, with the new prestige and influence that has followed Dewey's victory and the occupation of the Philippines, and with the determination of the Government to protect our treaty rights of trade, the outlook for America in China is certainly favorable. Reference to our foreign representatives in the far East suggests the conclusion that our country is fortunate in having able men at the responsible posts in this crisis, notable among whom are our ministers, Buck in Tokio, Conger in China, Allen

in Séoul, and King in Bangkok, supported by Consuls-General Gowey at Yokohama, Goodnow at Shanghai, and Wildman at Hong Kong.

THE BRIGHT AND DARK SIDE.

The bright side of the Chinese opportunity includes in brief: the expansion of her foreign commerce to vast figures following the opening of the interior; the material development of her immense area and its varied resources; the gridironing of the country with railroads; the improvement of her great inland navigable river systems; the dredging of her extensive mileage of canals; the betterment of harbors and removals of bars; the construction of electric street-railroad lines; the placing of electric lights, telephones, and the introduction of sewer and water systems in her numerous populous cities; the building of highways to connect numberless important and lesser cities and towns; the extension of postal, telegraph, and telephone connections throughout the interior; the general establishment of educational institutions; and the introduction of such reforms in administration and government, central and provincial, as will bring immeasurable advantages to Chinese and foreigners alike.

The unfavorable side of this mighty opportunity is largely confined, first, to the methods of governmental administration that now obtain, and, secondly, to the apparent policy of certain foreign powers to establish spheres of influence and close the door of trade to us.

Of the former little can be said beyond the fact that the combined moral force of the chief powers interested, the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia, and Japan, is sufficient, and should be wisely and with generous, helpful spirit employed to induce China to inaugurate certain sweeping improvements in administration of government and in maintenance of law and order in all parts of the empire.

Of the latter it can be first contended that many of the powers are delaying the possibility of effecting this result by plundering China of ports and territory, and so destroying her confidence in their purposes and counsels. In the second place, it bids fair to so seriously limit the wide field of American trade that the great permanent and vital value of open Chinese markets will be lost to us unless such steps are taken as will effectually protect our interests, guaranteed by both the old and new treaties with China, which say that America shall have the same rights of trade everywhere as any other foreign nation. The language is so explicit as to permit of no misunderstanding. Our first treaty of 1844 with China has this wording:

If additional advantages and privileges of whatever description be conceded hereafter by China to any other nation, the United States and the citizens thereof shall be entitled thereupon to a complete, equal, and impartial participation in the same.

This certainly is most positive and emphatic. The other treaties that followed, particularly those of 1858 and 1880, are none the less strong and even more specific in guarding our interests.

"OPEN DOOR" AND "SPHERES OF INFLUENCE."

In explanation of all the recent newspaper discussion about the "open door," "spheres of influence," and the efforts of our Government through the Department of State, under the wise guidance of Secretary Hay, to obtain written assurances from foreign powers that the door of trade would not be closed and that spheres of influence should not be construed in any way to permit discriminations against American imports, it can be said that the United States is safeguarding for the future, and through whatever conditions may develop in the exigencies of political relations of nations, the plain, simple rights and privileges outlined in the Chinese-American treaties. The "open door" means nothing more or less than that no one or more nations shall enjoy any special or privileged rights of trade over others. It does not mean, as often believed by those unfamiliar with the question, "free trade" or absence of customs duties, but merely freedom of trade without favoritism. "Spheres of influence" are sections where one country exercises that paramount influence which practically forbids any other country from operating, either materially or politically, within its limits, without permission or acquiescence of the paramount power. Technically the phrase casts no reflection on the sovereignty of China, but unless a firm stand is taken by China, supported by the United States and other powers most concerned, these spheres will eventually evolve into "areas of actual sovereignty."

At present the "door" of trade has not been closed in any such tangible way that the United States can cite sufficient illustrations for diplomatic protests to China or to the power controlling the port or point concerned, but the danger is so imminent as to fully warrant the recent action of the State Department. In the various alleged spheres, however, the control of the favored or paramount power over material enterprises like construction of railroads and opening of mines, as outlined in agreements with China, is in many instances so plainly expressed that it means nothing more or less than that no other country can operate there and no valuable conces-

sions can be given to other than the paramount power. This is quite true of most of the Russian sphere in Manchuria and of the German in Shantung. Here the open door of material effort aside from trade is practically closed, and the spirit and letter of the treaty would seem to be violated.

The spheres so far recognized in discussion and consideration of China are that of Russia in Manchuria, coming down to the Gulf of Pechilli with the ceded ports of Port Arthur and Talienwan, together with Newchwang and almost, if not actually, including Pekin; that of Germany in the promontory and province of Shantung, with the ceded port Kiaochau on the south, but not including Cheefoo and British Wei-hai-wei on the north side; that of Great Britain in the Yang-tse Valley, of which the great port is Shanghai, where all nations are represented; that of Japan in the province of Fukien, opposite Formosa, and in which are located the ports of Amoy and Foochow; and that of France in southern Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, the southern part of the Seking, or West River Valley, and including Hainan, with the ports of Pakhoi and Kwung Chow. Great Britain also has a great interest in the West River country, of which Canton is the capital, because Hong Kong is located at its mouth and practically controls its trade. If the Italians should secure San-mun they would probably claim the province of Che Kiang.

AMERICA'S RESPONSIBILITY.

America has the possible alternative of losing everything and gaining little or nothing if these spheres lead to the break-up of the empire, and should protest against such a fate, although it must be admitted that much depends on China herself. She stands to-day on the threshold of vast undertakings. If she crosses it in the near future she will preserve and strengthen the integrity of the empire. If she delays that event too long she will invite and foster disintegration. Her course in this crisis as affected by the moral influence of foreign powers depends first, upon the attitude of the United States, and, secondly, upon that of the European governments and Japan. America is given the primary place because recent history authorizes it. We occupy, moreover, the apparently anomalous but strong position of being prompted in our Chinese policy by selfish reasons, and yet of not selfishly seeking territorial aggrandizement or permanent strategic and material advantage, either in the open form of ceded ports or in the covert form of spheres of influence.

While it may be inconsistent to place the United States on a high isolated pedestal of strong moral convictions in the treatment of weaker peoples, when compared to the attitude of other powers, the fact remains that the records of past and present contemporary relations with China prove that the United States is the one power to which she can look in absolute confidence as an honest arbiter of her fate. Great Britain is undoubtedly equally desirous with us of keeping open the field of trade, and for a long period she labored alone for this purpose, getting no support or encouragement from America when she most wanted it. For such policy and persistency she deserves great credit. Possibly but for her attitude China would have been divided long ago. In a fatal moment, however, for the principle of maintaining the empire's integrity, but doubtless acting for her own best interests, she last year consummated an agreement with Russia which recognizes the Yang-tse Valley as essentially a British sphere and the country north of it as Russian. Both nations indulged in phraseology to the effect that no reflection was cast on the sovereignty of China, but both knew the emptiness of such wording if they should think best to take actual possession of the spheres outlined.

Finally the United States finds herself to-day the determining force in the arbitrament of China's future and face to face with a mighty responsibility, for the following reasons: First, we have never demanded the cession for our exclusive use of any port in China or any part of Chinese territory; second, we have never claimed any particular field of political or material operation, and we have never recognized the right of any other nation to claim such spheres; third, we are the first power to take steps that will limit one of the principal objects of these spheres —the control of trade therein—and insist that other powers will respect the treaty rights of the open door, or freedom of trade, throughout all China; fourth, we are hence the only country that stands unreservedly for the integrity of the empire, for if we should consent to actual delimitation of spheres and to the lapsing of treaty rights, China would be speedily divided among the great powers of Europe and Japan; and, fifth, by possession of the Philippine Islands and Hawaii supplementing our Pacific coast line of California, Oregon, Washington, and Alaska, we are politically and commercially located to be the paramount power of the Pacific, and cannot, without serious detriment to ourselves, permit any curtailment of our legitimate field of commerce, exploitation, and influence.

WHAT THE ARBITRATION TREATY IS AND IS NOT.

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THE project of a Convention for the Settlement of International Disputes, which was unanimously adopted by the representatives of all the powers at the recent conference at The Hague, may be said in large measure to depend, for its general acceptance or rejection, upon the action of the United States on the question of its ratification. Not only was this Government among the first to accept the invitation to the conference, in which it was represented by some of its most eminent citizens, but its position, both as a leading power and as the leading exponent of the principle of international arbitration, will invest its decision with peculiar importance.

But apart from these considerations, however persuasive they may be, it is believed that the convention itself, by reason of its object and the nature of its provisions, merits our support.

The great design of the convention is to afford a more definite and certain opportunity than has heretofore existed for the peaceful settlement of international disputes. It does not purport to make peace compulsory: on the contrary, it expressly preserves to nations absolute freedom and independence of decision as to the course they shall ultimately pursue. It permits each nation finally to determine for itself what its individual interests and its individual policies may require. But it seeks to render the chances of a resort to arms more remote by providing a plan under which, before force is employed, the efficacy of reason and argument may be tried, under the sanction of an enlightened public opinion.

The convention embraces stipulations (1) as to mediation and (2) as to arbitration. These stipulations may be summarized as follows:

1. MEDIATION.—The signatory powers agree that, in case of "grave difference of opinion or conflict," they will, before appealing to arms, have recourse, "as far as circumstances permit," to the good offices of one or more friendly powers; and they further agree that such powers may of their own motion offer mediation, and that such offer shall not be regarded as an unfriendly act.

The functions of the mediator are declared to be purely conciliatory. His recommendations are to be wholly "advisory" and in no respect "obligatory;" and his functions are to cease whenever the plan of accommodation proposed by him is rejected by either party.

In the absence of an agreement to the contrary, the acceptance of mediation does not prevent warlike preparations, nor, in case hostilities have already begun, the continuance of military operations.

In case of "grave disagreement endangering peace," the signatory powers agree to recommend the employment, if circumstances permit, of a special form of mediation, under which each of the disputing states shall choose a power to enter into relations with the power chosen by the other state, for the purpose of preventing a rupture. During the continuance of this mandate, which, unless otherwise agreed, is not to last more than thirty days, all direct relations between the disputing states, with reference to the question in dispute, are to cease. And in case of rupture, the mandatory powers are to take advantage of every opportunity to reëstablish peace.

As an adjunct to the system of mediation the convention recommends in cases "involving neither national honor nor essential interests, and arising from a divergence of opinion on matters of fact," the appointment of an international commission of inquiry. The mode of appointment as well as the jurisdiction and procedure of the commission would be regulated by a special convention between the disputing states; and the effect, if any, to be given to its report, would also be regulated by those states with "entire freedom."

2. ARBITRATION.—The object of international arbitration is declared to be the "settlement of disputes between nations by judges of their own choice and in accordance with their reciprocal rights;" and arbitration is recognized as specially applicable to questions of law, and of the interpretation and execution of treaties, which cannot be settled by diplomacy. But in every case, the resort to arbitration is wholly voluntary.

The convention, however, embodies a plan by which the resort to arbitration is intended to be systematized and made easy.

Under this plan there is to be created a permanent court of arbitration. This court is to be constituted by the designation, by each of the signatory powers, of not more than four persons "recognized as competent to deal with questions of international law, and of the highest personal integrity." The persons so designated are to be known as "members of the court," and are to constitute a list from which any of the signatory powers, in the event of a controversy, may, if they see fit to do so, choose a tribunal for the decision of the particular case. In the absence of an agreement to the contrary, this tribunal is to consist of five arbitrators, of whom each of the disputing states shall name two. The four so named are to choose the fifth; but, in case of a tie, the fifth arbitrator is to be chosen by a power agreed upon, or, if no such agreement is reached, by two powers severally designated by the disputing states.

The questions to be decided, as well as the extent of the powers of the arbitrators, are to be defined by a special convention between the disputing states.

The foregoing stipulations as to arbitration are to be carried into effect through a permanent commission, composed of the diplomatic representatives of the signatory powers at The Hague and the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands, who are in turn to organize and establish a permanent bureau for the care of the archives and the conduct of correspondence relating to the permanent court.

The convention thus outlined bespeaks, in all its features, the purpose equally and impartially to conserve the individual rights and interests of all the powers concerned. On the other hand, it represents in the development of international relations a great advance, which the people of the United States, faithful to their traditions of humanity and progress, should be the first to approve and sustain.

TEXT OF THE INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENT FOR THE ARBITRATION OF DIFFERENCES AS DRAWN UP AND SIGNED AT THE HAGUE CONFERENCE.*

(Now pending in the United States Senate.)

TITLE FIRST—THE MAINTENANCE OF GENERAL PEACE.

ARTICLE 1.—For the purpose of preventing as much as possible recourse to force in the relations between states, the signatory powers agree to employ all their efforts to insure the peaceful adjustment of international differences.

TITLE SECOND—OF FRIENDLY OFFICES AND MEDIATION.

ARTICLE 2.—In case of serious dissension or of conflict, before the appeal to arms the signatory powers agree to have recourse, as far as circumstances will permit, to the friendly offices or to the mediation of one or of several friendly powers.

ARTICLE 3.—Independently of this resort, the signatory powers think it to be useful that one or more powers which have no part in the conflict may offer of their own volition, so far as circumstances may make it appropriate, their friendly offices or their mediation to the states engaged in the conflict. The right to offer these friendly offices or mediation is absolute in the powers which take no part in the conflict, even during hostilities. The exercise of this right shall never be considered by either of the parties to the contest as an unfriendly act.

ARTICLE 4.—The duty of a mediator consists in conciliating the opposing claims and appeasing the resentment which may have sprung up between the states engaged in the conflict.

ARTICLE 5.—The duties of a mediator cease from the moment when it is officially declared by either party to the strife, or by the mediator himself, that the methods of conciliation proposed by him are not accepted.

ARTICLE 6.—Friendly offices and mediation, whether at the request of the parties in conflict or on the proposal of powers which take no part in the conflict, have solely the character of advice, and shall never be considered as binding upon either party.

ARTICLE 7.—The acceptance of mediation will not have the effect, in the absence of an agree-

*The conference was attended by delegates from twenty-six powers—twenty European, two American, and four Asian—as follows: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain and Ireland, Greece, Holland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, Montenegro, Persia, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, Servia, Siam, Spain, Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United States of America.

ment to the contrary, to interrupt, to postpone, or to interfere in any way with mobilization and other measures preparatory to war. If it is undertaken after the beginning of hostilities, it will not interrupt, in the absence of an agreement to the contrary, the military operations which are in progress.

ARTICLE 8.—The signatory powers agree to recommend the application, whenever circumstances will allow, of special mediation under the following forms:

In the case of grave differences which threaten war, the states in conflict will each choose a power to which they will confide the duty of entering into a direct negotiation with the power chosen by the other side, for the purpose of preventing the breaking off of peaceful relations. During the continuance of this authority, the term of which, in the absence of an agreement to the contrary, shall not exceed thirty days, the states engaged in the contest will cease all direct negotiation in reference to the subject of the conflict, which is to be considered as being exclusively in the hands of the mediating powers. They are bound to use all their efforts to settle the differences peaceably. In case of definite breaking off of peaceful relations, these powers remain intrusted with the common duty of taking every opportunity to reëstablish peace.

TITLE THIRD—OF INTERNATIONAL COMMISSIONS OF INQUIRY.

ARTICLE 9.—In controversies of an international character which do not involve either the honor or the essential interest of either party, and proceed from a difference in regard to questions of fact, the signatory powers think it to be useful that parties who have not been able to agree by the ordinary methods of diplomacy should establish, as far as circumstances will allow, an international commission of inquiry, charged with the duty of facilitating the settlement of these controversies by determining the questions of fact by means of an impartial and thorough inquiry.

ARTICLE 10.—International commissions of inquiry are to be constituted by special agreement between the parties to the controversy.

The agreement in reference to the inquiry shall specify the facts which are to be examined and the extent of the powers of the commission. It shall regulate the procedure of the commission. Investigation is to be made after having heard the adverse parties. The procedure and the time allowed for the investigation, so far as they are fixed by the agreement for the inquiry, shall be determined by the commission itself.

ARTICLE 11.—International commissions of inquiry are to be formed, in the absence of an agreement to the contrary, in the manner pointed out in Article 31 of the present convention.

ARTICLE 12.—The powers in controversy engage to furnish to the international commission of inquiry, in the fullest way which they think to be possible, all the means and facilities necessary for the complete knowledge and the precise determination of the facts in question.

ARTICLE 13.—The international commission of inquiry will present to the powers in controversy its report signed by all the members of the commission.

ARTICLE 14.—The report of the international commission of inquiry being limited to the determination of questions of fact, has in no degree the character of an arbitral judgment. It leaves to the powers in controversy entire freedom as to the effect to be given to its determination.

TITLE FOURTH—OF INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

CHAPTER FIRST—OF ARBITRAL JUDGMENT.

ARTICLE 15.—International arbitration has for its object the determination of controversies between states by judges of their own choice, upon the basis of respect for law.

ARTICLE 16.—In questions of a judicial character, and especially in questions of the interpretation or application of treaties, arbitration is acknowledged by the signatory powers as the most efficacious and at the same time the most just method of deciding controversies which have not been determined by diplomacy.

ARTICLE 17.—An agreement of arbitration may be made in reference to disputes already existing or those which may hereafter exist. It may relate to every kind of controversy or solely to controversies of a particular character.

ARTICLE 18.—An agreement to arbitrate implies the obligation to submit in good faith to the decision of the arbitral tribunal.

ARTICLE 19.—Independently of general or special treaties which already impose the obligation to have recourse to arbitration on the part of any of the signatory powers, these powers reserve to themselves the right to make, either before the ratification of the present act or subsequent to that date, new agreements, general or special, with a view of extending the obligation to submit controversies to arbitration to all cases which they think possible so to submit.

CHAPTER SECOND—OF THE PERMANENT COURT OF ARBITRATION.

ARTICLE 20.—For the purpose of facilitating the immediate recourse to arbitration of international differences which have not been settled by diplomacy, the signatory powers do agree to

organize a permanent court of arbitration, always open and exercising its powers in the absence of an agreement to the contrary, conformably to the rules of procedure included in the present convention.

ARTICLE 21.—This permanent court shall have jurisdiction of all cases of arbitration, unless there has been an agreement between the parties for the establishment of a special arbitration.

ARTICLE 22.—An international bureau shall be established at The Hague which shall serve as the clerk's office for this court. This bureau shall be the medium of all communications relating to the meetings of the court. It shall preserve its archives and carry on all its administrative business. The signatory powers agree to communicate to the international bureau at The Hague a certified copy of every agreement of arbitration made between them and of every judgment of an arbitral tribunal, relating to them, rendered by special tribunals. They engage also to furnish the bureau with the laws, rules, and documents declaring the execution of the judgments rendered by the court.

ARTICLE 23.—Each signatory power shall designate during the period of three months which shall follow the ratification by it of the present act four persons at the most, of acknowledged skill on questions of international law, possessing the highest moral reputation, and willing to accept the office of arbitrators. Persons thus appointed shall be enrolled by the name of members of the court on a list which shall be furnished to all the signatory powers by the bureau. Every change in the list of arbitrators shall be brought by the bureau to the knowledge of the signatory powers. Two or more powers may unite in the designation of one or more members of the court. The same person may be appointed by different powers. Members of the court shall be named for a term of six years. They may be reappointed. In case of death or resignation of a member of the court the vacancy shall be filled in the manner designated for his appointment.

ARTICLE 24.—When the signatory powers wish to bring before the permanent court the settlement of a controversy which has arisen between them, the choice of arbitrators selected to constitute the tribunal which shall have jurisdiction to determine this difference shall be made from the general list of members of the court.

If the arbitral tribunal be not constituted by the special agreement of the parties, it shall be formed in the following way:

Each party shall name two arbitrators, and these shall choose an umpire. In case they do not agree, the choice of the umpire is confined to a third power designated by the agreement of the parties. If they do not agree, each party shall select a different power, and the choice of the umpire shall be made by the united action of the powers thus selected. The tribunal being thus made up, the parties shall notify to the bureau their decision to bring their case before the court and the names of the arbitrators. The arbitral tribunal shall meet at a time fixed by the parties.

The members of the court in the exercise of their duties and while passing from their own country shall possess the privileges and immunities of members of the diplomatic corps.

ARTICLE 25.—The arbitral tribunal shall ordinarily sit at The Hague. The place of its session, except in case of *vis major*, can only be changed by the tribunal with the consent of the parties.

ARTICLE 26.—The international bureau at The Hague is authorized to put its offices and its staff at the disposal of the signatory powers for the performance of the duties of every special arbitral tribunal.

The jurisdiction of the court may be extended, under conditions prescribed by its rules, to controversies existing between powers that have not signed this convention, or between powers who have signed it and powers who have not signed it, if the parties agree to submit to its jurisdiction.

ARTICLE 27.—The signatory powers acknowledge it as a duty in every case in which a sharp conflict threatens to break out between two or more of them, to remind these powers that the permanent court is open to them. Consequently they declare that the fact of reminding the parties in conflict of the terms of the present convention, and the advice given in the higher interest of peace to bring their matters in difference before the permanent court, can never be considered as other than friendly offices.

ARTICLE 28.—A permanent administrative council, composed of the diplomatic representatives of the signatory powers accredited to The Hague and of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands, who shall act as president, shall be constituted in that city as soon as possible after the ratification of the present act by at least nine powers. This council shall be charged with the duty of constituting and organizing the international bureau, which shall remain under its direction and control.

It shall notify the powers of the constitution of the court and provide for its installation.

It shall determine the rules of practice and all other necessary rules.

It shall decide all administrative questions which may arise relating to the performance by the court of its official duties.

It shall have power in relation to the appointment, suspension from office, or removal of the officers and clerks of the bureau.

It shall determine their allowances and salaries and have charge of the general expenses.

Five members present at a meeting regularly called shall constitute a quorum. Decision shall be made by a majority of votes. The council shall communicate without delay to the signatory powers the rules adopted by it. It shall communicate to them every year a report as to what has been done by the bureau, the performance of its administrative functions, and its expenses.

ARTICLE 29.—The expenses of the bureau shall be borne by the signatory powers in the proportion established for the international bureau of the universal postal union.

CHAPTER THIRD—OF THE ARBITRAL PROCEDURE.

ARTICLE 30.—For the purpose of promoting the development of arbitration the signatory powers have determined upon the following rules, which shall be applicable to the arbitral procedure unless the parties agree upon different rules.

ARTICLE 31.—Powers which resort to arbitration will sign a special submission in which shall be briefly stated the subject of the litigation and the extent of the powers of the arbitrators. This submission implies an agreement by each party to submit in good faith to the decision of the arbitral tribunal.

ARTICLE 32.—The powers of the court of arbitration may be conferred upon a single arbitrator or upon several arbitrators designated by the parties to the controversy, as they may agree. Or they may be selected by them from among the members of the permanent court of arbitration established by the present act. In default of the constitution of the tribunal by the direct agreement of the parties, it shall be formed in the following manner:

Each party shall name two arbitrators, and these between them shall choose the umpire. In case they do not agree the choice of the umpire shall be given to a third power designated by the agreement of the parties. If they do not agree on this point each party shall designate a separate power, and the choice of the umpire shall be made by agreement between the powers thus designated.

ARTICLE 33.—When a sovereign or the head of a state is chosen for an arbitrator, the arbitral procedure shall be determined by him.

ARTICLE 34.—The umpire shall preside over the tribunal. When there is no umpire the tribunal shall itself name its presiding officer.

ARTICLE 35.—In case of death, resignation, or absence for any cause of one of the arbitrators, the vacancy shall be filled in the way pointed out for his appointment.

ARTICLE 36.—The place where the tribunal shall sit to be fixed by the parties. If they do not fix a different place, the tribunal shall sit at The Hague. The place of session thus determined shall not, except in case of *vis major*, be changed by the tribunal except with the consent of the parties.

ARTICLE 37.—The parties have the right to name delegates or agents who shall represent them before the tribunal and serve as intermediaries between them and it. They are also authorized to employ for the defense of their rights and interests before the court, counselors or lawyers named by them for that purpose.

ARTICLE 38.—The tribunal shall decide upon the languages which may be used and the use of which shall be authorized at its sessions.

ARTICLE 39.—The arbitral tribunal may in general be divided into two distinct parts: the examination of evidence and the hearing. Examination of evidence shall consist in the presentation made by the respective agents to the members of the court and to the other side of all printed or written instruments and of all documents containing the matters pleaded in the cause. This communication shall take place in the form and at the times fixed by the tribunal by virtue of Article 48. The hearing shall consist in the oral discussion of the matters presented by the parties before the tribunal.

ARTICLE 40.—Every document produced by either party shall be communicated to the other.

ARTICLE 41.—The oral hearings shall be under the direction of the president. They shall be published only in accordance with a decision of the tribunal made with the consent of the parties. They shall be reported in official statements edited by secretaries named by the president. These official statements shall be the only official record of the hearing. After the taking of evidence has been closed the tribunal shall have the right to exclude from the hearing all additional acts or documents which either party may desire to submit without the consent of the other.

ARTICLE 42.—The examination of evidence being closed, the tribunal has the right to refuse to admit all new acts or documents that one of the parties wishes to submit without the consent of the other.

ARTICLE 43.—The tribunal shall, however, have the right to take into consideration additional acts or documents which the attorney or counsel for the parties may call to its attention. In this case the tribunal has the right to require the production of these acts or documents, but copies of them must be furnished the adverse parties.

ARTICLE 44.—The tribunal may, moreover, re-

quire the agents of the parties to produce all official documents and require all necessary explanations. In case of refusal the tribunal may enter notice thereof upon its records.

ARTICLE 45.—The attorneys and counsel for the parties are authorized to present to the tribunal all the pleas that they deem useful for the defense of their cause.

ARTICLE 46.—They have the right to take exceptions and raise objections. The decisions of the tribunal on these points shall be final and shall not give rise to any further discussion.

ARTICLE 47.—The members of the tribunal have the right to put questions to the attorneys and counsel of the parties and to demand from them further explanations on doubtful points. Neither questions put nor observations made by the members of the tribunal during the course of the hearing shall be recorded as the expression of the opinion of the court or of any of its members.

ARTICLE 48.—The tribunal is authorized to determine its own jurisdiction, by interpreting the submission, as well as any other treaties which may be invoked in the matter, and also by applying the principles of international law.

ARTICLE 49.—The tribunal has the right to make rules of procedure for the direction of the litigation, to determine the forms and the time within which each party must submit its motions, and to determine all the formalities which shall regulate the taking of evidence.

ARTICLE 50.—The attorneys and counsel of the parties having presented the explanations and briefs in support of their cause, the president shall pronounce the hearing closed.

ARTICLE 51.—The deliberations of the tribunal shall be had in secret session. A decision shall be had by a vote of the majority of the members of the tribunal. The refusal of any member to take part in the vote must be specified in the official statement of its proceedings.

ARTICLE 52.—The arbitral judgment when determined by a majority vote shall be accompanied by an opinion, reduced to writing, and signed by each member of the tribunal. Those of the members of the court who are in the minority may, when signing, specify their dissent.

ARTICLE 53.—The arbitral judgment shall be read at a public session of the tribunal, the attorneys and counsel for the parties being present or regularly notified to be present.

ARTICLE 54.—The arbitral judgment, duly pronounced and notified to the attorneys of the parties to the litigation, shall decide the controversy finally and without appeal.

ARTICLE 55.—The parties may, however, reserve in their submission the right to ask for a revision of this arbitral judgment.

In this case and in the absence of an agreement to the contrary, demand must be addressed to the tribunal that rendered the judgment. It can only be based upon newly discovered evidence which is of a character to exercise a decisive influence upon the judgment, and which at the time the hearing was closed was unknown to the tribunal itself and to the party which asks for a revision of the judgment. The revision can only be granted by a decision of the tribunal distinctly stating the existence of newly discovered evidence of the character specified in the preceding paragraph, and declaring that the prayer for revision is for this reason granted. The submission shall determine the time within which a prayer for a revision of the judgment shall be entered.

ARTICLE 56.—The arbitral judgment is obligatory only upon the parties who took part in the submission. When it consists in the interpretation of a convention in which other powers than those to the litigation have taken part, these shall notify the other parties of the submission upon which they have agreed.

Each of these other powers has the right to take part in the proceedings before the tribunal. If one or more of them shall avail themselves of this right, the interpretation embodied in the judgment shall be equally binding upon them.

ARTICLE 57.—Each party to the controversy shall bear its own expense and an equal part of the expense of the tribunal.

SPECIAL PROVISO.*—*Nothing contained in this convention shall be so construed as to require the United States of America to depart from its traditional policy of not intruding upon, interfering with, or entangling itself in the political questions or internal administration of any foreign state; nor shall anything contained in the said convention be so construed as to require the relinquishment by the United States of America of its traditional attitude toward purely American questions.*

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* Accompanying the signatures of the American delegates.

THE CHICAGO DRAINAGE CANAL.

BY EDWIN O. JORDAN

(Assistant Professor of Bacteriology in the University of Chicago.)

AFTER some three years spent in preparatory estimates and surveys and seven more in the work of actual construction, the Chicago drainage canal is nearing completion and will probably be opened early in 1900. The channel is designed to conduct into the Illinois River the sewage of Chicago, diluted to such a degree by the pure water of Lake Michigan as to occasion no danger or inconvenience to the inhabitants of the Illinois valley.

The construction of this channel is the natural and legitimate outcome of the long-continued endeavor to supply the citizens of Chicago with pure drinking-water. Since a very early period in the history of the city the extraordinary practice has prevailed of allowing a portion of the city sewage to flow into Lake Michigan, which has been at once the recipient of the city refuse and the source of the city water supply. A large number of the city sewers have for some time emptied into the small stream known as Chicago River, which on this account has achieved an unenviable notoriety of more than local proportions. As long ago as 1865 the uneasiness that was naturally felt regarding the effect of such conditions upon the public health led to the use of a pumping station at Bridgeport, situated at the junction of the Illinois and Michigan Canal with the south branch of the Chicago River. This station was originally established simply for supplying water to the canal, but in the year mentioned the board of public works made arrangements for utilizing the pumping works to cleanse the river, and since that time the river water, which in late years has been practically crude sewage, has been more or less regularly pumped into the canal. The capacity of the pumping works has been enlarged from time to time to keep pace with the growth of the city and the attendant increase of pollution, and as an additional precaution the intake of the water tunnels has been pushed further and further out into the lake in the hope of escaping the sewage outflow. Both these means, however, have failed to give more than a temporary relief. The working of the pumps at Bridgeport has had the effect under ordinary conditions of reversing the flow of the Chicago River and of causing a sluggish current to set away from the lake. Occasionally, however, the pumps have been unable to cope with variations in the lake levels, and floods caused by sudden and heavy rains have flushed far out into the lake the unspeakable filth of the Chicago River. The results of this precarious situation might have been and indeed were foreseen. At times Chicago has suffered severely from typhoid fever, a disease known to be caused by polluted water. The last serious epidemic was in 1890–91, when there were 1,997 deaths from typhoid fever in twelve months, a number larger than that occurring during the same period in the State of New York with a population five times as great. The death-rate from typhoid fever in Chicago in 1891 was seven times as great as that in the city of New York and eleven times that in the city of London. Since that year, while no epidemic of such alarming proportions has visited the city, the death-rate from typhoid fever and kindred diseases has remained persistently high, and on several occasions, especially in the seasons of heavy rains or melting snow, miniature epidemics have unduly swollen the death-rate for a few months. It was primarily to meet this grave situation and to save human life that the construction of the canal was undertaken.

The loss of life from a disease now classed as "preventable" has, moreover, its financial as well as its humanitarian side. In 1898 there were 636 deaths from typhoid fever in Chicago. The legal value of a human life has been placed in some States at $5,000, which, considering the average age of the victims of typhoid fever, is probably a low measure of the value of their lives to the community, to say nothing of their value to immediate dependents. These 636 deaths represented at least 6,000 cases of typhoid fever, which, while not terminating fatally, led to considerable expenditure in the shape of doctors' and nurses' bills, medicine, etc., along with inevitable loss of wages in some cases. Ninety dollars per case is probably a low estimate of the actual loss and outlay.

$$\begin{aligned} 636 \times \$5{,}000 &= \$3{,}180{,}000 \\ 6{,}000 \times \quad 90 &= \quad 540{,}000 \\ \$3{,}720{,}000 &= 4 \text{ per cent. interest on } \$93{,}000{,}000. \end{aligned}$$

The sanitary district of Chicago was organized under a general law for incorporating sanitary

districts enacted by the Illinois State Legislature on May 29, 1889. The trustees of the district are elected by popular vote, the district itself comprising all of the city north of Eighty-seventh Street, together with some forty-three square miles of Cook County outside of the city limits. The trustees are authorized to levy and collect taxes and, within limits, to issue bonds necessary for the prosecution of the work. Under this authority expenses aggregating $33,000,000 have been incurred, and the total cost of the canal is not likely to fall much below $35,000,000, or over $15 *per capita* for the entire population of the district.

The magnitude of the canal itself is commensurate with the expenditure. The channel proper extends from a point near Bridgeport to Lockport, about 29 miles to the southwest. A portion of the excavation lies along the former bed of the Desplaines River, a small stream which has been ejected from its original course and made to flow in the "river diversion" channel" especially constructed for this purpose at an outlay of $1,100,000. The wide fluctuations in the volume of the Desplaines, which is said to vary from a flow scanty enough to pass through a six-inch pipe to a volume of 800,000 cubic feet per minute, have rendered this special provision necessary. It is an interesting fact that in taking this channel the canal simply restores the prehistoric water-course, and that in earlier geologic times the great lakes drained into the Mississippi by way of the Illinois and Desplaines instead of into the St. Lawrence.

The huge controlling works for regulating the flow from the channel into the Desplaines Valley are at Lockport. The controlling works include large sluice-gates and a bear-trap dam with an opening of 160 feet and an oscillation of 17 feet vertically. The fall from the controlling works to the upper basin at Joliet, four miles below, is about 42 feet. It is estimated that even when the channel carries only the minimum quantity of water required by law the falls will afford about 20,000 horse-power, which, converted into electricity and conducted to centers of distribution in Chicago, would yield over 16,000 horse-power at the sub-stations.

The utilization of this water power has aroused much local interest. A special committee of the Civic Federation has made a careful study of the subject, and its report does not favor leasing the water privileges to private persons. They have expressed the following opinion on this point:

> In conclusion, your committee is firmly convinced that no disposition of the water-power should be made at the present time, but that its full value, whatever that may be, should be preserved for the taxpayers of the city and sanitary district. The value for a period of fifty years, according to conservative estimates based upon experience in other localities and upon the opinion of the most competent electrical engineers, would amount to from $30,000,000 to $50,000,000.

The main drainage channel is in part cut through solid rock and in part through glacial drift, the total amount of excavation involved being 26,261,815 cubic yards of glacial drift and 12,006,984 cubic yards of solid rock. The rock cuttings are about 160 feet wide at the bottom, with nearly vertical walls. The excavations through the sections, with a preponderance of hard material, provide for a flow of 600,000 cubic feet of water per minute, or a rate of flow sufficient for the requirements of a population of 3,000,000 people, which is about double the present population of the district. The narrower channel that has been cut through the more easily handled material provides for a flow of 300,000 cubic feet per minute, and can easily be enlarged by simple methods of excavation as the growth of the population demands. It is claimed that the canal will be navigable for any craft drawing less than twenty-two feet of water.

While the canal is primarily designed to carry off the waste of a great city, the projectors of the enterprise have not been blind to the commercial possibilities of a free waterway from Chicago to the Mississippi. It is estimated that the expense of the excavations and retaining walls already provided for by the sanitary district constitutes nearly two-thirds of the entire cost of such a ship channel, and it is hoped that the general Government, which has done so much to improve the Mississippi River, may eventually be induced to undertake the completion of the channel construction. Should this plan ever be executed, large steamers will be able to make their way from the great lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, and the commerce of the whole Mississippi Valley will be greatly stimulated and enlarged.

Many difficulties have been encountered in the construction of the canal, and it still meets with much opposition. A problem of the most serious character, and one upon which there exists great diversity of expert opinion, is concerning the effect upon the lake levels that will be produced by the withdrawal of the large quantity of water that the canal will divert. High authorities estimate that the abstraction of 300,000 to 600,000 cubic feet per minute will permanently lower Lakes Michigan, Huron, and Erie not less than three and not more than eight inches, accompanying this statement, however, with the reservation that it will take from three to four years for the full effect to be reached. Other engineers of equal competence place the maximum perma-

nent depression at a lower figure. As a matter of fact sufficient data cannot at present be obtained to demonstrate satisfactorily and conclusively the effect of the contemplated change. Only the full operation of the canal, carefully watched and studied for a series of years, can be expected to solve the question.

Admitting, however, the possibile occurrence of an eight-inch lowering, speculation is rife as to the effect upon navigation likely to result from even a slight reduction in the depth of the lakes. Many of the lake harbors and channels are still shallow, despite the fact that they have been deepened at considerable expense by the general Government. Not a little anxiety is felt in several localities, and in case the vast commerce of the great lakes is interfered with by the permanent depression of level, the national authorities will doubtless be asked to intervene. There are, moreover, national interests involved which add to the serious character of the question. On the other hand, it is confidently claimed by eminent authorities that the probable depression of level will work no injury at all to the lake commerce. It is urged that since under present conditions fluctuations of several feet in the level do actually take place in a few days, a permanent change of a few inches would not be perceptible to navigation interests. Mr. Lyman E. Cooley, formerly chief engineer to the sanitary district, is reported as saying: "What will three inches amount to? Why, the dredging contractors can hardly get within that much of specifications. You can't use a jackplane on the bottom of the lake."

Another question that has aroused much speculation is the possible effect of the canal upon the towns of the Illinois Valley. Inasmuch as a large portion of Chicago sewage, estimated as high as 80–90 per cent., has for some years passed into the Illinois River by way of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, the dilution of the sewage on the scale projected would seem to promise nothing but improvement. In the celebrated report of the English commission on the pollution of rivers it is estimated after careful examination that 9,000 cubic feet of water per minute renders the sewage of 100,000 people inoffensive. The dilution of 20,000 cubic feet per minute required by the sanitary district will unquestionably improve visibly the quality of the Illinois River and is amply sufficient to prevent a nuisance. The question of the use of the Illinois River as a source of water supply is, of course, quite a different one, but as a matter of fact no town at present derives its water supply from this river, and all the large towns along the bank of the stream pour their own untreated sewage freely into it. The city of St. Louis, however, objects strenuously to the opening of the canal, on the ground that its own water supply, which is drawn from the Mississippi some thirty miles below the mouth of the Illinois, will be injuriously affected. The distance from Chicago is so great, however, the length of the Illinois alone being over 260 miles, and the problem is so complicated by the mingling of the Illinois water with that of the Mississippi and the Missouri, that available precedents for a decided opinion are altogether lacking. This being the case, the trustees of the sanitary district have wisely undertaken a thoroughgoing chemical and bacterial examination of the present condition of the Illinois and Mississippi Rivers, with the intention of following up the investigation with a similar series of analyses made after the canal is opened. In this way and in this way only can the questions raised by St. Louis be satisfactorily and conclusively answered.

Many problems near at hand confront the sanitary district. The effect of the canal upon the navigation interests of the Chicago River, perhaps the most important navigable river of its length on the globe, is by some viewed with apprehension. The river is narrow, tortuous, and beset by obstructions in the shape of bridges and piers of masonry, and the quickening of the current that will result from the inrush of lake water when the canal is opened will, it is feared, render navigation difficult and dangerous, if not impossible.

Regarding the beneficial influence of the operation of the canal upon the Chicago water supply there can be no question. It may be taken as axiomatic that the larger the amount of sewage kept out of a water supply the less typhoid fever there will be in the community served by that supply.

Whether or not one holds the opinion that the construction of a canal was the most suitable and economical solution of Chicago's problem of water supply and sewage disposal—and even at this late date there are not lacking friendly critics of the whole undertaking—there can be no question that in view of the advanced stage of the enterprise justice demands that a fair trial be given it. If it should be found on impartial inquiry after the canal is put in operation that danger, inconvenience, and loss are resulting to other communities, ways must be found to remedy these difficulties. Attempts, however, to prevent the opening of the canal reveal a misconception of the magnitude of the interests involved as well as of the intricate character of the questions at issue and of the uncertainty that shrouds many of the points in dispute.

FRATERNAL INSURANCE.

BY ALBERT C. STEVENS.

(Former editor of *Bradstreet's.*)

AT a time when two great industrial and commercial armies are concentrating under the form of combinations, or trusts, on one hand, and into trades unions on the other, it is more than ever important, in order to gauge our sociological progress, to note the degree of success attained in efforts which have been made for genuine coöperation.

Political economists and others during the latter half of the present century have recorded the attempts, the successes, and often the failures of coöperative movements; and one of the latest and most interesting books which refer to the subject points out, with conspicuous clearness, that coöperation as generally understood has not been entirely successful.

Col. Carroll D. Wright, in his "Outline of Practical Sociology," discusses the subject tersely and leaves little doubt that coöperative production has thus far been a failure. This is owing primarily to the worker's being obliged to wait indefinitely for the rewards of his labor—in other words, to the absence of the capitalist, who, as business is usually conducted, supplies the ready funds with which to promptly meet the wage account, to pay for raw material, rent, etc. Coöperative distribution, however, has been sporadically successful, and it is easy to recall English coöperative stores, and like ventures in this country which have not met with the prosperity which has attended similar enterprises abroad. Coöperative distribution, as is well known, is the distribution of goods by organizations the members of which expect to participate in the profits. A fault of the system, as has often been pointed out, is that it does not eliminate the evil of competition, except to those in immediate interest; and, as Colonel Wright says, is therefore "only a half measure as a remedy for defective distribution," lacking successful "coöperative production." This form of coöperation, in the opinion of the writer named, has not made much impression, in part owing to a lack of good business management and often because consumers prefer to pay a little more in order to be relieved of the task of being their own grocerymen, their own dry goods merchants, and the like. It is also pointed out that coöperative distribution, in order to be complete, should include coöperative production and, of course, profit-sharing, which is a form of coöperative distribution itself, the latter serving to increase the rewards of both capital and labor and to raise the moral tone of all in interest.

There is, however, more notably in the United States than elsewhere, a highly successful form of coöperative insurance, more particularly that conducted by the so-called mutual beneficiary secret fraternities. This form of protection of the families of members of these organizations constitutes coöperation in the broadest sense of the word; and while many of the students of this sociological phenomenon are aware of it, the general public has been slow to appreciate the extent of the movement, the nature of its origin, its evolution, and the enormous proportions which it assumes to-day.

There are nearly 200 mutual beneficiary insurance organizations, conducted on what is called the "lodge system," surrounded by the attractions found in the mysticism, real or imaginary, which hedges about a secret society. It will have to be admitted that these attractions constitute one of the strongest features of such organizations, in that they form the steel wire within the rope of brotherhood which tends to hold the membership in line in spite of occasional drawbacks, disappointment in or failure of a particular system of insurance employed. For this reason the secret fraternal beneficiary insurance society, when conducted more or less successfully, is sometimes stronger than the open mutual assessment insurance society—that which does not employ the lodge system.

It would be too much to declare that the mutual beneficiary secret society, an organization of native inspiration and growth, has finally demonstrated the success and desirability of any particular system of paying life insurance by assessments, so as to meet all the requirements of the case and have enough left over for the actual cost of collecting and disbursing assessments. The rise and development of these fraternities have taken place within the last thirty years, and to the student of the subject something in relation to their origin and evolution, the characteristics of the societies themselves, their *personnel* and function, together with the degree of success which has been attained, cannot fail to be of interest.

In considering the subject it is necessary to keep in mind that so-called straight old-line life insurance itself has been a matter of experiment and gradual growth; that mortality tables and other records upon which such companies have based their risks required years to compile; and that discontinuances and failures incident to the development of the few enormously successful life insurance companies and more than forty prosperous smaller companies make up a long and gloomy list.

In a recently published work entitled "Facts for Fraternalists" (published by the *Fraternal Monitor*, Rochester, N. Y.) there are given the names of 775 old-line life insurance companies which, as stated, have disappeared and left no sign—this out of a total of 822 such companies recorded. The significance of this lies in the fact that the frequent mortality among mutual beneficiary secret societies has often been made the subject of special criticism.

It does not require much imagination to arrive at the conclusion that the germ of American insurance brotherhoods is discovered in the transplanted English friendly societies, of which the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, the Ancient Order of Foresters, and the United Ancient Order of Druids are the most important. The first named was introduced into the United States eighty years ago, the Druids sixty-five years ago, and the Ancient Order of Foresters was finally placed here thirty-five years ago. All of them are secret organizations, and by means of assessments or lodge funds otherwise acquired pay sick and disability benefits to members. All of them have imitators in this country, and shortly after the Civil War there were formed one or more non-secret beneficiary or purely coöperative assessment insurance societies, although only a few of them lived more than a year or two.

It was in 1868 that John Gordon Upchurch, a Freemason, founded at Meadville, Pa., the Ancient Order of United Workmen, a secret beneficiary society designed to pay stipulated sums to the surviving relatives of members at the deaths of the latter by means of assessments paid by surviving members. Mr. Upchurch had also been a member of what was known as the League of Friendship, Supreme Mechanical Order of the Sun, presumably a similar organization, but which for some reason had failed to give satisfaction to himself and others. The Ancient Order of United Workmen remains today practically the parent of all similar secret societies, of which there are perhaps 200, and more than one-half of which may be characterized as fairly successful. The membership of these organizations and the aggregate amount of insurance which they may be said to have obligated themselves to pay reach astonishingly large totals, fairly dividing interest with corresponding aggregates obtained from the records of old-line, or so-called regular, life insurance companies.

In a published list of 89 legal reserve life insurance companies reported as having failed in the last fifty years, 7 of them went down between 1849 and 1860, with assets amounting to $7,892,000, of which one company alone (the Knickerbocker Life of New York City) accounted for $7,232,000 of the assets in question, six of these companies evidently being small concerns. In the following decade—that in which the Civil War took place—there were reported 14 similar failures, with assets of $2,882,000, and between 1870 and 1880, a period which produced a panic and five years of depression in business, there were 64 reported failures of legal reserve life insurance companies, with assets amounting to $87,498,000. It was evidently in the 70s that many legal reserve life insurance companies found out their own weaknesses, for between 1880 and 1890 only 1 such failure is given in the list reported in "Facts for Fraternalists," while in the first half of the present decade only 3 are announced, with $2,748,000 of assets. In all, during the forty-five years 89 legal reserve old-line life insurance failures are reported, with assets amounting to $101,026,933, of which, as noted, 64, with assets of $87,498,000, took place between 1870 and 1880, and nearly one-sixth as many during or immediately following the Civil War.

It is no stretch of the imagination which attributes the incentive for the formation of mutual beneficiary assessment insurance societies, whether secret or not, to the extraordinary mortality among the legal reserve old-line insurance companies during the fifteen years following the Civil War, for that is the period during which were born the leading fraternal assessment benefit orders from which have sprung, directly or indirectly, nearly all which have since been organized.

Of the first five societies given in the following list (those organized between 1868 and 1879), the second, the Independent Order of Mechanics, was in all probability the offspring of the several secret or open benefit societies which, with suggestions from Freemasons and Odd Fellows, gave birth to the Ancient Order of United Workmen. St. Patrick's Alliance and the Catholic Benevolent Union were originally friendly societies, paying sick benefits and the like, but soon after organized beneficiary or insurance departments. A similar story may be told of the Order of the

Star of Bethlehem, and from this beginning has been constructed the chain of organizations which have furnished the hundreds of thousands of opportunities for coöperative insurance which have followed. During the 70s, the period in which there were 64 reported failures of legal reserve old-line life insurance companies, with $87,498,000 of approximate assets, 29 assessment beneficiary secret societies made their appearance, all offspring of the Ancient Order of United Workmen, imitators of that society, or organizations inspired or stimulated by the successes of the latter. Some of them at the start were friendly societies paying sick benefits only or sums due on account of disabilities, either by assessments or from dues; but all of the 29 referred to, the names of which are given in the following list, sooner or later became assessment insurance organizations. The leading ones mentioned, those which have secured large memberships and which have attracted general attention, those which have given rise to similar organizations, directly or otherwise, or those which have been more than usually successful, in addition to those named, are the Knights of Honor, the Independent Order of Foresters, the Royal Arcanum, the American Legion of Honor, the Order of the Knights of the Maccabees, and the Order of Chosen Friends.

FORMED OR BECAME MUTUAL BENEFICIARY ORDERS BETWEEN 1868 AND 1879.

Ancient Order of United Workmen.
Independent Order of Mechanics.
St. Patrick's Alliance of America.
Order of the Star of Bethlehem.
Irish Catholic Benevolent Union.
Knights of the Mystic Chain.
Artisans Order of Mutual Protection.
Knights of Birmingham.
Knights of Honor.
Knights of the Golden Eagle.
Independent Order of Foresters.
United Order of the Golden Cross.
Knights and Ladies of Honor.
Knights of Pythias (Endowment Rank).
Royal Arcanum.
Shield of Honor.
Catholic Knights of America.
Independent Order Sons of Benjamin.
American Legion of Honor.
Improved Order of Heptasophs.
Knights of the Maccabees.
Order of Mutual Protection.
Order of Scottish Clans.
Royal Templars of Temperance.
Knights of St. John and Malta.
Catholic Mutual Benefit Association.
Home Circle.
Iowa Legion of Honor.
Knights of the Golden Rule.
Order of Chosen Friends.
Order of the Red Cross.
Order of Sparta.
United Order of Pilgrim Fathers.
Massachusetts Catholic Order of Foresters.

Between 1880 and 1890 there were recorded the births of 36 similar organizations, a wholesome evidence of the force of the momentum in this direction due to the formation of the 34 fraternal beneficiary societies between 1868 and 1879. The list is as follows:

FORMED BETWEEN 1880 AND 1890.

Modern Woodmen of America.
Order of Heptasophs or S. W. M.
Patriarchal Circle of America.
Golden Star Fraternity.
Loyal Knights and Ladies.
National Union.
Order of the Golden Chain.
Order of United Friends.
United States Benevolent Fraternity.
Catholic Benevolent Legion.
Knights of Columbus.
Royal Society of Good Fellows.
National Provident Union.
Royal League.
Catholic Order of Foresters of Illinois.
American Star Order.
Catholic Knights of Illinois.
Fraternal Mystic Circle.
Knights and Ladies of the Golden Star.
Northwestern Legion of Honor.
Legion of the Red Cross.
The Grand Fraternity.
Protected Home Circle.
Ladies of the Maccabees of Michigan.
Independent Order of Chosen Friends.
New England Order of Protection.
Improved Order of B'nai B'rith.
American Order of Druids.
Order of Select Friends.
Sexennial League.
Empire Knights of Relief.
Knights of the Globe.
National Aid Association.
Order of Unity.
United Fraternal League.
United Friends of Michigan.

Among the foregoing organizations which have secured relatively the greater prominence, in all instances to the credit of the societies in question, are the Modern Woodmen of America, the National Union, Catholic Knights of Columbus, the National Provident Union, the Grand Fraternity, the Protected Home Circle, the Empire Knights of Relief, and the National Aid Association.

If there remained any doubt of the popularity of this movement, it would only be necessary to give the following list of the most important societies which have appeared since 1890—74 in number. It does not include the names of sev

eral of quite recent date concerning which there is no reason to doubt the probability of their achieving a place in the world of fraternalism :

FORMED OR BECAME MUTUAL BENEFICIARY ORDERS BETWEEN 1890 AND 1899.

American Guild.
Fraternal Aid Association.
Knights of Sobriety, Fidelity and Integrity.
Independent Order Free Sons of Judah.
Loyal Additional Benefit Association.
National Protective Legion.
United Commercial Travelers of America.
Woodmen of the World.
Fraternal Alliance.
Home Palladium.
Modern Knights Fidelity League.
National Protective League.
National Reserve Association.
Canadian Order of Chosen Friends.
Home Forum Benefit Order.
Iron Hall of Baltimore City.
Knights and Ladies of Security.
Loyal Mystic Legion of Honor.
Mystic Workers of the World.
Independent Order Sons of Abraham.
American Benefit Society.
Ladies of the Maccabees of the World.
Catholic Relief and Beneficiary Association.
Independent Order of B'nai B'rith.
Independent Order Free Sons of Israel.
Order of B'rith Abraham.
Kesher Shel Barzel.
National Fraternity.
The Eclectic Assembly.
Union Fraternal League.
Workmen's Benefit Association.
Knights and Ladies of Azar.
Family Protective Union.
Fraternal Aid Association.
Fraternities Accident Order.
American Fraternal Insurance Union.
Independent Order of American Israelites.
Order of Pendo.
Royal Tribe of Joseph.
Tribe of Ben Hur.
United Order of Foresters.
Ancient Order of the Pyramids.
Knights and Ladies of Columbia
Knights of the Loyal Guard.
Supreme Court of Honor.
Columbus League.
Fraternal Union of America.
Imperial Mystic Legion.
Order of Shepherds of Bethlehem.
Order of the Iroquois.
Royal Highlanders.
Sons and Daughters of Protection.
The International Congress.
The Royal Circle.
Order of Columbus.
Brotherhood of American Yeomen.
Columbian League.
Fraternal Brotherhood of the World.
Fraternal Tribunes.
Modern Brotherhood of America.
Mutual Protective League.
New Era Association.
Order of Americus.
Prudent Patricians of Pompeii.
United Moderns.
Business and Fraternal Association.
Continental Mutual Benefit Society.
Fraternal Army of America.
Knights of Aurora of the World.
Pioneer Reserve Association.
The Pathfinder.
Western Knights Protective Asociation.
Yeomen of America.
Ancient Order of the Red Cross.

Among these societies, those which have come most rapidly to the front for one or more of the reasons already specified are the Woodmen of the World, the Independent Order of B'nai B'rith (which was organized prior to 1850 and was originally a friendly society, but which adopted the assessment beneficiary scheme in 1893), the Tribe of Ben Hur, the United Order of Foresters, and the Order of the Iroquois.

It was only natural that the system of assessment insurance originally adopted should be crude, and such was indeed the case, as is shown by its including the payment of $2,000 insurance at the death of a member by means of a uniform assessment of $1 *per capita*. But the experience of the earlier, larger, and better fraternal beneficiary secret organizations—the Ancient Order of United Workmen, the Royal Arcanum, Knights of Honor, American Legion of Honor, Independent Order of Foresters, and others—was such as to make plain the necessity for a system of assessments which should take cognizance of increasing age of members, whence arose the so-called step-rate assessment. In this the rate, instead of remaining uniform during the life of a member, increases gradually by periods of years. From this, however, the more progressive of the fraternal orders have graduated into a system by which assessments are graded according to age at joining, and it is in this group that we find classified 76 out of 87 of the more important among them.

As an evidence that the progress of evolution in determining the more efficient method of conducting organizations of this character has not ended, it is worth pointing out that two of the more prominent societies have gone still further and are making assessments which increase annually, according to the age of the member. Both the Knights of Honor and the National Union employ this method of accumulating sums due surviving relatives of deceased members, and the organizations named represent to that extent the degree to which these societies have progressed

in solving the problem how to insure the lives of members successfully during a prolonged period of years with only a minimum of cost for collecting and distributing assessments. Whether others, among which are many quite as successful as those just named, will imitate this example, remains to be seen, for it would not be safe to predict that the system of insurance employed by 76 out of 87 of these societies has reached perfection.

With few exceptions, the best types among the fraternal orders confine themselves to paying death benefits, although there are many (and a number of them are among the strongest of the organizations referred to) which furnish partial, total, or permanent disability benefits, in some instances a funeral, a burial plot, and a monument benefit; benefits designed to cover accidents and which will apply only in case of extreme old age; a medical attendance benefit, and, in the instance of secret labor organizations which have mutual beneficiary features, a strike benefit, collected and distributed, of course, practically as similar funds are handled by straight-out trades unions. Most of these miscellaneous benefits have been or are paid by English and other friendly societies, and the adoption of such features by the modern American fraternal order is a recognition to that extent of the desirable characteristics of such organizations as the Odd Fellows, the Foresters, the Druids, their contemporaries and imitators.

Just as the old-line legal reserve life insurance policy of forty years ago has evoluted from an almost entirely one-sided contract in favor of the companies into something very like a bond of the company, payable either at a specific date during the life of the holder or at the death of the latter, convertible, and having a surrender value for each year of its existence, so the fraternal orders have attempted to attract patrons, or rather members, by the special or particular benefits named.

While it may be humorously suggestive to point out that one of the most popular Western fraternal orders is that which announces that it will erect a hundred-dollar monument at the grave of each of its deceased members, its extraordinary rapid annual increase of membership, for this and other reasons, attests to the effectiveness of the plan by which, in part, it has attracted new blood.

The fraternal orders have also hedged themselves about with restrictions calculated to maintain a low death-rate, precisely after the manner of the more carefully managed old-line life insurance companies, by confining their field of operation and the solicitation for new members to the more healthful localities and to the country districts, and also by prohibiting membership to those who follow certain extra hazardous or even hazardous occupations.

A second variety of mutual assessment beneficiary secret societies is found among those having the short-term or endowment feature, those which have sought or are seeking to build up mutual life insurance on the tontine plan—those which agree to pay back to surviving members who shall have made certain payments, etc., for a certain number of years, the total amount of the assessments they have paid in, and in some instances with interest added thereto. Relatively few of the older short-term societies have survived. One of the best known is the Sexennial League, organized in 1888 "to enable all persistent members to have an opportunity to save small sums periodically, which, merging in a common fund, would produce large increase from safe investments, the benefit to be shared by the persistent members in proportion to the certificates held by them." The feature of this organization is the termination of membership at the end of six years, the plan contemplating each member, at the end of the sexennial period, rejoining, in order to continue to reap the harvests of maintained membership. It requires no special discernment to perceive that the success of this society is dependent on lapses of a proportion of its members. Those who are familiar with the subject are evidently aware of this, as shown by the use of the expression "persistent members."

Some idea of the financial importance of the operations of the leading fraternal orders not in the latter class may be gained from a reference to their transactions in recent years. Twelve out of 106 which furnish death benefits by means of mutual assessments included two-thirds of the membership of all of them for the calendar year 1897. Their names are as follows:

Ancient Order of United Workmen.
Modern Woodmen of America.
Knights of the Maccabees.
Royal Arcanum.
Independent Order of Foresters.
Woodmen of the World.
Knights of Honor.
Knights and Ladies of Honor.
Catholic Order of Foresters.
Knights of Pythias (Endowment Rank).
National Union.
Catholic Benevolent Legion.

That first named has a present membership far in excess of 350,000, while the Catholic Benevolent Legion, twelfth in order, possesses probably more than 50,000 members.

The largest annual increase in insurance written by fraternal orders in 1898 may or may not have

been by the Ancient Order of United Workmen, totals for which have not been obtained. It is doubtful, however, whether the Workmen had more new business in 1898 than the Modern Woodmen of America, with two-thirds as large a membership, the latter reporting an increase in the amount of "insurance written," of death certificates issued, aggregating nearly $32,500,000, or about 5 per cent. of its total of death-benefit certificates outstanding on December 31, 1898. The next largest increase was by the Woodmen of the World, $6,000,000. This society is the sixth largest of its kind, and its gain in the amount of death certificates issued in 1898 was nearly 4 per cent. of its certificates outstanding. The next largest gain was $4,400,000, by the Knights of the Maccabees, less than 3 per cent. of the total amount of death certificates. Relatively the largest increase, however, is that by the Ladies of the Maccabees of the World, a society which probably had few in excess of 30,000 members a year ago, but which issued $7,000,000 worth of death certificates in 1898 in excess of the like total in 1897, a gain of fully 25 per cent. over the total on December 31, 1897.

The total increase in the amount of certificates of the Modern Woodmen of America in force on December 31, 1898, as compared with one year before, shows a gain of $120,000,000, other conspicuous increases being as follows: Woodmen of the World, nearly $34,000,000; Independent Order of Foresters, nearly $24,000,000; Knights of the Maccabees, $19,000,000; the Modern Brotherhood of America, more than $9,000,000; Home Forum Benefit Order, a like sum; Tribe of Ben Hur, $5,000,000; Catholic Knights of Columbus and the Endowment Rank of the Knights of Pythias, each about $4,500,000; New England Order of Protection, $3,800,000; the Fraternal Union of America and the Canadian Order of Foresters, each about $3,500,000; and—a signal tribute to the energy and enterprise of women's mutual assessment beneficiary societies—Ladies of the Maccabees of the World, $11,500,000.

Of the 41 societies in the list from which these data are taken (organizations having each a total face value of certificates in force of $10,000,000 or more), three-fourths of them report increases in the expenses of management during 1898, a natural result, one which follows inevitably upon an increase in membership. The only gains of this character which call for particular notice are in the instance of the Fraternal Union of America, where the expense doubled within a year; the Free Sons of Israel, where it more than trebled; the Independent Order of Foresters, where the gain was more than 45 per cent.; the Brotherhood of America, where the expense of management in 1898 was three times that of the year before; the Royal Arcanum, with an increase of nearly one-fifth; and, last, but literally not least, an augmented disbursement for cost of management on the part of the Modern Woodmen of America of about 39 per cent. The enormously rapid growth in membership will account for a large proportion of this. The increase in the annual cost of management of the Woodmen of the World is, however, only a little more than 6 per cent.

This suggests a calculation of the expenses of management *per capita*. Among the six organizations the annual expenses of management of each of which were $100,000 or more in 1897, the lowest rate *per capita* was in the Royal Arcanum, 62 cents; the next lowest the Modern Woodmen of America, 87 cents; after which came the Knights of the Maccabees, the annual outlay for management of which was 94 cents *per capita*; for the Knights of Honor, $1.23; and for the Independent Order of Foresters, which owns a magnificent building in Toronto and is presided over, at a large salary, by Oronhyatekha, M.D., the *per-capita* cost of management two years ago was, as appears, $1.56, or $195,650 expense for management with a total membership (1897) of about 125.000. The average cost of management *per capita* in 27 leading fraternities analyzed was about $1.65 in 1897, compared with a *per-capita* cost of $1.48 about fifteen years before, when those societies averaged about three years of age.

In 30 societies the records of which are analyzed in the "Cyclopædia of Fraternities," the rate of mortality during the third year of existence of each averaged 4.10 per 1,000, while during the fiscal year 1897 (an average of from fifteen to eighteen years afterward) the death-rate was 9.5 per 1,000.

It is of particular interest, in connection with the foregoing statement, to note that the average cost of $1,000 insurance, or benefits, in 28 of these societies in the third year of their existence was $5.04, while from fifteen to eighteen years later, in 1897, the average cost was $9.22 per $1,000 insurance. In these exhibits one finds the death-rate more than doubled and the cost of insurance per $1,000 almost doubled within the average period named, notwithstanding the increase in membership during that time. This may perhaps form the basis of the movement which has shown itself favoring fraternal orders providing for reserve funds, in which they practically follow old-line life insurance companies.

The rapid growth of membership in fraternal

orders since 1870 has attracted attention and brought out severe criticism from State examiners and from representatives of old-line life companies. This has not been uniformly the case, for the fraternal or coöperative society has also found defenders among the class referred to. The most serious criticism is based on the lack of legislative provision for governing their incorporation and organization and for providing proper State supervision. The writer is aware that State supervision of the fraternal orders has met with violent opposition. But notwithstanding the existence of bonded treasurers, even in an organization in which only one assessment may be kept on hand with which to meet a death benefit, yet inasmuch as that one assessment may amount to a great many thousands of dollars and that legal reserves are now beginning to be provided, the institution becomes more than ever of a fiduciary character, and as it is generally managed by a very few officials, a requirement that the State Banking or the Insurance Department should supervise it would seem to be only in the line of reasonable precaution and propriety.

The Independent Order of Foresters, one of the more prosperous of these societies, finds no difficulty in meeting the requirements of the Canadian and British laws governing such bodies, and would probably be willing to meet like requirements on this side of the line. A similar argument should hold true with respect to all the fraternal orders.

As has been repeatedly pointed out in recent years, a successful old-line life insurance company—for that matter, any successful insurance company—must present three features: First, it must have an attractive plan; second, the payments of premiums must be so arranged as not to increase from year to year, which has not been the experience of assessment insurance societies, fraternal and otherwise, after having passed the period of youth; third, the contract between the insured and insurer should be of such a nature as to be convertible and possess a surrender value—that is, the insured must have the privilege of retiring at almost any time with something more than the recollection that he had been insured while he had kept up the payment of premiums.

The mere statement of the foregoing shows clearly some of the broadest differences between the fraternal order and the old-line insurance method. It may be granted, for sake of argument, that the old-line insurance companies and the fraternal orders both have attractive plans. It is easily within the power of the old-line companies to arrange the payments of premiums so that they will not increase from year to year, and this they have done. The experience in such companies is that lapses of policies decrease very rapidly after four years, while in the fraternal orders it has been shown that lapses tend to increase in time, in part because of changed circumstances of the insured or dissatisfaction on some personal ground, but more often because of increasing rates of assessments. The question, then, arises, What does the assessment insurance company possess which offsets this unfavorable feature?

The open assessment company—that is, the mere business arrangement between a certain number of thousand people to assess themselves to pay death benefits—often has little to offer, because interest in the organization may hang solely upon its ability to keep down the rate of assessments and to meet its obligations promptly. Not so with fraternal orders, which are veritable social centers, secret fraternities and sisterhoods, and about which hang the elements of permanence and strength over and above all question of life insurance. A secret bond of brotherhood, with all that the words imply, which in addition thereto proposes to confer certain benefits upon surviving relatives of deceased members, may with safety call upon its members for sacrifices to meet the obligations it has assumed, in many instances where the demand is such as would immediately disrupt an ordinary open mutual assessment society. Here, then, is the steel wire referred to which runs through the rope of brotherhood insurance, which has held and promises to maintain fraternal orders in spite of the difficulties attending an effort to solve the problem of mutual insurance.

Does any one for a moment suppose that a purely business association of, we will say, 40,000 men who have combined to assess themselves, for instance, on an average $2 apiece at the death of a member for the purpose of paying insurance to surviving relatives, would be able to hold itself together if, on finding the system faulty, a few representatives appointed with power promulgated a plan by which all its assessments were promptly doubled? In all probability hardly more than one or two such open assessment companies could, under such circumstances, prevent sudden disintegration. Yet that is exactly what the Royal Arcanum, one of the best and most prominent fraternal orders, has succeeded in doing within the past year. In no other society of this sort is the character of the membership higher, socially or otherwise, or has the spirit of fraternity and brotherly love been more strongly developed. No other leading fraternal order which has had to radically reorganize its plan of assessment—and most of

them have had to do it—has succeeded in accomplishing it with so little friction and so immaterial a loss of membership as has the Royal Arcanum.

A prominent official of the Equitable Life Assurance Society said in his address before the National Insurance Convention at Milwaukee on September 14, 1898: "It is quite possible for . . . a fraternal society to combine death-loss assessments with other elements of their constitution in so small a proportion that the dissatisfaction over assessments is counterbalanced by the cohesive power of the other features of the society." He adds that "those fraternal orders which furnish something desirable in addition to insurance—fraternity, a club, and social reunions—may struggle along with even a moderately imperfect system of assessments and so accomplish their purposes in some degree.

Here, then, we find, working side by side, two great influences for the amelioration of the condition of the human family. Each is striving to add to the sum total of human happiness by providing for the surviving relatives of members of fraternal orders or of policy holders in regular life insurance companies. The claim of the more argumentative members of some of the former organizations has been that the cost of insurance in the old-line companies is proportionately too high, and for proof a finger is pointed to the enormous surpluses which have been rolled up by the New York, the Equitable, and the Mutual Life. In the meanwhile each type of insurance society, the coöperative and that which really is not—the fraternal order and the old-line company—has been improving, strengthening, and developing its system. Probably neither claims to have reached perfection, although there is much to be said in favor of a policy in an old-line life company of high standing because of the security and permanence of the contract.

But true it is that without the fraternal order and its coöperative system of insurance, thousands upon thousands, in the event of their own deaths, would be unable to protect those nearest and dearest to them.

Here it is that the fraternal order is seen to be doing an enormous work for good and for happiness which the old-line companies have not been and are not able to perform. The mere statement that there were nearly 2,600,000 members of fraternal orders on December 31, 1898, compared with 2,166,274 policies in force in old-line life companies reported to the New York State Insurance Department, will give some idea of the relative social importance of the two systems. On the date named there was about $5,700,000,000 worth of old-line life insurance in force in the United States, compared with $3,400,000,000 worth of benefit certificates in force issued by fraternal orders. It only remains to be added, to show clearly the point of view of the friends of coöperative life insurance, that the total expense of management of life insurance companies in 1898 was $71,898,501, while the corresponding item with reference to fraternal orders was $3,580,380. Thus we find two-thirds of the life insurance business of the country in the hands of about 46 old-line life companies and about one-third conducted on a coöperative basis by fewer than 200 fraternal orders. With one-third of the business the fraternal orders are carrying on their work of providing benefits for surviving relatives of deceased members at one-twentieth of the expense for cost of management reported by the old-line companies, a little less than 5 per cent. as much. This they have been doing with varying success, considerably more than less, for a quarter of a century, and the movement has always been one of progress. That they will so continue, that the system will be still further perfected, and that they will remain the source of life insurance or death benefits at a low cost *per capita* and per $1,000 of insurance, there is no possibility of doubt.

As a coöperative movement their success has fairly run away from the efforts at coöperative production and distribution. Were it not for the extraordinarily large number of fraternal orders which have appeared during the past eight or nine years, one might hope for consolidation rather than multiplication; but, as some one has said, the desire for medals, brass buttons, gold lace, and for office and power continues as strong with some people as it does with others. Thus we frequently observe that when a fraternal order becomes large and powerful and develops rival candidates for office, a new order is promptly started, with high-sounding titles, another ritual, with more grips and passwords and a ceremony of initiation which betrays the handiwork of those who have belonged to some of the older orders or who have delved deep into the descriptions of some of the so-called ancient mysteries.

THE VITAL QUESTION OF PURE FOOD

BY HARRY B. MASON, PH.G.

THE army-beef *imbroglio* surely served one good purpose. It focused public attention upon the vital necessity of pure food and stimulated legislation prohibiting and controlling adulteration and sophistication. Within a few weeks pure-food laws were passed by the Legislatures of Illinois, Washington, Indiana, California, and South Dakota, and in other States special laws of a narrow scope—such as the New York measures prohibiting the adulteration of fruit juices and compelling the honest branding of renovated butter—were placed on the statute-books. And in all of these States where new laws are in force, as well as in several of the others where similar laws have been existent for some time, the indications are that the respective measures will be vigorously enforced, regardless of the consequences to any class of manufacturers or distributors.

The surprising extent to which our commonest foods and drinks are adulterated and counterfeited, and the crying necessity for both State and national legislation which will control and check the evil, have been well proved by the results of the senatorial investigation which was made in Chicago last spring. Before the Senate committee, appointed just prior to the adjournment of Congress and headed by Senator Mason, several prominent chemists, food manufacturers, and others gave testimony. Dr. Wiley, who has been chief chemist of the Agricultural Department at Washington for many years, asserted that nearly every kind of food upon the market is, to a greater or lesser extent, adulterated, misbranded, or otherwise rendered harmful or fraudulent. More Vermont maple sugar is made every year in Davenport, Iowa, from cheap yellow sugar flavored with vegetable extracts than can be produced from all the maple trees in the whole State of Vermont! Currant jelly is manufactured from the cores and parings of apples utilized after they have been evaporated; glucose, sugar, a vegetable acid, and some coloring and flavoring matter complete the delicacy! Nearly all of the "pure olive oil" imported to this country is cotton-seed oil made in the Southern States, sent abroad, and there refined and returned to us as the pure product of the Mediterranean olive!

Dr. Wiley, Professor Mitchell, of the Wisconsin Dairy and Food Commission, and others told how the public purse is defrauded and the public health damaged by butter from which the milk fats have been taken and vegetable and animal fats added; how coffee has often been found to consist mainly of molasses and flour molded into berries; how fully 70 per cent. of beer is made without malt; how the color of tea leaves, of pickles, and of certain vegetables and canned goods is made with copper salts and the like; how condensed milk is made from milk which has been skimmed and effectually ridden of nearly all of its nutritious material; how spices are not spices; how sardines are not sardines; how fifteen-year-old whisky can be made in fifteen minutes; and how communion wine is usually nothing but a weak solution of salicylic acid flavored with unfermented grape juice. 'Tis a wise man who knows what he eats and drinks in this day of scientific resource and economic progress!

Later on in the Chicago investigation it was declared by several witnesses, who were for the most part chemists of experience in the analysis of food products, that "antiseptics and preservatives of various kinds are used indiscriminately to defraud and to deceive," and that "these are nearly always harmful and sometimes positively dangerous." Butchers use preserving fluids on choice scraps of meat which they lay aside for transformation into the delicacy known as "Hamburger steak." Milk and butter are preserved with "freezine," which is nothing more than a solution of formaldehyde. Fruits and fruit products are preserved with salicylic acid; bacon, sausage, and other animal products with boric acid.

It was disclosed also that this country had long been a "dumping-ground" for all sorts of adulterated and inferior food products sent here from abroad. Manufacturers in Germany, Brazil, and other countries are continually sending to the United States foodstuffs which they are forbidden by law to sell in their own countries. The popular brand of German coffee known as "Black Jack," for instance, is nothing more than a mixture of dead and green berries wholly unfit for consumption.

The annual report of the Connecticut agricultural experiment station tallies well with and corroborates this testimony. Of 63 samples of fruit jelly examined during the past year, 43 were found adulterated and spurious; of 49

samples of jams and marmalades examined, 46 were found adulterated and spurious; 11 out of 45 samples of coffee were mixed with roasted peas, chicory, wheat, and other foreign substances; sausages and oysters were found to be preserved with boric acid; and of 574 samples of spices examined during the last three years, 41½ per cent. were adulterated, admixed, or spurious.

Why this surprising prevalence of adulterated and counterfeited foods in the United States? Simply because the law imposes no restrictions, or at least none worthy of mention. With the exception of regulations concerning the quality of flour, butter, and cheese, the United States statutes contain nothing to prevent the unrestricted admixture of all sorts of foreign ingredients in the foods which are our daily nourishment; and previous to last spring there had been effective State laws in only a few instances. Massachusetts, Ohio, and Michigan, possibly also Connecticut and Wisconsin, have done what they could to prevent the evil, but nothing of any moment has been done elsewhere. Pure food and drug laws, more or less broad in scope, are on the statute-books of perhaps fifteen States, but, except in the several States mentioned above, these laws have either not been properly enforced or else they have not been sufficiently drastic in character. This neglect of the public health has enabled manufacturers of foods and drinks to go to almost unlimited lengths in the adulteration and cheapening of their products, regardless alike of the public purse and the public health. Their greed has had no check; their dishonesty has received no punishment. They have flourished and grown fat at the expense of the people who have consumed their inferior, counterfeited, and harmful products. This is no indifferent matter: it is further reaching in its effects than a cursory thought indicates. Reflection must convince any thoughtful man that the prevalent consumption of inferior and harmful foods by a people must result in the physical and moral deterioration of that people.

If any foodstuff is sold under deceit in England the manufacturer or the dealer, as the case may be, is promptly fined upon conviction. If the product is sold by the dealer in the original package, or is bought and sold by him under the manufacturer's written declaration of purity, the manufacturer is regarded as the sinner; otherwise the dealer himself is considered the culprit. There is no arbitrary standard of purity to which any product must conform; every product must be what it pretends to be; if it is sold as "pure olive oil" it must be pure olive oil; if it masquerades as butter it must be butter. Every product must be of "the nature, substance, and quality" indicated by its label or asked for, directly or impliedly, by the purchaser. To make this law effective every township and borough has its "public analyst," who examines suspected samples of foodstuffs submitted to him, and who, I believe, has power voluntarily to secure samples from time to time, subject them to analysis, and cause the prosecution of manufacturer or dealer when the law has been found violated; and the testimony of this public analyst is alone sufficient to convict the defendant.

What is the result? The adulteration and misbranding of foodstuffs in England is insignificant compared with the extent of the evil in the United States. Of 211 samples of foods recently examined in Halifax Borough, 7 were found to be adulterated; of 152 samples recently examined in Bristol, 11 were found adulterated; of 35 samples recently examined in Hertfordshire, 2 were found adulterated. All of these samples were under suspicion; all of them were suspected of adulteration before they were examined. The percentage of adulteration was therefore greater than it would have been had the products been selected indiscriminately, whether under suspicion or not. But of these 398 samples of suspected products, only 30 (or 13 per cent.) were found fraudulent. Compare this 13 per cent. of adulteration found in *suspected* foodstuffs in England with the 45 per cent. of adulteration found in Connecticut in foods which, though of the kind most often adulterated, were indiscriminately gathered for examination! And the Connecticut results are representative of the results which have followed examinations made in other States. The great disparity in these figures proves beyond a reasonable doubt that adulterated foodstuffs are many times more numerous in this country than in England, a condition for which, very clearly, we may thank our almost entire lack of legislation and prosecution.

It is true that the greater part of the overwhelming amount of adulteration practiced in this country is not deleterious to health, but a very considerable portion of it—such, for instance, as the *indiscriminate* use of antiseptics like formaldehyde and salicylic acid—is deleterious, as clinical experiment has demonstrated and as several of the eminent chemists testified before the senatorial committee. For the same reason that salicylic acid is useful in the preservation of food it is harmful in the digestion of food. In either case it prevents the breaking down or transformation of food into other substances, and digestion is this and nothing more. Salicylic acid hinders and prevents fermentation; it completely arrests the conversion of starch into

grape sugar by diastase and the pancreatic extracts; but for this very reason it is inimical to the process of digestion and can only prove harmful when present in foods in any appreciable amount. Its use as a preservative is absolutely prohibited in France, Austria, Italy, Spain, and in all of the South American states which have pure-food laws. Formaldehyde, another antiseptic which is now used quite largely, as the senatorial investigation has shown, not only inhibits digestion in quite the same degree as salicylic acid, but is an irritating and hardening agent which can scarcely avoid proving harmful to the mucous membrane of the stomach. Indeed, no one knows how much our national tendency to indigestion and to troubles of the alimentary canal, kidneys, and nervous system may be due to the ingestion of foods which have been preserved with salicylic acid, formaldehyde, and other powerful antiseptics.

Certain prominent chemists and physicians assert that small quantities of these preservatives are harmless, but this is in turn vehemently refuted by others who are equally prominent. It is quite probable, however, that *sufficiently* small percentages of some of them, particularly boric acid, are harmless. If so, to prevent the use of the substances in these amounts would be unnecessary; moreover, it would be unwise in some instances, for preservatives which are harmless have usually an indisputable power for good. But until these safe amounts have been determined it is unsafe to tolerate the use of the substances in any amounts (except, possibly, boric acid), particularly since they are used so carelessly and so ignorantly and since there is so much evidence of the harmfulness of their action. The determination of these safe percentages, as well as other moot points, might very properly be undertaken by the Government. The president of the board of agriculture in England has recently taken a step which might well be taken in this country. He has appointed a "committee on food preservatives." This committee of experts is charged with the duty of carrying on an exhaustive and determinative series of experiments to ascertain to what extent the wholesomeness of food is in any way affected by the use of preservatives, and whether the use of small amounts of these can be safely admitted. The experiments will, of course, include the administration of preserved products to living beings in order to determine their effect upon health and digestion.

It is to be admitted, however, as I have already said, that so far as health is concerned the great majority of adulteration is not harmful. But where it is not harmful to the consumer's health it is to his pocket-book. Currant jelly made from apple cores and olive oil made from cotton seed are perhaps no more productive of systemic disturbance than the articles for which they are dishonestly substituted, but they are deleterious to the purse of the poor man who pays for and thinks he is getting the pure articles.

It cannot, therefore, be gainsaid that a national pure-food law and the creation of a national department charged with its enforcement have become imperatively necessary. It may be urged against a national pure-food law that it would be limited in its scope; that it could only regulate interstate traffic in adulterated and misbranded products. But it is just this and no more that is required of a national pure-food law; without this, indeed, the State laws are practically worthless. For a State law, however perfect, can control the conditions within its own jurisdiction only. It cannot reach the unscrupulous manufacturer of another State who sends his products across the border. And because a manufacturer cannot be prosecuted for the infractions which he commits in another State than his own, he is enabled to send broadcast his adulterated and counterfeit foodstuffs so long as he takes care that none of them stay in the State in which they are manufactured and sold. The States in which the products are distributed to the consumer are thus compelled either to let the evil go on unchecked or else to arrest and punish their own citizens for frauds which are perpetrated in another jurisdiction.

Of course a national law alone cannot control adulteration. Unless each State has its own law, the manufacturer can continue to practice adulteration within the State where his business is conducted. The national law cannot reach him until he sends his products across the border. State laws, then, are also necessary. But there are cheerful indications that these will be secured before many years in the States where there are none at present. The National Pure Food and Drug Congress, which was organized in 1898 in Washington, D. C., is preparing to recommend for adoption by the several Legislatures a uniform law after the manner in which the National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform Legislation has recommended and secured the passage of a uniform negotiable instruments law in several important States within the last two years. But meanwhile several States, gratifying to say, are themselves taking the matter up without waiting to be asked, as was shown at the outset of this article.

This National Pure Food and Drug Congress has considered also the question of a national law. Indeed, this was its primary purpose. At

its first meeting, held during the March of 1898, it sanctioned the Brosius pure-food bill, then before Congress, after recommending and securing several amendments to that measure. The bill failed of passage in 1898, mainly because of the absorbing interest of the war-revenue bill and other measures of paramount importance. It was reintroduced in the last Congress and would probably have been made law except that, like the previous year, the closing weeks of this session afforded too little time even for consideration of national and international matters of great import. Congress evidently realized the importance of the pure-food question, however, for its upper house appointed the committee herein mentioned to investigate food products and to report its findings at the next session.

This committee is thoroughly convinced of the great necessity of a national law, and will probably recommend the passage of one by the present Congress. It is not my purpose to discuss in detail what this law should be nor how the department charged with its execution should be organized. These things can safely be left to those who have them now under consideration and who have had experience which prepares them properly for the task. But in a general way it may be said that a national law should at least be made to cover these four points:

1. Make absolutely prohibitory the use of antiseptics, preservatives, and adulterants which are deleterious to health, or in case some of these are harmless in small quantities, specify the maximum percentages which may be allowed of them.

2. Make necessary the honest and proper branding of all counterfeited and sophisticated products which are not deleterious to health, so that the man who wants and pays for pure olive oil and pure butter shall not be given cotton-seed oil and oleomargarine instead, and the man who wants the substitutes can buy them intentionally and not be deluded into paying for pure products which he does not get.

3. Make provisions for the frequent examination of products and the effective punishment of manufacturers and dealers who violate the prohibitions and requirements.

4. Make impossible the acts of foreign manufacturers who export to the United States inferior, adulterated, and misbranded foods which they are forbidden by law to sell in their own countries.

THE ECONOMICS OF THE KLONDIKE.

BY JACK LONDON.

NOW that the rush to the northland Eldorado is a thing of the past, one may contemplate with sober vision its promises and their fulfillment. Who has profited? Who has lost? How much gold has been taken out of the ground? How much has gone into it? And finally, what will be the ultimate outcome of this great shifting of energy, this intense concentration of capital and labor upon one of the hitherto unexploited portions of the earth's surface?

In 1897, between the middle of July and the first of September, fully 25,000 argonauts attempted to enter the Yukon country. Of these the great majority failed, being turned back at the head of the Lynn Canal by the obstacles of the Chilcoot and White Passes, and at St. Michaels by the early advent of winter and the consequent closing of navigation on the Yukon. The spring of 1898 found 100,000 more on the various trails leading to the Klondike, chief among which were Skaguay and Dyea, the Stickeen route, beginning at Fort Wrangell, the "all-Canadian" route via Edmonton, and the all-water route by way of Bering Sea. To all of these had been iterated and reiterated the warning of the old-timers: Don't dream of venturing north with less than $600. The more the better. One thousand dollars will be none too much.

A few bold spirits were not to be deterred by the fact that they did not possess the required amount, but in the main $600 was, if anything, under the average sum buckled about each pilgrim's waist. But taking $600 as a fair estimate of individual expense, for 125,000 men it makes an outlay of $75,000,000. Now, it is unimportant whether all or none of them reached the goal—these $75,000,000 were expended in the attempt. The railroads, the ocean transportation companies, and the outfitting cities of Puget Sound received probably $35,000,000; the remainder was dropped on the trail. The majority of those who succeeded in getting through had barely the $10 necessary for a miner's license; a few were able to pay the $15 required for the recording of the first claim they staked; many were penniless.

Since the transportation and outfitting com-



"GOLD-ROCKING" ON SKOOKUM HILL.

panies certainly profited, the question arises: Did the Yukon district return to the gold-seekers the equivalent of what they spent in getting there? This may be decided by a brief review of the gold discoveries which have been made. In the fall of 1896 the first news of MacCormack's strike went down the Yukon and across the border to the established Alaskan mining camps of Forty Mile and Circle City. A stampede resulted and the Eldorado, Bonanza, and Hunker Creeks were staked. That winter the news crept out to "salt water" and civilization. But no excitement was created, no rush precipitated. The world proper took no notice of it.

In the summer of 1897 a stampede from the three creeks mentioned went over the divide back of Eldorado and staked Dominion Creek, a tributary of the Indian River. At this very moment the first gold shipments were reaching the Pacific coast and the first seeds of the gold rush being sown by the newspapers. During this period and the early fall Sulphur, Bear, and Gold Run Creeks were being staked in a desultory fashion—as of course were many others which have since proved worthless. Regardless of glowing reports and the ubiquitous "wildcats," and with the exception of a very small number of bench claims, there have been no more paying creeks discovered in the Klondike. And this must be noted and emphasized: All the paying creeks above named were located before the people arrived who were hurrying in from the outside.

It is thus clearly demonstrated that those who participated in the fall rush of 1897 and in the spring rush of 1898 were shut out from the only creeks which would even pay expenses. But, the stay-at-home at once exclaims, were there not other ways of playing even? How about the benches and the "lays"?

Let the "benches" be first considered. A bench claim is a hillside claim as distinguished from a creek claim. The Skookum bench strike was made prior to the influx from the outside, and subsequent to it came the discovery of the French Hill and Gold Hill benches, situated between Skookum and Eldorado. These last two are the only strikes in which the newcomers could have taken part. But at this point two factors arise limiting their participation. In the first place, not more than a score of French Hill and Gold Hill bench claims are rich, and not one will turn out more than $100,000. In the second place, these benches were right in the heart of the old workings, where the old-timers were on the ground, not five minutes' walk away. If the newcomers succeeded in possessing one claim out of each twenty staked they did well; and since not one claim in twenty developed pay dirt, the amount of dust taken out by the newcomers is practically *nil*.

Now as to the "lays." In the winter of 1896 the lay men did well. But at that time conditions were entirely different from those of the following winter. The importance of the Klondike strike was not appreciated, the value of the



RETURNING MINERS WAITING FOR A STEAMER AT ST. MICHAELS.

gold in the gravel problematical, grub was scarce, and the demand greatly in excess of the labor supply. Under these circumstances it was easy for men to obtain profitable lays. But in 1897 these favorable conditions had disappeared. The owners knew the true worth of their holdings, grub was plentiful, and the labor market stocked. Now, no mine owner was silly enough to let a lay to a man which would clear that man $50,000, when he (the mine owner) could work that same man on wages the same length of time for $2,000. However, many newcomers, with an ignorance really pathetic, took such lays as were offered, used their own tools and "grub," worked hard all winter, and at the wash-up found they would have been better off had they idled in their cabins. It is a fact that hundreds of lay men on the various creeks refused to put their winter's dumps through the sluices. It is thus evident that the Yukon district returned no equivalent to the gold-seekers who expended $75,000,000.

It is an old miner's maxim that two dollars go into the ground for each dollar that comes out. This the Klondike has not failed to exemplify, and a startling balance-sheet may be struck between the cost of effort and the value of the reward. On the one side legitimate effort alone must be considered; on the other the actual gold taken from the earth.



FORT SELKIRK, ONE DAY'S JOURNEY FROM DAWSON.

Scores of new transportation and trading companies, formed during the excitement with an enterprise only equaled by their ignorance, lost in wrecked river and ocean-going craft and in collapse several millions of dollars. The men in the country before the rush—the mine owners, middlemen, and prospectors—between their expenses and their labor form an important item, as do also the expenditures of the Canadian and American governments. But disregarding these items and many minor ones, the result will still be sufficiently striking. Consider only the 125,000 gold-seekers, each of whom on an average, in getting or in trying to get into the Klondike, spent a year of his life. In view of the hardship and the severity of their toil, $4 per day per man would indeed be a cheap purchase of their labor. One and all, they would refuse in a civilized country to do the work they did do at such a price. And let them be granted 65 resting days in the twelvemonth. Still the effort expended by these 125,000 men in the course of the year is worth in the aggregate $150,000,000. To this let there be added the $75,000,000 they spent in cash, and we have for one side of the balance the sum of $225,000,000—or, roughly, $220,000,000.

The other side is easily constructed. The spring wash-up of 1898 was $8,000,000; of 1899, $14,000,000. In the absence of the full reports this latter is a liberal estimate, allowing an increment of $4,000,000 and considering the fact that no new discoveries have since been made. The figures stand for themselves: $220,000,000 have been spent in extracting $22,000,000 from the ground.

Such a result would seem pessimistic were not the ultimate result capable of a reasonable anticipation. While this sudden and immense application of energy has proved disastrous to those involved, it has been of inestimable benefit to the Yukon country, to those who will remain in it, and to those yet to come.

Perhaps more than all other causes combined the food shortage has been the greatest detriment in the development of that region. From the first explorer down to and including the winter of 1897 the land has been in a chronic state of famine. But a general shortage of supplies is now a thing of the past. About 1874 George Holt was the first white man to cross the coast range and the first man to penetrate the country avowedly in quest of gold. In 1880 Edward Bean headed a party of twenty-five from Sitka

to the Hootalinqua River, and from then on small parties of gold-seekers constantly filtered into the Yukon Valley. But these men had to depend wholly upon what provisions they could carry in with them by the most primitive methods. Consequently thorough prospecting was out of the question, for they were always forced back to the coast through lack of food. Then the Alaska Commercial Company, in addition to maintaining its trading posts scattered along the river, began to freight in provisions to sell to the miners who wished to winter in the country. But so many men remained that a food shortage was inevitable. With every steamer that was added more men hurried over the passes and wintered; and as a result demand always increased faster than supply. Every winter found the miners on the edge of famine, and every spring, with the promise of more steamers, more men rushed in.

But henceforth famine will be only a tradition in the land. The Klondike rush placed hundreds of steamers on the Yukon, opened the navigation of its upper reaches and the lakes, put tramways around the unnavigable Box Cañon and White Horse Rapids, and built a railroad from salt water at Skaguay across the White Pass to the head of steamboat traffic on Lake Bennett.

With the dwindling of population caused by the collapse of the rush, these transportation facilities will be, if anything, greater than the need of the country demands. The excessive profits will be cut down and only the best-equipped and most efficient companies remain in operation. Conditions will become normal and the Klondike just enter upon its true development. With the necessaries and luxuries of life cheap and plentiful, with the importation of the machinery which will cheapen many enterprises and render many others possible, with easy traveling and quick communication between it and the world and between its parts, the resources of the Yukon district will be opened up and developed in a steady, business-like way.



CATTLE FOR THE DAWSON MARKET ON THE DALTON TRAIL.

Living expenses being normal, a moderate wage will be possible. Nor will laborers fail to hasten there from the congested labor markets of the older countries. This, in turn, will permit the employment on a large scale of much of the world's restless capital now seeking investment. On the White River, eighty miles south of Dawson, great deposits of copper are to be found. Coal, so essential to the country's exploitation, has already been discovered at various places along the Yukon, from "MacCormack's Houses" above the Five Finger Rapids down to Rampart City and the Koyukuk in Alaska. There is small doubt that iron will eventually be unearthed, and with equal certainty the future gold-mining will be mainly in quartz.

As to the ephemeral placers, the outlook cannot be declared bad. It is fair to suppose that



LOOKING UP BONANZA CREEK FROM DISCOVERY CLAIM.
(Showing the flumes used for washing out the gold.)



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

MR. BRYCE ON THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR.

OF the six articles in the *North American Review* for December dealing with the South African war in its various aspects, the paper on the historical causes of the conflict contributed by the Rt. Hon. James Bryce will be generally accepted as the most authoritative.

After a survey of the relations between England and the Transvaal Boers from 1836 to the present day, in which he shows that England acted wholly without justification in annexing the Transvaal in 1877, Mr. Bryce declares that "under the convention of 1884, which fixes the relation of Britain and the South African Republic, the latter had the most complete control of its internal affairs, and Britain possessed no more right of interfering with those affairs than with the affairs of Belgium or Portugal."

The "suzerainty" claimed for Great Britain, if it existed at all, related solely to the power of making treaties, and did not touch any domestic matter.

"When, therefore, the British Government was appealed to by the Uitlander British subjects who lived in the Transvaal to secure a redress of their grievances, her title to address the Boer Government and demand redress depended primarily upon the terms of the convention of 1884, any violation of which she was entitled to complain of; and, secondly, upon the general right which every state possesses to interpose on behalf of its subjects when they are being ill-treated in any foreign country. Under these circumstances it might have been expected that the questions which would have arisen before Britain went to war for the sake of her subjects living in the Transvaal would be these two:

"First, were the grievances of her subjects so serious, was the behavior of the Transvaal Government when asked for redress so defiant or so evasive, as to contribute a proper *casus belli*?

"Secondly, assuming that the grievances (which were real, but in my opinion not so serious as has been frequently alleged) and the behavior of the Transvaal did amount to a *casus belli*, was it wise for Britain, considering the state of feeling in South Africa and the mischief to be expected from causing permanent disaffection among the Dutch population, and considering also the high probability that the existing system of government in the Transvaal would soon, through the action of natural causes, break down and disappear—was it wise for her to declare and prosecute war at this particular moment?

THE REAL CAUSE OF THE WAR.

"Strange to say, neither of these two questions ever in fact arose. That which caused the war was the discussion of another matter altogether, which was admittedly not a grievance for the redress of which Britain had any right to interfere, and which, therefore, could not possibly amount to a *casus belli*. This matter was the length of time which should elapse before the new immigrants into the Transvaal could be admitted to citizenship, a matter which was entirely within the discretion of the Transvaal legislature. The Boers made concessions, but the British Government held these concessions insufficient. In the course of this discussion the British ministry used language which led the Transvaal people to believe that they were determined to force the Boer Government to comply with their demands; and they followed up their dispatches by sending troops from England to South Africa. They justified this action by pointing out (and the event has shown this to have been the fact) that the British garrison in South Africa was insufficient to defend the colonies. But the Boers very naturally felt that if they remained quiet till the British forces had been raised to a strength they could not hope to resist, they would lose the only military advantage they possessed. Accordingly, when they knew that the reserves were being called out in England and that an army corps was to be sent to South Africa, they declared war, having been for some time previously convinced, rightly or wrongly, that the British Government had resolved to coerce them. They were in a sore strait, and they took the course which must have been expected from them, and indeed the only course which brave men who were not going to make any further concessions could have taken.

"And thus the question whether the grievances amounted to a *casus belli* never came up at all. The only *casus belli* has been the conduct of the two contending parties during a negotiation the professed subject of which was in no sense a *casus belli*. Some have explained this by saying that a conflict was in fact inevitable, and that the conduct of the two parties is really, therefore, a minor affair. Others hold that a conflict might have been and ought to have been avoided, and that a more skillful and tactful di-

plomacy would either have averted it or have at any rate so managed things that, when it came, it came after showing that a just cause for war, according to the usage of civilized states, did in fact exist. No one, however, denies that the war, in which England will, of course, prevail, is a terrible calamity for South Africa and will permanently imbitter the relations of Dutch and English there. To some of us it appears a calamity for England also, since it is likely to alienate, perhaps for generations to come, the bulk of the white population in one of her most important self-governing colonies. It may, indeed, possibly mean for her the ultimate loss of South Africa."

A MINING EXPERT ON SOUTH AFRICAN GOLD.

IN a recent report Mr. John Hays Hammond, the American engineer, has placed the value of the gold produced by the Witwatersrand in 1898 at £15,141,376, being 25½ per cent. of the world's total product. Had there been no interruption to mining operations during 1899, Mr. Hammond estimates the value of the year's output at more than £20,000,000, or $100,000,000. This output comes almost entirely from a territory lying within a radius of twenty-five miles from Johannesburg, while 79 per cent. of it is derived from the "central section," stretching from Lanslaagte Estate to Knight's, a distance of about twelve miles.

In the *Engineering Magazine* for January Mr. Charles B. Going summarizes Mr. Hammond's views relative to the bearings of the present war on the mines and mining conditions, as obtained from him in an interview.

WHAT WILL BE DONE WITH THE MINES?

The question now of pressing importance is, What will be the immediate fate of the mines and the vast mechanical installations clustered about them? Will they be destroyed? Will they be seized and worked in the interest of the Boers, or will they merely lie idle and suffer only the damage due to neglect? While Mr. Hammond does not feel able to give a direct answer to these questions, he does not believe that any destruction of equipmen.tcould receive official sanction.

"In the first place, contrary to the generally received opinion, the ownership of the mines is vested chiefly on the continent. British interests are a minority only, the majority of the shares being held in Germany, France, and other European countries. Even should the Geneva convention exercise but little influence upon the conduct of the Transvaal officials, the large neu tral interests involved would deter the heads of the government from directing or sanctioning any wrecking of property or plant. Whether or not the recklessness and lawlessness of the lower elements of the community could be restrained is quite another matter. The young Boer partisans are hardly likely to weigh very accurately proportionate ownership or the after consequences of wreaking their bitter feelings on the nearest tangible object identified, in their minds, with their enemies. No great confidence can be felt, therefore, that the heads of the government will be able, even if desirous, to protect the mine property from injury. Wholesale destruction is not to be apprehended, but more or less vandalism of a desultory character. For the present it is likely, as reported, that some of the mines (though only a very few) will be worked for the gold needed by the Boer Government, and that such work will be so prosecuted as to yield the largest immediate returns. Only the richest ore is likely to be taken, regardless of good practice or ultimate economy; no attention to maintenance or repairs can be expected; it will, beyond question, be a systematic robbing of the mine and driving of the machinery to death. The removal from the country of most of the competent mining engineers would prevent any general continuance of the industry, but there are enough miners in the Transvaal to carry on, upon a very small scale, such work of this character as is likely to be attempted.

"As for the negiected mines, they will not suffer as seriously as would be the case in some other localities or in different formations. Water is not so troublesome as in many other mining districts, and the mines could be pumped out and operations resumed without inordinate expense. In this regard the Witwatersrand is much more favorably conditioned than Kimberley, where the character of the mining and of the formation involves grave damage from the filling up of the mines with water.

"The mines themselves—the underground workings—are, of course, not much subject to damage. They will remain, and will be reopened and eventually worked under a better order of things than any that has heretofore existed."

The large capital expenditures connected with the mining of the deeper areas require the exploitation of large blocks of claims, and lead Mr. Hammond to recommend the employment of large batteries and shafts, and of mining plant of commensurate capacity. The improved conditions anticipated in the future will more than compensate for the delay in starting operations on the deeper levels.

The actual saving that may be expected on the institution of a liberal and progressive govern-

ment is estimated by Mr. Hammond at about $1.50 per ton of gold mined.

NEEDED REFORMS.

The mining economies which Mr. Hammond hopes to see effected by the removal of the present abuses will be in connection with the cheapening of costs of mining supplies, especially of dynamite; "with the suppression of the traffic in stolen amalgam and gold; and with the improvement in the labor situation, with which is closely connected the regulation of the traffic in liquor, which, as it has been illicitly carried on, has been a costly item to the mining companies and the cause, as well, of many accidents. The excessive cost of dynamite has been the subject of much discussion and requires no additional comment. . . . Less prominence, however, has been given to the other points mentioned. The traffic in stolen amalgam and gold is extensively carried on, and its suppression by the coöperation of an honest and competent government would result in a large addition to the revenues of the mining companies. It can exist only through the neglect and indifference of the government officials. Proper regulations, properly put into effect, with a suitable detective force, would make it as impossible to rob the gold-mining companies as it is to rob the diamond mines in Kimberley. Any honest owner can readily account for property of this character, and no other should be able to find a market. In a great majority of instances the mere possession of such materials is *prima facie* evidence of theft; but so long as the law is lax, the police indifferent and dishonest, and the market free, the companies must suffer.

"The labor question has been of the greatest importance in the district. The inadequate supply of native labor has necessitated the undue use of machine drills in mining, resulting in the breaking of a large proportion of barren ground and in the creation of waste in the ore—which has, in turn, caused a diminution in value. During the continuance of the conditions heretofore existing no improvement in the labor situation could be expected.

"The trouble is not in any lack of suitable material. Black labor is to be had in any quantity, under proper conditions, and the best of it is excellent in quality. The trouble is that conditions have been so bad that none but the lowest element of the blacks would submit to working in the Transvaal, and even these hardly at all except under pressure of absolute necessity. Abuse, extortion, enforced labor on the farms without pay, trickery, robbery of their accumulated earnings by Boers—these have not attracted the negro to the South African Republic."

THE WOMEN OF KRÜGER'S PEOPLE.

THERE is an excellent brief sketch in the January *Ladies' Home Journal* of "The Boer Girl of South Africa," by Mr. Howard C. Hillegas, who describes the Boer girl as a daughter of solitude. No civilized girl on earth lives in such a lonely, dreary, uninteresting country as that in which this patriotic child of the African plain is content to live. Her nearest girl neighbor lives ten or twenty miles away, and she thinks herself favored if she is able to see another girl once a month. Mr. Hillegas calls her an ideal picture of womanhood—tall, muscular, and ruddy-cheeked, ready with rifle in hand to aid her father and brothers in their wars.

THE LIFE OF A NOMAD.

"The Boers are a pastoral people, content with the simple life which their occupation carries with it. Their country is the veldt, a plain far less interesting and beautiful than the great Western prairies of America, and unrelieved by natural growths of trees or shrubs except along the water-courses. In the midst of this palling, brain-fagging veldt the Boer girl has her home, and there she is compelled to spend her life in solitude. Her grandmother was accustomed to the finest luxuries and entertainments that Holland, France, and Germany afforded in those days—for the Boers come of high lineage—but the Boer girl of to-day has seen nothing grander than the simple attributes of life on a South African plain, and consequently she pines for nothing better.

"One-half of the Boer girl's life is spent in following the flocks and herds of her father. At the beginning of the dry season the Boer farmer locks his cottage door and becomes a nomad. He places some of his household effects in several large wagons not unlike the old-time 'prairie schooners,' and, accompanied by his wife and children, leads his sheep and cattle in pursuit of water and pasture.

"When the wet season begins and the nomads have returned to their homes the Boer girl is busily engaged in her studies, which, if the father of the family has realized sufficient money from the sale of cattle and sheep, are directed by a governess brought from one of the towns. If a governess is not provided the mother teaches the daughter, and if the finances of the family are too low to allow the purchase of the necessary supplies, then the Boer girl has the family Bible as her only text-book. The Boers are as familiar with the Bible as they are with the rifle, and a mother would consider her daughter's education neglected if she were not equally familiar with both."

THE AMUSEMENTS OF THE BOER GIRL.

Although there is no opportunity for routs on the veldt, the Boer girl is taught to dance by her governess, and she gets the out-of-door exercise of horseback-riding and getting to town once or twice a year to attend communion. She is supposed to attain the matrimonial age about sixteen, and some lusty Boer youth who has seen her on these half-yearly visits to town will begin to ride miles across the plain to visit her.

A WEDDING IN SOUTH AFRICA.

The Boer homestead becomes a most animated scene.

"Scores of ox-teams are scattered about the surrounding plain; negro servants are bustling around; guns are fired promiscuously whenever more guests arrive; dancing, feasting, and coffee-drinking are carried on in the cottage and everywhere around it; impromptu shooting-matches and horse-races are decided, and joy is unconfined.

"After the ceremony and after all the guests have kissed the bride and bridegroom the wedding feast is eaten, and then the guests spend the night in dancing and playing games. It would be a breach of etiquette for any of the guests to depart before the dawn, and, indeed, the fiddler's music and the sound made by the dancing feet are often heard until noon of the following day. The wedding tour consists of a journey to the cottage and farm which the husband has secured from his father and which adjoins the old homestead.

"One of the oldest Boer customs requires that as soon as a son secures a wife he shall receive an inheritance of land from his father, and usually this consists of a part of the old homestead. After all the sons in the family have married and received their inheritances of land, it is assumed that the aged parents have earned their reward, and consequently they are provided and cared for by their children, who entertain them for specified lengths of time each year.

THE GIRLS OF THE WEALTHIER FAMILIES.

"The Boer girl who lives in the cities and towns naturally has more opportunities than her country cousin, and she differs little from the American town girl except that she uses the Dutch dialect called 'Taal.' There are many wealthy Boers in the Transvaal, and the daughters of these can speak several languages fluently. They are sent to the ladies'-seminaries in Cape Town and Grahamstown, can speak French, German, and English, and can play golf or tennis, as well as the piano or violin. They spend their vacations at the seashore at Durban, on the Indian Ocean, or perhaps can be found touring in the European capitals.

MADAME KRÜGER.

"The Boer girls, whether city or country bred, find in Madame Krüger, the wife of the president, one of their sex whom they adore. Their love for the 'first lady of the land' is almost akin to worship, and her picture is to be seen in a prominent position in every Boer homestead in



MADAME KRÜGER.

the country. Madame Krüger is a typical Boer woman of the older generation. Her ancestors were well-born Hollanders who went to South Africa two hundred years ago to escape religious persecutions. Although the president is several times a millionaire, Madame Krüger directs all the details of the management of the Executive Mansion in Pretoria, the capital city of the republic. She has several native servants to do the laborious part of the household work, but she insists upon preparing and serving her husband's meals and brewing his coffee without assistance from any one.

"The Executive Mansion is the rendezvous of every Boer who visits Pretoria, and Madame Krüger shares equally with her husband the pleasant task of entertaining all who come in a manner which is highly gratifying to admirers of democratic institutions. There are no social distinctions among the Boers, and the country

girl who has never been outside the boundaries of her father's farm is on the same social plane at the Executive Mansion as the city girl who has just returned from a Parisian ladies' seminary; nor does the city girl pretend to be socially superior. Vanity is not a characteristic of the Boer girl; on the contrary, it is her love of others that gives her a high place in the opinions of those who have seen her."

THE BOER AS A CAMPAIGNER.

A MILITARY writer in *Blackwood's* for December gives some personal observations, made in the former British campaign against the Boers, which throw light on the methods of Boer warfare followed in the present war.



BOER CAVALRY SCOUTS.

This writer, while not an admirer of the Boer, concedes to him the quality of pluck.

"He is fighting for all he holds most dear, and he is fighting on his own dunghill. He is as hard as nuts, has lived in the open air in the most healthy of climates, and can subsist on very little. Strips of meat dried in the sun are very portable and do him very well: if a cup of coffee is thrown in he has luxuries. He can ride well, and his pony is his own, who knows him and the country as well as his master. He has a knowledge of the country and the ability to ride over it as our hunting men have at home.

"Marksmanship, mobility, little or no baggage or commissariat train, an excellent country for an out-of-door life—all good military conditions out of which he has evolved his tactics. These are never to move in masses, to spread over the country like a fan, always to make for a bowlder, which is easy, as there are so many of them, to jump off his pony when he gets to it and take shelter behind it: he has a rest for his rifle and can pick off men or horses or cattle at his leisure. His pony has stuffed his nose into the grass behind the bowlder and is taking his dinner, and is in no hurry about it: when his master is ready to find another bowlder he will be ready to take him to it, where he knows that he can finish his meal."

GUNNERY TERMS EXPLAINED.

MAJOR-GENERAL MAURICE contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* for December an article on "Terms Used in Modern Gunnery," in which he gives a very lucid explanation of the technical expressions of the artillerist. At any other time General Maurice's article would belong to the specialist class and would call for no special note, but in view of the bewildering technicalities with which our war dispatches are sometimes filled, it will be useful to quote his explanations for the benefit of the amateur strategist.

THE USE OF FUSES.

The distinction between the "time fuse" and the "percussion fuse" is one not always understood. The percussion fuse is mechanically contrived so that when the shell strikes any object sufficiently hard to stop it the shell is exploded by the impact. Its use therefore presents no difficulty to half-trained gunners. The "time fuse" is a much more delicate instrument:

"It contains a composition which burns at a fixed rate, and the amount of composition placed ready to burn being indicated by figures outside the case of the fuse, it is possible for the gunner, who 'sets' the fuse before it is put into the gun, so to regulate it that it will explode the shell after it has traveled for a certain number of seconds or parts of seconds through the air. Tables have by careful experiment been made out which enable us to know how many parts of seconds a fuse should be adjusted to burn in order that when the shell is fired at a given range the fuse should cause it to explode at a given height over the enemy and a given distance in front of him."

SHELLS AND SHRAPNEL.

"Plugged shell" is the modern substitute for the "solid shot" of the past. When it is desirable in preference to bursting a shell to make it strike as a solid whole, then the bursting composition is extracted, and in order that the shell may be even and heavy as before, it is plugged with some material that would not burst it.

Shrapnel in its original form was invented by a General Shrapnel, who during the Peninsular War invented a form in which it was applicable to the spherical shells then used:

"Before Shrapnel invented his shell, which was loaded with a number of large bullets, intended to scatter among the troops at which it was aimed, the 'common' form of shell was charged with a mass of powder, and it had two effects. It broke up into such large fragments that these, retaining most of the velocity remaining in the shell at the moment it opened, and having a certain fresh force imparted to them by the charge within the shell, struck with great effect against any solid bodies with which they came in contact and materially damaged them. These shells were thus very destructive to the carriages on which guns are carried in the field, and even, if they hit it fairly, damaging, though not so often, to the gun itself. They were particularly effective against buildings, earthworks, and against walls in which it was desirable to make a hole or breach. They also, from the large quantity of powder within them, produced a body of flame which tended to create violent conflagrations wherever they struck any bodies easily ignited."

Shrapnel as adapted to the modern rifled gun has been used to fill ammunition wagons since the Franco-German War, which proved that artillery fire is three times more effective when directed against considerable bodies of cavalry and infantry than it is against artillery.

"Again, the experience of 1870 led to the conclusion that, when properly used, artillery silenced other artillery more easily by directing its fire upon the gunners than when it was aimed against the guns or wagons."

"CANISTER."

For defensive purposes every battery has a limited quantity of case, formerly known as canister. Of case General Maurice says:

"This was and is a great defensive weapon of artillery. The case or canister very soon breaks to pieces after leaving the muzzle of the gun, scattering the bullets it contains in a great cone of dispersion. It is thus only effective for short ranges against bodies of either cavalry or infantry actually closing on to the guns to attack them; but at these close ranges it literally sweeps over all the ground in front of the guns, and is appalling in its destructive power."

CREUSOT AND KRUPP.

A "Creusot gun" is a gun constructed by the great French firm of Schneider & Co. and made at their works either at Creusot or Havre. Krupp guns are all made at Essen. The Maxim-Nordenfelt is an Anglo-Swedish invention which essentially consists in its simplest form in firing mechanically the ordinary infantry bullet at a very rapid rate. The howitzer at the beginning



A "CREUSOT" GUN USED BY THE BOERS.

of the century was used to fire shells of large diameter, for at that time guns were chiefly used for firing solid shot. In order to reduce the weight of the howitzer it was made very short, and as this would have caused a great recoil, it was only fired at high angles, and the shells dropped on the enemy from above. When shells were adopted for ordinary field guns howitzers gradually dropped out of use. But their use revived with the invention of high explosives, such as lyddite and melenite, the main constituent of which is picric acid.

THE BOER AND THE BRITISH RIFLE.

General Maurice concludes his article with a description of the Lee-Enfield rifle used by the British troops. The Lee-Enfield differs from the Boer Mauser in the following respect:

"While the Lee-Enfield has a magazine which is inserted underneath the body through the trigger-guard and secured by a catch, and is pro-

vided with what is called a 'cut-off' to prevent the cartridges from rising, so that it can be used as a simple breech-loader for single firing till the magazine, which contains ten cartridges, is ordered to be used, the Mauser, on the other hand, has a magazine which, though not absolutely fixed, is only intended to be taken off for cleaning. It does not need a 'cut-off' to use as a single loader. The magazine contains five cartridges, but whereas the cartridges for the Lee-Enfield have, when the magazine is charged, to be each put in separately, the magazine of the Mauser is filled at once by placing against the face of the magazine a set of five cartridges held in a clip which falls off when the cartridges have been inserted in the magazine. Thus if each weapon were at the beginning of a fight empty, the Mauser would permit of more rapid fire because it could be loaded five cartridges at a time, while the Lee-Enfield would take, cartridge by cartridge, as long to load as a single breech-loader. On the other hand, the times when a very rapid discharge of fire is desirable are not numerous, and for these the Lee-Enfield has ten cartridges ready against the Mauser's five."

ENGLISH AND DUTCH IN THE PAST.

AN extremely interesting, but possibly for Englishmen somewhat painful, article is contributed by Mrs. John Richard Green, the widow of the historian, to the *Nineteenth Century* under this heading. She brings out very clearly the fact that for nearly two hundred years England treated Holland very much as she is treating the Dutch of to-day. The analogy, indeed, between the disputes of the seventeenth century and those of the nineteenth century in another continent is very close. Even under James I. the Dutch complained of piratical raids made by Englishmen upon the Dutch possessions. To end the Dutch difficulty James conceived the scheme of annexing Holland and proposing to divide her territory between France and England. "Let them leave off," he said, "this vainglorious thirsting for the title of a free state, which no people are worthy of that cannot stand by themselves."

CROMWELL'S DESIGNS ON HOLLAND.

After James had passed and Charles had had his head cut off, the same idea of annexing Holland fascinated Oliver Cromwell:

"The English had neither considered nor appreciated the stubborn love of country and of liberty that marked the new Holland. They held to the good old idea of a petty people of shopkeepers. Covetous plans of spoliation revived. Cromwell, with his head full of schemes of incorporation for Scotland, Ireland, and Holland, proposed to the Dutch in 1651 to form a more intimate and strict alliance. *Faciamus eos in unam gentem*, explained Thurloe, deep in the confidence of Cromwell. The spirit of the burghers rose at the hint of danger to their national freedom. 'The alliance proposed,' answered De Witt, 'between a small state like ours and a great state like England would mean our political extinction.' With insolent and threatening words the ambassador returned to England and the navigation act was passed."

THE QUESTION OF PARAMOUNTCY THEN.

Then, having failed to persuade the Dutch to unite with them, the English began war with the avowed object of incorporating Holland into their monarchy. Dunkirk was the Delagoa Bay of the situation, and from this Cromwell hoped to shut Holland in, destroy her outlet to the sea, and break her commerce and her means of life. It is extremely curious to find false prophecies made in the seventeenth century very like those which have now driven the English people into war with the Boers. For it was commonly believed that the Dutch, eager to fill their pockets, would not fight. Cromwell thought that the war would be short and the Hollanders easy to settle down with in peace afterward. All the grievances of fifty years were then gathered by the English in one black list. The Dutch sent embassies to treat in the very spirit of Krüger: "All, all, all except the freedom of my country." The Parliament of England answered that "the extraordinary preparation of men-of-war and the instructions given to your commanders at sea give much cause to believe that the Lord States-General have an intention by force to usurp the known rights of England in the seas. Wherefore Parliament must endeavor to secure reparation for the wrong already suffered and security that the like be not attempted for the future."

EVEN CROMWELL BAFFLED.

So for the paramountcy of the seas the English commonwealth went to war with Holland. Mrs. Green says:

"After a year's war the English proposed to extinguish the provinces as an independent state and absorb Holland into England 'as one people and commonwealth.' No alliance, they explained, but 'the making of two sovereign states one, under one supreme power.' High in spirit and courage, they believed themselves strong enough to enforce any demands they chose to make. But they had not reckoned with the temper of Holland. The Dutch answer was given in the battle

of the Texel. 'O Lord,' prayed the elder Tromp, struck down by a bullet, 'be merciful to me and thy poor people.' The fleet had lost over 6,000 men, but not a man in the States would hear of the extinction of his country. They refused Cromwell's next proposal for an alliance to divide the world with them, the whole of Asia for the Dutch, all America to the English, with Protestant missionaries following their conquering fleets to spread the faith of Jesus. They refused to desert their Danish allies at his bidding, and prepared to fight to the last man. This two years' war had exhausted their treasure and injured their commerce more than the eighty years of maritime war with Spain; loaded the people with an unexampled debt, closed their fisheries, and interrupted trade till 3,000 houses lay vacant in Amsterdam alone. They were unshaken by calamity. The fury of their patriotism bore down the English; and in view of Dutch doggedness Cromwell had to be content with a secret engagement, for the weakening of the Dutch state, that the house of Orange should forever be excluded from power. The English, De Witt said, as Dutch ministers might have said a hundred years later, were always interfering in their domestic concerns, a policy it was extremely difficult to parry."

A TALE OF HEROISM AGAINST PERFIDY.

The rest of the story must be read in Mrs. Green's own pages. It is very unpleasant, but of fascinating and tragic interest. Mrs. Green says that England's throwing over the Dutch and adopting the cause of the Belgians was regarded by the Dutch with horror and by Europe with astonishment.

"England was under special pledges to Holland, and a change in mood entitles a state, no more than a man, to cast aside deliberate undertakings and solemn pledges. In any case, the Dutch have never forgotten or forgiven this amazing interposition. It rankles in their hearts as a perfidious betrayal. Without accepting Alison's lurid condemnation of Britain's conduct at the time, every impartial observer must feel how difficult it is to make the British policies of 1795, 1815, and 1830 consistent on any principle save that of British interests alone. For these interests the Dutch people were thrown aside at one time and the Dutch sovereign at another."

The whole history of Holland as told by Mrs. Green is one terrible tale of indomitable heroism against overwhelming forces—not against England alone, but against England united to France. It shows of what stuff the men are whom England is now fighting in South Africa. They are true sons of William III., the Orangeman.

RUSSIAN RAILROAD POLICY IN ASIA.

MR. R. E. C. LONG, who spent the first half of 1899 in Russia, contributes to the *Fortnightly Review* an interesting and well-informed article upon Russian railroad policy in Asia. His paper is an attempt to enable us for the time being to look at the problem through Russian eyes. The ideal of an Indo-European railroad running for the greater part through Russian territory, which would bring the Afghan border within a week's journey of Moscow, has been postponed for a time, but it has not been abandoned.

RUSSIAN ANGLOPHOBIA.

The question whether or not the realization of the scheme can be held over depends upon what Russia thinks England will do. Mr. Long says:

"The fundamental fact of the situation is that of late years Russia has been much more frightened of English schemes than England has ever been of Russian."

Of all the dreads afflicting Russian alarmists, there is none more ineradicable than the belief that England is about to extend her Indian railroad through Beluchistan to the Persian Gulf, with the ultimate aim of joining Germany in Asia Minor, connecting the Indo European system, and thus cutting Russia off forever from Indian Asia. This would irretrievably ruin the commercial prospects of the central Asian route. "As the ultimate preservation for Russia of a port on the Persian Gulf has become an informal Monroe doctrine in St. Petersburg, the northwestward extension of the Indian railroad system by England, which is believed to be imminent, would be regarded in Russian circles as an irretrievable injury to their influence in Asia." To avert this disaster, Russia can either acquire a Persian port at once and connect it by rail with the Caspian or she can construct a central Asian railroad, connecting the Trans-Caspian system with central railroads of Russia. The difficulties in the way of the Persian scheme seem to Mr. Long to be almost insuperable.

SCHEME OF A CENTRAL ASIAN RAILROAD.

Therefore it is probable that the Russians will carry out the alternative scheme of connecting the central Asian railroads with the central European system. Prince Hilkoff, when visiting Tashkend, declared that this would be accomplished in the near future. To carry it out would, however, involve an expenditure of 90,000,000 rubles. Many broad rivers would have to be bridged, and there would be considerable difficulty in supplying some parts of the line with water. From the easternmost point of the

Ryazan-Ural Railway to Tcherdjui, on the frontier of Bokhara, is a distance of 1,710 versts. Of this only 275 have been surveyed. If the line were constructed, a short branch line of 16 versts would connect the main trunk railroad with Khiva. If the railroad were made it could not be worked on less than an annual loss of $2,000,000 a year, although there might be some saving in the cost of the transport of troops. Hence from a financial point of view the line would not pay, but the scheme, if carried out, would exert a tremendous influence on the balance of power of Asia, and bring the Russian armies within striking distance of the Persian, Afghan, and Chinese frontiers a few days after leaving Moscow. There is also to be borne in mind that the construction of a railroad through at present waste land could lead to great developments, for the natural resources of the territory are great. Mr. Long thinks "it is not unreasonable to expect that the direct connection of European Russia with her central Asian connections would result in such an increase of trade as would wipe out any initial deficit and yield a considerable result."

The Russians, however, imagine that if the central railroad were constructed it would enable them to gain a market for their manufactures in India, but they are haunted by a dread that it might have the opposite effect of enabling English goods to capture the central Asian markets through India. Mr. Long himself rather favors the construction of the line on the ground that it would facilitate inter-communication between Russians and English, and so remove gross prejudices and misrepresentations employed by panic-mongers on both sides to damage the interests they profess to defend.

A WORTHLESS KING.

IT is greatly to the honor of the royal caste that among the reigning sovereigns of Europe only one can be regarded as utterly unworthy of the high position bestowed on him by destiny. M. Malet contributes to the *Revue de Paris* a terrible indictment of King Milan of Servia.

Unfortunately Milan succeeded, at the early age of fourteen, a really admirable ruler, Prince Michael Obrenowitz, who was massacred on June 10, 1868. "That day," says the writer significantly, "stands out in Servian history as a day doubly cursed, for on it an admirable sovereign disappeared and Servia fell into the hands of Milan." During the first four years of his reign Servia was very fairly ruled by a regency, and three years after he was prince regnant in fact as well as in name. Milan married, at the age of twenty, the beautiful young Russian girl, Natalie Kechko, to whom his horrible conduct has been one of the reasons why King Milan is execrated by all those familiar with his life.

Seven years after his marriage Milan changed his title from prince to that of king; six years later he himself pronounced the dissolution of his marriage, and in the March of 1889 he abdicated in favor of his only child, who was proclaimed king under the title of Alexander I. Within two years, however, he was back again in Servia, penniless and determined to make himself as disagreeable as possible. The regency gave him $200,000 and he went away, promising never to return again. A year later he extracted from the unfortunate Servian Government $400,000, renouncing in exchange all his rights, not only as a member of the royal house, but also those of a Servian subject. In 1893 he patched up some kind of reconciliation with his long-suffering wife; a year later he broke his word and came back to Belgrade. He then managed to persuade his son to allow him to assume the title of king-father. During the last two years he has become commander-in-chief of the Servian army.

M. Malet in one paragraph shows to what straits a continental ruler can reduce a kingdom. During the comparatively short space of time King Milan actually governed Servia—that is, seventeen years—four hundred miles of railroad and the annexation of the Nisch district is all that he can point to in the way of achievement. He was defeated in each of the three wars he undertook, and he created a public debt of $51,000,000, and this although before his accession Servia was without this modern incubus.

Curiously enough, King Milan is a very intelligent man; he possesses wonderful powers of assimilation; he is interested in all that concerns the progress of modern science; and his manners are considered to be quite charming. No one knows Servia better than he does himself, but he is one of those men who are completely lacking in moral sense; his conscience has never been educated. Although his conduct to his wife has been outrageous, he has again and again made attempts to pave the way to a reconciliation, but while actually writing her the most touching letters imploring her forgiveness, he was inditing others in which he gave a fearful account of her supposed unkindness and cruelty.

At one time the present King Alexander seemed to have a splendid and happy future opening before him. He had been very carefully brought up by his mother, he was popular with his people, and all would have gone well had not his father immediately considered how he could exploit this situation to his own benefit.

He put himself into communication with the young King and surrounded him with creatures of his own, who assured their youthful sovereign that his crown was in peril and that a strong radical party wished to upset the dynasty. King Milan then arrived in Servia and became the guide, philosopher, and friend of the unfortunate lad, who was thus unable to distinguish his friends from his worst foes. The very existence of King Milan is, M. Malet thinks, at this present moment a danger for the whole of Europe.

ITALIANS IN THE UNITED STATES.

AN article in *La Rassegna Nazionale*, of Florence, in the nature of a memorial to the Italian hierarchy in behalf of Italian Catholics in the United States, contains interesting facts regarding recent Italian immigration to this country. These facts are important, as it is generally known that Italy is at present sending more immigrants to the United States than is any other foreign country.

"Of 229,000 immigrants who landed during the year ending June 30, 1898, 58,606, or one-fourth, were from Italy; of 230,000 who landed during the year ending June 30, 1897, 59,431, or one-fourth, were from Italy; of the 343,267 who landed during the year ending June 30, 1896, one-fifth, or 68,060, were from Italy; of 280,000 who landed during the year ending June 30, 1895, 36,637 were from Italy; during the year ending June 30, 1894, 43,966 Italians landed out of a total immigration of 314,000. For several years the Italian immigration has exceeded the Irish and German immigration combined."

The growth of Italian immigration to the United States appears from the census statistics, which recorded only 1,870 Italian immigrants in the decade 1840–50, as against 307,095 in 1880–90.

In the whole United States there were in 1890 more than 250,000 persons of Italian parentage. As more Italian immigrants have landed in the last eight years (according to the immigration statistics) than there were Italians in the country in 1890, the writer of this article assumes that the figures for that year have now been tripled, and that at present there are in the United States 750,000 persons of Italian parentage. One-third of this number, he estimates, are in New York City. 30,000 in Chicago, 35,000 in New Orleans, 100,000 in Pennsylvania, and 25,000 in Massachusetts.

LACK OF RELIGIOUS TUTELAGE.

The writer's main object is to appeal to the Catholic authorities of Italy to come to the aid of their countrymen and coreligionists in America in the supply of religious privileges. He shows that Italian Catholics are very inadequately provided with Italian priests. In New York City there is one Italian priest to 12,000 Catholic Italians; in Chicago, one Italian priest to 7,500 Catholic Italians; and in New Orleans, one Italian priest to 30,000 Catholic Italians.

The writer points out this peculiarity as to Italian immigration:

"While all other immigrants—German, Irish, and Polish—bring their priests with them, the Italian priest does not go with his people. He loves too well the sunny skies of his fair Italy to venture into the missionary field. Thus it happens that while there are to-day probably 750,000 Italians living in the United States, there are not 60 Italian priests laboring among them. At the same time there are more priests than can find occupation in Italy, and so many churches there that the Italian Government sometimes uses them for secular purposes. One Italian priest to every 370 Italians in Italy; one Italian priest to every 12,000 Italians in the United States—that tells the story!"

THE SUGAR SITUATION IN THE TROPICS.

IN the *Political Science Quarterly* for December Prof John F. Crowell describes the present condition of the cane-sugar industry in tropical countries, with special reference to the European competition of the beet-root product and to the probable effect of the recent acquisition of cane-growing countries by the United States.

After reviewing the situation in detail in these various countries the writer considers the part which the United States and her tropical dependencies are now playing, or are about to play, in the development of the cane industry. This, he admits, is problematic. It will probably be some time before we shall be independent of foreign supply in meeting domestic consumption. The total product of sugar in 1899 from all the sources under the control of the United States, including cane, beet, maple, and sorghum, is barely 1,000,000 tons, while the country consumes 2,000,000 tons annually.

CANE SUGAR IN OUR NEW DEPENDENCIES.

Production in Hawaii has been stimulated under reciprocity arrangements for the past twenty years, but all her natural cane lands are now under cultivation and probably the limit of production has been reached. The annual product is now about 250,000 tons.

The Philippines annually produce about 250,000 tons.

"Except in the island of Negros, where European mills exist, the methods of cultivation and of manufacture are antiquated and therefore expensive; and estates are small, not more than a dozen producing 1,000 tons of sugar per year, though this is the daily product of many Cuban factories. 'The labor problem,' says Professor Worcester, 'is a most serious one,' because of the ease with which the natives of the tropics can get a livelihood and the consequent difficulty of holding native labor to its contract. Importation of Chinese labor into the Philippines is fraught with social dangers."

In Cuba, the year before the insurrection broke out, the product amounted to more than 1,000,000 tons. Last year it was 300,000 tons.

"In Porto Rico the sugar industry is nearer dead than alive; for though it still yields annually about 50,000 tons, its methods are as backward as those of most of the older cane-sugar islands in the West Indies. The land system, the labor system, and the transport facilities, as well as the methods of manufacture, are such as, under modern conditions of competition, must bankrupt any industry. The redeeming feature is the presence of the thousands of small peasant holdings, occupied by households accustomed to cultivate canes.

THE LAND QUESTION IN CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

"In Porto Rico, as in Cuba, the sugar industry must be reorganized on a sounder economic basis if it ever regains its former prestige. And no basis of development will be solid which does not encourage native proprietorship in land as a corner-stone. The wage system cannot develop the normal degree of economic resources in tropical labor. It may extinguish native labor, as has been done largely in Hawaii in the interest of the sugar industry, by importing migratory hordes from whatever country is willing to lend its subjects to such exploitation. But we are pledged to administer these islands in the interest of their native peoples. Of all the difficulties in the way of Cuban restoration the land problem and the labor problem are the most formidable. We must never forget that the collapse of Spanish dominion was equally the collapse of an old economic *régime*, tottering on the verge of dissolution from exhaustion of capital and of labor, even at the time of its output of over 1,000,000 tons of sugar a year (1894–95).

"There is as yet no adequate economic analysis of Cuban conditions, furnishing facts from which one could deduce the outlines of a rational sugar policy for the United States to follow. Yet the writers of books on Cuba give glimpses of conditions that clip the wings of prophecy, and force upon us the conclusion that nothing short of a thoroughgoing transformation of the relations of the people to the land will suffice to develop the sugar resources of Cuba, under the quickening impulse of capital. If, therefore, the United States proposes to administer her new territory in the interest of the native population, it will be necessary to place the permanent welfare of all economic interests above the speedy exploitation of land and labor in the interest of immediate returns upon capital. This policy will take time, policy, and faith as the elements required to relay aright the economic foundations of agricultural Cuba. For Cuba is far above all else agricultural, not commercial or industrial; and to agriculture must we look for the key to the tropical sugar situation, here as elsewhere.

INTENSIVE METHODS OF CULTIVATION.

"As things stand now, Germany continues to control the world's sugar situation—not because of any superiority over the tropics in machinery, nor because of the advantage of fiscal bounties over tropical resources of the soil, but because all the natural advantages under the prevailing slipshod methods of tropical cane cultivation are more than counterbalanced by the scientific methods of European agriculture applied to beet-farming. When the tropics apply to the cultivation of canes (which covers half of the cost of producing sugar) the same degree of scientific attention that has been given to the methods of manufacturing the canes into sugar, then—and not until then—need the beet-sugar interests of Europe look to their laurels under the present conditions of the trade."

THE SPEAKER'S INFLUENCE ON LEGISLATION.

IN the *Arena* for December Mr. Ewing Cockrell describes the influence of the Speaker of the House of Representatives on legislation as exerted in five distinct ways, which are explained under the following heads:

"1. *Committees.*—The greatest political power of the Speaker comes from his control over the committees of the House. The power of the committees lies in the fact that substantially every bill or resolution of a legislative character introduced in the House must be referred to some committee, and before it can be passed it must be reported from such committee back to the House. If the committee chooses it may not report the bill, and in such a case the measure is practically dead. If it does report the bill and reports it favorably, the bill is placed on the calendar and has about one chance in three

of being passed—as the House can pass in a Congress only about one-third of the bills reported to it by its committees. The power of the Speaker through these agencies lies in the fact that in making up the committees he can appoint whom he chooses. He can appoint men whom he knows to have the same views on certain subjects that he has or who he knows will follow his instructions. Thus at the very beginning of a Congress he may determine a large part of the legislation to be enacted.

"2. *Recognition.*—Of the bills reported favorably by the committees it is the Speaker who decides which shall pass. He does this by recognizing members to call up for consideration only such bills as he has approved; and the right of the Speaker to recognize whom he will is absolute. Not only is recognition the Speaker's most absolute power, but it is also the most continuous. It is exerted throughout the whole of the Congress and determines nearly all the private and minor legislation. The use of the power of recognition, so far as it affects legislation, is modified by party stress and the personal wishes of the Speaker. In party fights the power of the Speaker through recognition rises immensely, for the minority is absolutely helpless even to avail itself of the rules unless it can first get the recognition of the Speaker. The use of the right of recognition varies chiefly with his personal will. As a rule, the Speaker follows the wishes of his party in the House; yet, at the same time, if he chose he might easily defeat the will of the majority through his control of recognition.

"3. *Order of Business.*—Besides the control over the order of business, which the Speaker exerts through the committees and through recognition, he now, through the convenient and effective Committee on Rules, exercises a general control over all the important business of the whole Congress.

"4. *Decisions from the Chair.*—The Speaker decides all questions of parliamentary procedure. In general he exercises but little influence over legislation through this power, yet there are times when this same power affects legislation in the highest degree. For instance, in the Fifty-first Congress Mr. Reed by his parliamentary ruling determined a very large part of the legislation of that Congress.

"5. *Personal Influence.*—The Speaker exercises a great deal of influence as a man. Of course, the amount of legislation thus determined depends entirely upon the Speaker's personal ability. This direct influence is exerted chiefly in controlling the reports of committees and in deciding with other leaders what measures shall be passed during the Congress."

THE EVOLUTION OF THE TRUST.

IN the *Forum* for December Prof. Edward W. Bemis writes on "The Trust Problem—Its Real Nature," offering the following explanation of the development in modern business life of the tendency to capitalistic combination:

"Until recently the tendency of competition to reduce prices has been met by the ability of the competitors, in considerable degree, to turn to other lines of business, or at least to reduce the capital in an old business as soon as it becomes so overdone as to be unprofitable. A diminution of output would then restore prices to such a level as to yield the normal profits that similar capital, risk, and ability could command elsewhere. This competition, albeit with many jars and jolts, has been the general characteristic of business for this entire century, and has given the economist his well-known ideas of its general beneficent character.

"Owing, however, to the growing specialization and costliness of the machinery necessary in almost any line of manufacturing, it is not as easy as formerly to withdraw capital from an unprofitable business. Even the modern corporate form of organization lends itself less readily to dissolution or to withdrawal of a portion of the share of capital than did the partnership. The result of all this can be most quickly seen by an illustration.

DESTRUCTIVE COMPETITION—ITS RESULTS.

"Let us assume that in a certain industry the product, under normal conditions, sells for one dollar, and that of this amount twenty-five cents is necessary to cover taxes, insurance, depreciation, and interest on the normal profits of such business. This twenty-five cents may be considered as fixed charges, since they are charges that the plant is expected to bear even when idle. The other seventy five cents of the price, which would include wages, fuel, raw material, etc., and which would stop if the factory should shut down, may be called operating expenses. Now let us suppose that this line of business is in the hands of half a dozen or more powerful corporations. Some one of these—or its more or less reckless manager—thinking to take away business from its rivals and ultimately to make a good showing for the stockholders, may reduce the price to ninety-five cents, although no better able to do so than its rivals. Unless the latter immediately follow suit they will lose much of their business; but they will not thereby reduce their fixed charges. They will therefore argue that if they reduce their price to ninety-five cents they will lose five cents on every article they sell, but that if they do not so reduce they will lose

twenty-five cents on every article they do not sell within the limits of their normal productive capacity. The process is likely to be repeated by another cut to ninety cents in some factory. This series of reductions may continue until the article is sold for seventy-five cents. In fact, the price may be reduced a little below that, rather than permit the skilled-labor force to be broken up and the connection with the markets to be lost.

"This kind of competition is recognized by the general public as different from the older forms, since to it are applied the terms 'war of rates,' 'cut-throat competition,' etc. The manufacturers in such a situation recognize that it is a case of 'trust or bust.' There is an almost irresistible tendency, apart from the economies of combination, for a union of such warring interests to take place. At least a partial confirmation of this theory of the matter may be found in the generally admitted fact that competing natural monopolies, such as gas works, railroads, etc., go through precisely this experience, and that, after doing business for hardly enough to pay operating expenses, are forced to combine. Professor Hadley well brought this out years ago in his 'Railway Transportation.' It is beginning to be seen that the same reason which makes railroads combine to a ruinous point—the difficulty of withdrawing capital once embarked in any enterprise—applies with more and more force to all kinds of business. Another fact confirming the above theory is the generally demoralized, unprofitable condition of a business with abnormally low prices which very often precedes the formation of a trust."

THE DEMAND FOR THE REFERENDUM.

IN the *Arena* for December Prof. John R. Commons shows that many of the arguments commonly advanced for and against direct legislation really miss the true aim of the reform. He says:

"Direct legislation is not strictly a means of legislation: it is a check on legislation. But none the less it is the most urgent proposition before the American public. While theoretically basing our Government on the will of the people, we have been experimenting for a century to find a machine that will run itself independently of the people. But government is not merely a nice set of checks and balances, of vetoes and counter-vetoes. It is the outcome of the whole life of the people. The executive veto and the judiciary veto are irritating substitutes for the people's veto. Yet too much must not be expected from direct legislation. It is to be classed not with legislation proper, but with such devices as the secret ballot, the official primary, the corrupt practices acts. Its urgency is not as a means of bringing in reforms, but as a cure for bribery, spoils, and corruption. These are indeed the pressing evils of American politics. No reform movement, no citizens' union or the like, can fully cope with them. A despotism, a monarchy, an oligarchy, or an aristocracy can be corrupt and survive, for it depends upon the army. A republic or a democracy depends on mutual confidence; and if bribery and corruption shatter this confidence, it is of all forms of government the most despicable. It can survive only by the army and the police.

THE ONLY CURE FOR BRIBERY.

"The referendum is the only complete and specific cure for bribery. It alone goes to the source of corruption. It deprives lawmakers and executives of their monopoly of legislation. The secret ballot, official primaries, civil-service reform, proportional representation—these are all needful, but they leave to a few the monopoly of government and the power to sell at a monopoly price. If they should all be adopted, the immense interests dependent on legislation will pay not less, but more money, and will control them. Even public ownership of public enterprises, although it ultimately destroys the largest corruption fund, must first be brought about by legislation; and this will be the signal for exorbitant prices and a carnival of bribery more profligate than any hitherto seen.

"With the referendum the use of money, whether honest or corrupt, will be almost abolished. The main objection to the referendum is that it defeats sound reforms as well as 'jobs,' because the people lack confidence in their lawmakers. In the long run it is too conservative. It will disappoint the radicals who now advocate it. The conservatives who now oppose it will be its hottest champions. The initiative will give but little help in this direction. Other reforms, particularly proportional representation, are needed for progressive legislation. But that is in the future. Bribery and corruption must first be settled."

Professor Commons calls upon all citizens, conservative and radical, to unite on the referendum —"the only death-blow to bribery." After that is secured the tenure of the political machine and the "boss"—with no corporation funds at their disposal—will be brief indeed. We may then begin to agitate for positive reforms. These may be accomplished through the initiative—though Professor Commons admits that this institution is not an unqualified success in Switzerland.

THE CRIME OF AMERICAN PARENTS.

IN the January *Ladies' Home Journal* Mr. Edward W. Bok, its editor, expresses himself very forcibly on the question of the American method of schooling children under fifteen years of age. He begins by asking if we realize that at the last school term 16,000 children between eight and fourteen were taken out of the public schools because their nervous systems were wracked "and their minds were incapable of going on any further in the infernal cramming system which exists to-day in our schools." Mr. Bok thinks that no child should go to school before he is seven years of age, and he reminds us that in the succeeding seven years the rapid brain growth begins to slacken. "It was planned by nature that between the years of seven and fifteen the child should have rest. But what really happens to the average child at the age of seven? Is he given this period of rest? Verily, no! He enters the school-room and becomes a victim of long hours of confinement—the first mental application, mind you, that the child has ever known." The unfortunate is compelled to spend hours in study at night, although warning has been again and again sounded that "the fresh mental interest of the child of seven cannot be advantageously held for more than eight consecutive minutes at a time on any one subject. It has been proved that the health of the child between seven and ten cannot stand more than thirty-five minutes of study during any single twenty-four hours."

BUSINESS MEN AND CHILDREN.

"We are constantly admonishing business men that they must not continue their work after nightfall. Physicians warn men of this, and wives echo the warning to their husbands. 'Burning the candle at both ends' has killed almost as many men as liquor, say investigators. No one will dispute the assertion. Men of common sense know that night work after a day of business is vitally injurious. Yet in their own homes is presented almost every evening the sublime picture of children poring from one to two hours over lessons for the next day. And while the lesson is to the child exactly what the business problem is to the man, we warn men of mature growth against the very thing which we allow children to do. What a superbly consistent people we are, to be sure!"

MR. BOK'S QUOTUM OF EDUCATION.

"What to demand of our school system is the first step, and if a child, when he reaches the age of fifteen, has been taught to read aloud pleasantly and intelligently, to write legibly, to spell correctly, to express himself clearly in a letter, to count accurately, to use his mind himself, to use his fingers so that his hands will be a help to him in earning his living—that is all that should be expected of the child, either boy or girl. That is enough for seven years' learning in the great formative period of life.

"There must be shorter hours and an absolute abolishment of home study before the age of fifteen, and even after fifteen no evening study beyond an hour.

"Our children must no longer be the prey of ignorant and conscienceless politicians who either control our boards of education or are a part of them—men absolutely unfitted for such work as that intrusted to them.

"How to get these reforms for their children is the next step. They can come only through closer coöperation of home and school. The teacher and parent must come closer together. That is the root of the present evil. One means toward this end lies in frequent conferences between mother and teacher, as is the practice in one school of which I know. The teacher must better know the timber she is seasoning."

GRANT ALLEN.

ONE of the best articles in the *Fortnightly* for December is Mr. Le Gallienne's appreciation of Mr. Grant Allen, which is based on an intimate friendship of several years. Grant Allen died at a moment when there was most need of him, and at the saddest time for himself. He lived to see not the fulfillment of the civilized ideals for which he had battled so long, but the overwhelming triumph of all the reactionary ideals which he hated and feared.

A DISAPPOINTED IDEALIST.

"A democrat, he lived to see democracy once more in the dust and every form of tyranny and snobbery firmer than ever in their seats: a clear-seer and far-thinker, he lived to see every form of superstition reënthroned and England seriously dreaming once more of Rome; a citizen of the world, he lived to see race hatred revived with mediæval fury and narrow patriotism once more dividing nations; a man of peace, he lived to see civil freedom threatened by a militarism insolent and cruel as the world has ever known."

For, first of all things, he was an idealist and a man of faith:

"He thought of the world as composed of human beings amenable to reason, ductible to ideals. Being himself a nature singularly adaptable to the influence of right thinking, he im-

agined that the rest of the world was like him. Of course he knew, but in his Utopianism he hardly remembered sufficiently that the influence of ideas on humanity is exceedingly slow and laborious and indeed superficial. To see the right was with him to do it. To see the wrong in his own nature was at least to struggle to set it right. His, in fact, was a nature singularly conformable to moral ideas. But average human nature is not. It sees the right, but its warm life-forces compel it to do the wrong. As Grant Allen once wittily said of a friend, humanity 'longs to be a saint, but it loves to be a sinner.'

"Grant Allen had a really enviable faculty of provoking the world to throw stones. He was like a great speaker. However unruly his audience, he had but to raise a finger of audacious phrase, and, whatever happened afterward, he was *heard*."

HIS FAVORITE MOTTO.

He was one of those men whom Providence creates for the especial purpose of differing on every conceivable subject with their fellow-countrymen. And the measure of his hopes was the measure of his disappointment.

Personally he was one of the most delightful and best of men.

"His favorite motto was 'Self-development is greater than self-sacrifice;' but when one remembers the deliberate way in which he sacrificed all his literary and scientific dreams to the domestic ideal and preached constantly in his stories that a man with a wife and children must be husband or father first and artist afterward, one realized that when his abstract theories were put to the human test, Grant Allen considered first the human need in the situation and last of all his theories. Moralist as he was, he was far indeed from being a *doctrinaire*. Grant Allen was too great to tell lies, even white lies. He never realized the necessity. He could compromise to the extent of doing brilliantly the work he hated, but more he would not do. No necessity, no torture, would have persuaded him to deny or suppress the truth that was in him. He might write of something else, but whenever he was obliged to write of vital matters, whatever it cost him he told the truth.

HIS CAPACITY FOR WORK.

As a literary workman Grant Allen was probably unequaled. His capacity for working under disadvantages was superhuman. He could concentrate his mind like Gladstone, and no interruption or disturbance would set him off his theme.

"In the mere mechanical—but how important! —matter of 'turning out' his 'copy' he was quite amazing. Any one who has stayed in his house will remember how his typewriter could be heard as you crossed the hall, punctually beginning to click at 9 every morning, and if you eavesdropped you would seldom note a pause in its rapid clicking. I don't think that Grant Allen can even once in his life have 'stopped for a word.' Interruptions made no difference. I have known him stop in the middle of a sentence at the sound of the luncheon gong, and then, having found on repairing to the dining-room that the gong was a little premature, go back to his typewriter and finish the sentence and begin another."

AS POPULARIZER OF SCIENCE.

Of his services in popularizing science Mr. Le Gallienne says:

"He made science clear, he made it simple, he made it interesting, he made it positively romantic; for he was more even than an apt exponent, he was no little of a poet, and those who see nothing in such books as his 'Evolutionist at Large,' 'Colin Clout's Calendar,' 'Vignettes from Nature,' 'Moorland Idylls,' but clear statement and luminous exposition, do scant justice to a rare literary gift exercising itself not merely with expository skill, but also artistically, upon difficult new material. More than clearness of statement was needed. Some of the dullest of writers are as clear as they are dry. Grant Allen's individual clearness came of imagination, as his charm came of an illustrative fancy, and a gay humanity applied to subjects usually immured from traffic with such frivolous qualities. Thus he not only made knowledge delightful to know, but delightful to read. In short, he gave us something like literary equivalents of his subjects."

AS TALKER.

He was one of those instructive writers who write best when they think least about it. It was not natural for him to work self-consciously. His style was colloquial and effective. Of his conversation Mr. Le Gallienne says:

"What an amazing talker he was! No pose talk, but talk easily born of his knowledge and love of the subject that at the moment occupied him. No more brilliant generalizer can ever have lived. Present him with the most unexpected fact or the most complex set of circumstances (as it might seem to you), and he had his theory in an instant, and was making it as clear, by the aid of his marvelously copious and exact vocabulary, as though he had drawn it on the air. And bright things by the score all the way!

His gift of stating the most intricate matter impromptu in a few simple words, and of pouring out the most varied and profound learning as though he were telling a fairy tale, can hardly have been equaled and certainly can never have been surpassed."

"COMPLETELY EMANCIPATED."

Grant Allen suffered much from critics, or would have suffered much if he had attached to them the importance they attribute to themselves. He was fiercely attacked for his opinions, but he never faltered or hesitated to speak his mind. The "Woman Who Did" announced an aggressive new rule. It was taken as a challenge, and the furious attacks which it provoked are the best measure of its success.

"He was the most completely 'emancipated' of any recent English mind expressing itself in literature. I never observed a trace of that succumbing to the inherited habits of thought and feeling which even the most 'advanced' thinkers have developed toward the close of life. He was entirely devoid of any form of 'superstition.' His reason was, to the last, master of the house of life. Perhaps he saw a little too clearly, for, as his most famous *protégée* writes:

"'They see not clearliest
Who see all things clear.'"

THE GAIN TO ROME FROM MODERN SCIENCE.

MR. W. H MALLOCK contributes an article to the November *Nineteenth Century* on "The Intellectual Future of Catholicism." He seems to speak of himself at the close as of "one who is not a Catholic." He mentions at the outset the contrasted crises of the human intellect, when Christian theology vanquished the secular thought of antiquity and when the secular science of modern times vanquished Christian theology. Mr. Mallock indulges in the word-play of giving as the watchwords of these two crises—of the first the far-famed cry of Julian, "Thou hast conquered, O Galilean!" of the second, "Thou hast conquered, O Galileo!" Seemingly a third crisis is at hand—the victory of evolution.

THE BASIS OF PROTESTANTISM ANNIHILATED.

Mr. Mallock has made a discovery which impresses him greatly, to the effect that the cosmic and historical sciences do not leave Protestantism a leg to stand upon. In his own words:

"Let me sum up in as few words as possible what science is tending to do in the directions that have just been indicated, firstly with regard to the Bible and secondly with regard to Christian doctrine. It tends to annihilate completely, in the eyes of every thinking man, the two great principles which are the foundation of what is called reformed Christianity. The first of these is the principle that the Bible contains in itself a clear indication of what Christian doctrine is, and is also its own warranty that everything which it says is true; the second is the principle that if any further guide is required, we shall find it in the beliefs and practices of Christ's earliest followers, the fundamental assumption of every school of Protestantism being that its own creed is that of the first Christians, given back to the light by the removal of the superstructures of Rome."

THE THREE WITNESSES.

Mr. Mallock calls in support of this pronouncement the testimony of "Protestant" witnesses so diverse as Canon Gore, Dean Farrar, and Professor Harnack. The scientific study of the story of the Old and New Testaments is admitted to reveal in both a mixture of truth and error; and the same scientific principles applied to the history of dogma show that "the content of orthodoxy was only very gradually arrived at by the orthodox."

THE REAL CHRISTIAN ORGANISM.

Mr. Mallock makes use of these conclusions in Chapter III., of which the captions are sufficient indication: "Emergence of the necessity for some living infallible authority. Rome alone can make any successful claim to this. Absurdity of all Protestant theories."

Chapter IV. represents "the Roman Church conceived of as a serio-spiritual organism developed in accordance with the laws of all organic evolution." Mr. Mallock appeals to Mr. Herbert Spencer's philosophy and proceeds:

"We have before us in the Church of Rome an organism whose history corresponds in the minutest way with the process of organic evolution as modern science reveals it to us, while Protestantism will appear as an organism so low down in the scale that its evolution seems hardly to have yet begun. It is almost structureless; it is made up of heterogeneous yet similar parts; it has no single brain by which the whole body is guided, and new sects are born from it by the simple process of fission. The Church of Rome, on the contrary, by a process of continuous growth has developed, through the differentiation of parts, an increasingly conscious unity and a single organ of thought and historic memory, constantly able to explain and to restate doctrine and to attest, as though from personal experience, the facts of its earliest history."

PLATO, ARISTOTLE, SPENCER.

Mr. Mallock thus states his philosophic forecast:

"Just as Rome has absorbed Platonism in the fourth gospel and in the doctrine of the Trinity, and has absorbed Aristotelianism in the doctrine of Christ's real presence in the eucharist, so we may naturally expect that it will, in its theory of its own nature, absorb some day the main ideas of that evolutionary philosophy which many people imagine destined to accomplish its destruction; and may find in the Spencerian philosophy a basis for its own authority, like that with which Aristotle supplied it for its doctrine of transubstantiation."

The personal attitude of the writer is apparently given in these closing words:

"If one who is not a Catholic may venture to give such an opinion, it appears to me that, the credibility of any religion being granted, the intellectual prospects of Christianity were never more reassuring than they are as now represented by the prospects of the Church of Rome, under the pressure of historical criticism and the philosophy of organic evolution."

CELESTIAL FIREWORKS.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for December contains a fascinating paper, by Prince Kropotkin, on "Meteorites and Comets," which does a great deal to compensate us for the failure of the celestial fireworks expected in November last.

METEORITES AS MESSENGERS.

Meteorites, as Humboldt pointed out, are the only medium with which the inhabitants of the earth are brought into direct intercourse with interplanetary and, since their relationship to comets has been established, with interstellar space. They have, therefore, a fascination for the ordinary man's mind which nothing terrestrial can have.

"Clusters of those little bodies out of which both meteorite swarms and comets are composed—perhaps vapors which suddenly pass from the gaseous state into the solid state, as Daubrée was inclined to think—circulate in the infinite space in which the sun, with all the planets attached to it, is moving. When such clusters meet our solar system in their wanderings they enter it in virtue of the attraction exercised upon them by the sun, and they describe around our luminary a parabolic curve which carries them away, after this short visit, back to the unfathomable interstellar regions. We take notice of them during this short passage, and as the cluster approaches the sun, and while it flies round it at a tremendous speed and becomes luminous in this part of its course, we catch a glimpse of it, either in the shape of a small nebulosity which is only visible through the telescope or under the aspect of an elegant tailed comet in which men see the announcement of coming misfortunes."

SHORT-DISTANCE AND LONG-DISTANCE METEORS.

These we may describe as long-distance meteorites. The short-distance meteorites are those forming a permanent part of the solar system, and are much more modest in their idea of space and time.

"The investigations which were made with a special ardor after 1833 had firmly established the fact that the tiny meteorites are grouped into rings of different density, which revolve round the sun, and some of which intersect or pass very close by the orbit of the earth."

The solar meteorites make up in speed, however, what they lack in endurance, for they move in space at a speed which is only attained by comets.

TWISTING THE LEONIDS' TAIL.

When a comet having wandered into our system is captured by solar attraction, it shows at once a tendency to segregate and split up into several comets or into rings of meteorites, which tend in turn to break up into groups, and such a process is even now taking place with the absentee leonids of November 15. Prince Kropotkin twists the leonids' tail with a vengeance and holds up to ridicule their efforts to overwhelm the earth. The largest meteorite that ever fell to earth weighed no more than eighteen tons, while the tenuity of comets is such that they might easily be carried in a sack.

"Our aërial surroundings and the extremely rarefied gases which undoubtedly spread far beyond what may be properly described as the earth's atmosphere are a far better protection of the earth than might have been imagined at first sight. As to the small meteorites, they certainly reach the earth in formidable numbers. It has been calculated that every year no fewer than 146,000,000,000 of them enter our atmosphere, where they continue to float in the shape of vapors or microscopical dust. But if all that dust were evenly distributed over the whole surface of the globe, it would take a hundred thousand years to raise that surface by one single inch."

NO DANGER FROM COMETS.

Though the earth has more than once passed through the tail of a comet, the chances of a collision with the head are extremely small, and if such a collision took place its effect upon the life

of our globe would hardly be noticed, while the passage of the earth through a swarm of Biela meteorites would make at most a slight change in the weather.

THE MORAL OF METEORS.

The average meteorite, from the time of its entry into our atmosphere, lives a short but brilliant life of a few seconds. Like those who look out for it on earth, it passes quickly into dust. It seems to differ from its human admirers only in its incapacity to do a little harm before it dies.

"Coming as it does from cosmical space and endowed with a tremendous velocity of about twenty-eight miles per second (to which the velocity of the earth itself must be added if our planet and the meteorite fly in opposite directions), its considerable kinetic energy is spent in compressing the gases which it meets as soon as it reaches the utmost limits of our atmosphere. The gases become incandescent and so much raise the temperature of the stone that the surface of an aërolith becomes glazed, while the tiny meteorite is entirely vaporized before it reaches the surface of the earth. Nothing but vapors added to our atmosphere or some cosmical dust, such as has been collected by Nordenskjöld on the virgin snows of Spitzbergen, remains after the most brilliant display of shooting stars."

HOW STANDARD TIME IS OBTAINED.

IN *Appleton's Popular Science Monthly* for December Mr. T. B. Willson describes the process used at the observatories for obtaining standard time.

The prevailing notion that the sun itself supplies the correct time is shown by Mr. Willson to be absurd, since "the sun—that is, a sun dial—is only correct on a few days in each year, and during the intervening times gets as far as a whole quarter hour fast or slow."

It is true that the variations in sun time are now accurately known, and it will doubtless occur to many readers that correct time might be obtained from the sun by making proper allowance, but here we encounter the difficulty of observing the sun's position with sufficient exactness. It is far more difficult to accurately locate the large disk of the sun than the single point made by a star, and it is for this reason that astronomers have come to depend almost wholly upon the stars for obtaining accurate time. Now as to the method:

"There are several hundred stars whose positions have been established with the greatest accuracy by the most careful observations at a number of the principal observatories of the world. If a star's exact position is known, it can readily be calculated when it will pass the meridian of any given place—that is, the instant it will cross a north-and-south line through the place. The data regarding these stars are all published in the nautical almanacs, which are got out by several different observatories for the use of navigators and all others who have uses for them. These stars are known as 'clock stars.'

ACCURACY IN CLOCKS.

"Every observatory is provided with at least one, or, better, several clocks that are very accurate indeed. Every appliance and precaution which science can suggest is resorted to to make these clocks accurate. The workmanship is, of course, very fine. What is known as the 'retaining click' prevents their losing a single beat while being wound. The small variations in the length of the pendulum which changes of temperature would cause are offset by compensation. The rise of the mercury in the pendulum bob, if the weather grows warmer, shortens the pendulum precisely as much as the expansion of its rod lengthens it, and conversely if it becomes colder. Such clocks, too, are set on stone piers built up from below the surface of the ground and wholly independent of the building itself. Often the clocks are made with air-tight cases, and sometimes are placed in tightly closed chambers, only to be entered when absolutely necessary. Some fine clocks even have appliances for offsetting barometric changes, but these affect such clocks less than other influences or imperfections which cannot be accounted for, and thus they are seldom provided against.

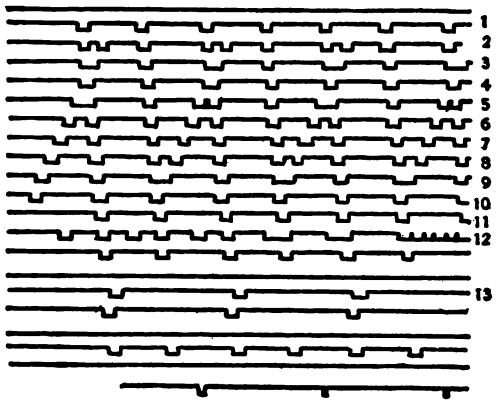
"The astronomer's principal clock—the one he uses in all his calculations—marks what is known as sidereal, not ordinary, time. The revolution of the earth in its orbit sets the sun back in its place in the heavens at the rate of about four minutes a day, or one whole day in a year, so that this clock, indicating star time, gains this amount and is only with ordinary clocks once a year. After it is once adjusted no attempt is made to regulate it exactly, as the astronomer would better calculate its differences than disturb its regulation, always provided its rate is very uniform and accurately known.

"One or more of the other clocks, however, are made to show ordinary time and corrected by observations taken every few days. It is from this clock that the standard time is sent out.

THE CHRONOGRAPH.

"It is possible to connect any of these clocks telegraphically with an instrument in the ob-

servatory known as a chronograph. It consists of a cylinder with a sheet of paper around it, on which rests a pen connected with the telegraphic instrument which follows the beats of the clock. The cylinder is turned slowly by clock-work, and the pen, carried slowly along by a screw, describes a spiral on the paper with jogs or teeth in it about a quarter of an inch apart, caused by the beats of the clock. In this way



A SHORT SECTION FROM THE PAPER BAND OF THE CHRONOGRAPH CYLINDER, SHOWING TRACINGS OF PEN CONNECTED WITH CLOCKS: 1, seconds of sidereal clock; 2, both sidereal and common clocks; 3-10, the tracings of the mean-time clock fall steadily behind the other; 11, sidereal only; 12, connected with observer's key. The extra teeth show when a star passed each of the five spider lines. At the extreme right is a "rattle," put in to show where the observation is on the cylinder.

the astronomer secures a visible record of the beating of his clock, or rather of the movements of his telegraphic recorder. Thus if he has another key on the same circuit with the clock connected with his chronograph recorder, and should touch it between the beats of his clock, it would put in an extra jog or tooth on his record, and it will show, what he could not have told in any other way, in just what part of the second he touched this key, whether in the first or last part of the second, and precisely how far from either end—that is, he can determine fractions of a second with great nicety."

OBSERVATIONS BY TRANSIT.

The astronomer, in fact, has such a key at the telescope which he uses to make his observations in taking time, so that when he wishes to record the precise instant at which anything takes place which comes within his view he has only to press the key in his hand and an extra tooth will be put into the clock's record, somewhere among the regular teeth representing clock-beats. Thus the instant of his observation will be recorded in the clock's time. Comparing this recorded time of the observation with the calculated time of the event observed as given in the almanacs, he can tell how nearly "right" the clock is.

In making observations on the "clock stars" the astronomer uses a rather small telescope, known as a transit. This is placed with the nicest accuracy on a north-and-south line. It can turn vertically, but cannot move sidewise out of its line.

Every possible precaution is taken to prevent error. For example, the astronomer watches a star as it is carried by the earth's rotation past five spider lines stretched across the "field" of his transit instrument; he presses his key—that is, makes a record—as the star crosses each line; he then takes the average of these five observations. In addition to this, he usually makes observations on at least four clock stars, giving him twenty observations to average up and determine by.

"Such observations are made every three or four evenings, and thus the clocks are not given time to get far out of the way. It is not usual for a good clock to show a variation of more than half a second. If the astronomer finds that his clock which is sending the time is running a fraction of a second slow, he goes to it and lays on the top of the pendulum bob a minute clipping of metal, which is equivalent to shortening the pendulum an infinitesimal amount. When he takes his next observation he discovers how his clock has been affected, and again treats it accordingly. Thus the time that is sent out automatically by the clock is kept always correct within a small fraction of a second. Those who receive the time sometimes arrange electro-magnets near the pendulums of their clocks, which act with the beats of the observatory clocks, and their attraction is enough to hold or accelerate the pendulums as needed to make them synchronize with the observatory clock."

THE "HOTTEST HEAT."

IN the January *McClure's* Mr. Sturgis B. Rand gives an interesting account of his visit to the electrical furnaces at Niagara Falls, which he calls the hottest furnaces in the world. Here clay is melted to form aluminum, a metal as precious a few years ago as gold. Lime and carbon, the most infusible of all the elements, are joined by intense heat in the curious new compound, calcium carbide, a bit of which dropped into water decomposes almost explosively, producing the new illuminating gas, acetylene. Pure phosphorus and phosphates are made in large quantities, and also carborundum—gem crystals as hard as a diamond and as beautiful

as a ruby. An extensive plant is building for the manufacture of graphite, such as is used in lead-pencils, electrical appliances, etc. Graphite has been mined from the earth for thousands of years. It is pure carbon, first cousin to the diamond. Ten years ago the suggestion of its manufacture would have seemed absolutely ridiculous to the scientific world. But the new heat intensities which electricity has made possible produce graphite as easily as Mr. Armour's establishment produces soap. Mr. Rand says that the Niagara Falls furnaces have not yet been able to produce diamonds in quantities, "but one day they may be shipped in peck boxes from these great furnaces. This is no mere dream. The commercial manufacture of diamonds has already had the serious consideration of level-headed, far-seeing business men, and it may be accounted a distinct probability."

THE SOURCE OF THE HEAT.

The Niagara furnaces use in the performance of these wonders a heat of more than 6,500° F. They have been able to get this intense energy in manufacturing forms through the "chaining of Niagara."

"A thousand horse-power from the mighty falls is conveyed as electricity over a copper wire, changed into heat and light between the tips of carbon electrodes, and there works its wonders. In principle the electrical furnace is identical with the electric light. It is scarcely twenty years since the first electrical furnaces of real practical utility were constructed; but if the electrical furnaces to-day in operation at Niagara Falls alone were combined into one, they would, as one scientist speculates, make a glow so bright that it could be seen distinctly from the moon—a hint for the astronomers who are seeking methods for communicating with the inhabitants of Mars. One furnace has been built in which an amount of heat energy equivalent to 700 horse-power is produced in an arc cavity not larger than an ordinary water tumbler."

A THERMOMETER FOR 6,000°.

"The furnace has a provoking way of burning up all of the thermometers and heat-measuring devices which are applied to it. A number of years ago a clever German, named Segar, invented a series of little cones composed of various infusible earths like clay and feldspar. He so fashioned them that one in the series would melt at 1,620° F., another at 1,800°, and so on up. If the cones are placed in a pottery kiln, the potter can tell just what degree of temperature he has reached by the melting of the cones one after another. But in Mr. Acheson's electrical furnaces all the cones would burn up and disappear in two minutes. The method employed for, in some measure, coming at the heat of the electrical furnace is this: a thin filament of platinum is heated red-hot—1,800° F.—by a certain current of electricity. A delicate thermometer is set three feet away and the reading is taken. Then, by a stronger current, the filament is made white-hot—3,400° F.—and the thermometer moved away until it reads the same as it read before. Two points in the distance-scale are thus obtained as a basis of calculation. The thermometer is then tried by an electrical furnace. To be kept at the same marking it must be placed much further away than in either of the other instances. A simple computation of the comparative distances with relation to the two well-ascertained temperatures gives approximately, at least, the temperature of the electrical furnace. Some other methods are also employed. None are regarded as perfectly exact; but they are near enough to have yielded some very interesting and valuable statistics regarding the power of various temperatures. For instance, it has been found that aluminum becomes a limpid liquid at from 4,050° to 4,320° F., and that lime melts at from 4,940° to 5,400°, and magnesia at 4,680°."

CHIVALRY AMONG ANIMALS.

DR. WOODS HUTCHINSON contributes to the *Contemporary Review* for December a very interesting paper entitled "Animal Chivalry." He maintains that animals have a very distinct and high sense of duty and a keen sense of shame at failure to live up to it. In this paper he describes the attitude of animals toward the young or the defenseless females of their own and other species, toward women, and toward men. He says it is only a very morose and ill-tempered dog who will seriously attack young kittens, although they will worry every full-grown cat without mercy. The custom of defending younger or weaker members of their own species is widely spread throughout the animal kingdom. Catch a little pig, and the moment its squeal of distress is heard the whole herd of fifty or sixty full-grown pigs will charge down upon you, bristles up, tusks gnashing, and fierce, barking war-cry ringing. If you drop the little pig and it ceases to squeal the herd will stop suddenly, stare about them in a dazed and puzzled manner, and then work off their excitement by fighting each other. On the plains the cry of the calf will bring every horned animal within three-quarters of a mile down upon you fighting mad.

Animals, says Dr. Hutchinson, have never yet

succeeded in absolutely steeling their heart against the cry of infantile distress; man alone has reached this pinnacle of virtue. As for politeness to women, animals carry this to an extraordinary extent:

"No self-respecting dog will bite a female, except in the extremest need of self-defense; though I am sorry to say that the lady herself, as a rule, has no scruple whatever about punishing, to the full extent of her power, any individual of the opposite sex that happens to be inferior to her in size or strength. And indeed, like the woman, in the crowded 'bus, she is inclined to demand her privileges as rights. A vixenish female will make more trouble in a pack of hounds than any three of the sterner sex, for whenever dissatisfied she hasn't the slightest reserve about speaking out at once, and as her cause is extremely likely to be championed, upon general principles, by some chivalrous male, a free fight is frequently the result. So strong is this unwillingness to 'strike a female' that it really becomes a most annoying obstacle in attempting to clear a neighborhood of wolves, as few male dogs will attack a she wolf or in some cases even follow her trail."

Dr. Hutchinson says the same kind of thing is noticed among horses. Savage farm horses that cannot be worked alongside of any other horse, on account of their temper, may safely be yoked alongside of a mare. Mares, on the other hand, will attack either horse or mare without the slightest hesitation, but no serious or retaliatory resistance is offered by the horse.

THE NATURAL RIGHT TO A NATURAL DEATH.

THE Hon. Simeon E. Baldwin's address before the American Social Science Association at Saratoga in September last is published in full for the first time in the St. Paul *Medical Journal* for December. This address has been the occasion of much newspaper comment, a great part of which was based, unfortunately, on imperfect reports of Judge Baldwin's remarks.

The purpose of the address was to raise the query whether the physician's aid in prolonging life when debility or disease is about to close its course may not sometimes be pressed too far.

"There are certain maladies that attack the human frame which are necessarily fatal, and others which naturally end in a speedy death, but may be so treated as to lead to a protracted state of weakness and suffering incompatible with any enjoyment of life or useful activity, and from which there can be no real hope of ultimate recovery.

"In uncivilized nations such diseases are of short duration. They are either left to take their course without interference or the patient is expedited on his journey to the grave.

"In civilized nations, and particularly of late years, it has become the pride of many in the medical profession to prolong such lives at any cost of discomfort or pain to the sufferer or of suspense and exhaustion to his family.

"The patient has come to a point where he cannot bear the thought of eating. The throat declines to swallow what the stomach is no longer able to digest. He craves nothing but to be let alone. A few hours, and nature will come to his release. She is already, perhaps, fast throwing him into that happy unconsciousness of pain which we call lethargy. It is no time-limited disease, with a stated course to run, after which, if the patient lives, health may return. The vital forces have been spent. The main spring is broken and the watch has run down. It can be made to tick feebly for a minute or two by shaking it hard enough; but *cui bono?* Only another main spring can mend it. Only another soul, another world, can give value to this human life that is ready to flicker out because it is worn out.

SHOULD LIFE BE ARTIFICIALLY PROLONGED?

"The family ask the doctor if there is no hope, and he responds with some sharp stimulant; some hypodermic injection; some transfusion or infusion to fill out for a few hours the bloodless veins; some device for bringing oxygen into the congested lungs that cannot breathe the vital air; some cunning way of stimulating another organ to do the stomach's work; or perhaps with strychnine to poison the fountains of life into spasmodic activity as they struggle to reject it. The sufferer wakes to pain and gasps back to a few more days or weeks of life.

"Were they worth the having? Do they bring life or a parody of life? Has nature—that is, the divine order of things—been helped or thwarted? For the time, thwarted; but not for long. The suffering, or at best the lethargic existence, has been successfully protracted, but the body will soon falter and fail in the unwonted functions forced upon parts of it made for other uses, and death come, to the relief of the dying and the living alike.

"Nature had kindly smoothed the sufferer's pillow by leading the way to that gradual exhaustion of the vital powers which follows the refusal of the stomach to receive or to digest food. To force nutriment into the system in such a case through other channels is simply to prolong a useless struggle at the cost of misery

to the patient and to the profit of no one but the doctor and the nurse."

Judge Baldwin should not be understood as decrying the use of all reasonable means for the restoration of health. Still less does he advocate or palliate suicide under any circumstances. He says:

"Every man is set on earth as a soldier is set at a post of duty. Assuming that he has been rightfully set there by the will of God or in the order of the universe, he is, like the soldier, barred from deserting his station until he is relieved by the authority that assigned him to it. Suicide, in other words, is inadmissible, however empty and burdensome life may have become.

MAN'S DUTY IN THE FACE OF DEATH.

"But the man struck by fatal illness is called off from his post by the power that put him there. He is, no doubt, under obligation to aid nature in resisting the attack when it comes, so far as concerns the use of the usual and natural means of defense. If its violence will be mitigated by the cessation of labor, by change of diet, by change of air, by the use of medicines, resort should ordinarily be had to these palliations if in his power. If a recovery is possible all means of recovery should be exhausted.

"But need he go further? Is he bound by any rule of religion or law of conduct to swallow down stimulants the only effect of which can be to excite the failing organs of the body for a brief time, and a brief time only, into an action natural in health, but unnatural in mortal disease? Is not this rather cowardice than fortitude?

"The call has come. The sentry is to be relieved. Not one new sentry, but a dozen are ready to take his place; for where is the position in the world that the world cannot well fill, and fill at once, if a vacancy occurs, from a crowd of waiting applicants? To hang back, to 'lag a superfluous veteran on the stage' after hearing and feeling the summons to go seems rather in the line of shirking one's duty than of doing one's duty.

"I speak only of the hopeless case. I am thinking of the victim of a cancer which has pursued its way to the verge of some vital organ; of the sufferer from consumption worn to a shadow of his former self; of him whom, as we say, the doctors have 'given up,' and who is simply lingering on the brink of a kindly grave; of the old man whose years have run their course and left him no strength to meet some malady with which youth might successfully contend, but under which his life is gently and painlessly ebbing away."

THE PHYSICIAN'S POINT OF VIEW.

The editor of the St. Paul *Medical Journal* says by way of comment on Judge Baldwin's conclusions:

"The address is an interesting, scholarly, and exhaustive discussion of the subject of which it treats, and theoretically we can agree with the main conclusion reached by its distinguished author—namely, that to prolong life by a few hours or even days, at the cost of much pain and agony and against the desire of the sufferer who is dying of a disease from which recovery is impossible, is cruelty rather than mercy. Practically, however, in view of the limitations of our present knowledge, we must condemn the views expressed by Judge Baldwin as being dangerous and unscientific. He admits that 'if a recovery is possible all means of recovery should be exhausted.' Who is to decide whether or no recovery be possible in a certain case? I doubt if there is a physician of large experience who cannot point to living patients whose recovery from a certain illness he had declared and believed impossible, but who are to-day active, useful, and happy citizens. Even in those dreadful cases of malignant disease to which he refers, modern surgery is daily recording new achievements where months and even years of comfortable life have been given to the victim who had been previously condemned to a speedy death. 'Never give up your patient while he breathes' was the advice of a distinguished surgeon in an address to students, and it is sound advice. When medicine becomes an exact science, when the physician can predict unerringly the outcome of disease and can declare with absolute certainty (life is certainly too precious to be satisfied with 'all reasonable possibilities') that death is approaching, then perhaps it will be right for him to 'bow before the awful will' and to be content with soothing the last moments of him 'who is simply lingering on the brink of a kindly grave.' If, however, there is even a remote possibility of snatching the sufferer from that grave and restoring him to life, it seems to us that the duty of the physician is clear. To all of this we are sure Judge Baldwin will give his hearty assent; but we believe that he has erred in attributing to medicine an infallibility which she does not possess. In the case of the infant, with a congenital defect which surgery can remedy only at the expense of making its life a 'daily and hopeless misery,' the responsibility does not rest with the surgeon, as a rule, but with the parents, and we have yet to meet the mother who would not demand the life of her new-born babe, no matter what the circumstances, or the surgeon who would refuse it to her."

A WOMAN AS TIGER HUNTER.

LION HUNTER is a *rôle* which in a figurative sense is often attributed to women, but the story of a woman who has distinguished herself as literally a tiger hunter and tiger killer still awakens a sensation of novelty. Isabel Savory, in the December *Lady's Realm*, reproduces the narrative of a friend, Miss Grahame, to whose rifle at least three tigers fell. It was in a Deccan jungle, with the temperature 104° in the shade, where Miss Grahame and two gentlemen friends went a-shooting. She says:

"I wore a long thin coat and knickerbockers of green shikar material, a spine-pad sewed inside the coat and another hooked outside, a huge pith helmet with a wet rag inside on my head, and a pair of dogskin gloves with half the fingers cut off, which enabled one to hold the burning barrels."

"MY FIRST TIGER."

The three hunters perched up in trees while the beaters set about beating up the prey. At last the tiger appeared—"a picture of fearful beauty. He halted ten yards from the captain's tree. The captain fired and hit him in the back. Then Miss Grahame and the captain both fired and missed. Miss Grahame continues:

"This was too much. In one moment, like a flash, he darted round, galloped at the tree, sprang about half way up, and then swarmed up the rest as quickly and easily as possible. Shall I ever know such a fearful moment in my whole life again? To see that vast and terrible body flying up the tree more quickly than any cat; to see my poor friend jumping on to his feet, both barrels fired and helpless! His hand was on the edge of the *machân*, and the tiger's mouth, closing upon it, tore his finger all down the back of it to the bone. . . . But at the same time the tiger's back as he clasped the trunk of the tree presented a difficult but not impossible shot. I had one barrel left. It was about eighty yards. I fired, and have never thanked Heaven so fervently as when I saw the tiger drop at once to the ground. But, with nine catlike lives, he was not dead; he walked off and disappeared. . . . We dared not look for him then and there, dying and savage, in such dangerous ground. But next morning we found him cold and stiff. He was a magnificent male tiger, very large and heavy, with enormous paws and mustache—a splendid 'great cat.'"

"MISS SAHIB" AND "STRIPES" FACE TO FACE.

The next adventure described was with a man-eating tiger. The natives were surprised to see "Miss Sahib" preparing to join in the hunt. Ten minutes after the beat began "Stripes" emerged, going at a great pace through the underwood. "Miss Sahib" fired twice. The first shot certainly failed. "He galloped off, roaring with unusual grandeur." The three hunters came down from their tree perches, and finding traces of blood, concluded that the tiger was badly hit and would be dead in half an hour. So they had tiffin and then followed his track. Miss Grahame proceeds:

"Again we followed the fresh *pugs* (footmarks), and were stealing in line through the trees and grass when our hearts stood still. There was a spring, with a hideous roar; bounding through the cover with open mouth, his tail lashing his sides, his whole fur bristling, dashed the tiger straight upon us. Heavens! what a sight for our unprepared eyes! I could see nothing, owing to the beast's tremendous speed, but a shadowy form, with two large lamps of fire fixed on me with an unmeaning stare as it literally flew at me. Such was the vision of a moment. The trees were so thick I dared not shoot till he was close, for I had time, even then, to recollect that everything depended upon keeping cool and killing him if possible. I fired straight at his chest. On he came. Again I fired, without moving at all; and then instinctively, almost miraculously, I darted to the left as the tiger himself sprang past me—so close that I found his blood splashed over my gun-barrels afterward. Captain F—— had fired two shots sideways, one of which missed altogether and the other only knocked out the tiger's canine teeth. It was an awful escape. In fact, it was the nearest shave I have ever had of my life. To cut a long story short, we found my tiger next morning, dead. If there is any episode in my life to which I look back with a special thrill, it is that; if I have one trophy now which I care about, it is his skin."

The third tiger was shot dead on the spot by Miss Grahame from her perch in the tree.

A WOMAN'S VISIT TO MANILA DURING THE WAR WITH SPAIN.

"KRINGSJAA" (September 30) contains an interesting article by Astrid Naess describing her sojourn in Manila during the Spanish-American War. The steamer on which she had taken passage was bringing a cargo of cement from Glasgow, but no sooner had it got within sight of its destination than it was ordered by Admiral Dewey to make itself scarce at once, with cement, passengers, and all. The captain was beside himself with rage over his fool's errand, but the Americans were unmoved by his signaled entreaties. There was no help for it—back he had to go. Astrid Naess, however,

being a Norwegian with no small share of the Norse importunity and determination, was not to be easily vanquished, and, being a woman, had no mind to be summarily disposed of like so much cement. She had come to see Manila, and Manila she would see. Fortunately the steamer had with it the mails from Iloilo, and after an excited conference it was decided that they should signal that they had British letters to deliver. Back came the reply: "Come within hail."

This order was at once complied with. An American officer now came on board, but brought with him the strictest orders from the admiral requiring the steamer's departure without delay with cargo and passengers; only the mails might pass. Astrid Naess, however, was the possessor of a letter of recommendation to Admiral Dewey and did not lose hope. Another passenger, an Englishman, whose home was in Manila, sent a letter to the British admiral on board the *Immortalité*. He awaited the answer in great suspense. Himself married to a Spanish lady and having nephews in the Spanish army, he had been intrusted, partly through the Spanish consul-general at Singapore, partly through the governor-general at Iloilo, with Spanish telegrams, official dispatches, and documents from the government at Madrid to Conde Augustino, governor-general of Manila.

"A SOFT-HEARTED LIEUTENANT."

After half an hour's suspense the admiral's adjutant boarded the vessel. The admiral regretted that in view of the dangers of war and possible bombardment he could not allow any ladies on shore. All foreign and American ladies had been sent to Hong Kong. He could make no exception. He could not undertake the responsibility of looking after ladies under the present circumstances. Then a bright idea struck Astrid Naess. As the others withdrew she confided to the adjutant with due solemnity the fact that smuggled into the mail-bags the steamer had brought were important official telegrams and dispatches from the Spanish Government at Madrid to the authorities at Manila. Her strong American sympathies had forbidden her silence regarding these. The adjutant was startled, and her reiterated request that she must herself see the admiral in order to make other communications was at once complied with, the officer himself expressing his warmest thanks to the lady for the information she had given. Then only were the mails confiscated, together with the luggage of the hapless Englishman, and Astrid Naess was forthwith escorted on board the admiral's ship. Dewey was at first very angry that his officer had acted against orders, but presently his anger gave way to his natural geniality, and what was left of it found vent in the dry, half-humorous grumble: "Ah, you are good for nothing in war, you damned soft-hearted lieutenant that cannot even withstand a woman's eyes!"

A WOMAN'S VICTORY.

The victory, then, was the lady's. Not only did she receive permission to land, but the gallant admiral gave her two of his own officers to escort her on board the British warship *Immortalité*, which lay midway between the American station, Cavite, and the entrance to Manila. All the neutral foreign warships lay here, reaching far out into the bay. There were two French, several Germans, Austrians also, Italians, and Japanese. The steamer which had come to bring cement to Manila, but had only left a lady, was vanishing beyond the horizon when they boarded the *Immortalité*, and the adjutant assured her that now, indeed, at Manila they would have to keep her.

The article describes interestingly and with many illustrations life in Manila and the character and customs of the natives. The Filipinos are smaller than other Asiatic races, but of stronger constitution and extremely well proportioned. There is a bold, brave, hearty boyishness about them, which they keep even into old age, as they do their jet-black hair. They are chivalrous to their women, who are almost without exception very good-looking. The ladies of Manila, we learn, have a curious fashion. They drive along the Corso in the most brilliant ball costumes, *décolleté*, wearing no hat, and glittering with jewels on head, throat, and arms.

THE DRESS OF THE FILIPINOS.

The national dress of the women is very picturesque—always low-necked, showing off the lovely throat and bust, and the lower portion consisting of a richly embroidered long-trained silk skirt. Even the poorer Filipino flaunts a richly embroidered silk scarf, flowing sleeves, and a sweeping train. It is a costume worn by the very washerwomen at their work and by the market women, and is undeniably as picturesque as it is troublesome. A heavy cigar in the mouth detracts from the charms of the fair sex, but adds a touch of the humorous. The male Filipino is simpler in attire, and is generally dressed in white from head to foot, with a hat made of cocoanut fiber or bamboo. Further inland, where two-thirds of the natives are as uncivilized as those in the wilds of Africa, he is content to wear only the hat.

THE LONDON "LEADING ARTICLE."

THE "leader" of the English newspaper, corresponding with the "editorial" in our American dailies, is the subject of an entertaining essay in the December *Cornhill*, evidently written by an experienced London journalist.

The writer tells of the delight he felt when he was called from the reporting staff of a daily paper to join the editorial staff—the little group of men who controlled the paper's policy and daily addressed "close on 100,000 readers," which is regarded in England, it seems, as a very large constituency, although in this country it would be considered as representing a circulation of about 25,000 copies, which is often exceeded by our metropolitan journals. He exclaims:

"What a position to find myself in, to be able to preach to 100,000 readers every morning! No wonder I felt a thrill of pride and exultation, and, being very young then, began to regard myself as a teacher and a prophet!

"But first, as to our procedure in selecting subjects for the leading articles. We assembled in the editor's room at the office at 3 o'clock every afternoon. There were five of us—the editor, the chief sub-editor, and three leader-writers. Each man suggested one or two topics, and after due consideration three of them were selected. The editor, who knew from experience the capabilities of his leader-writing staff and the subjects which each man could best write about, allotted the topics, and indicated on broad and general lines the views that were to be expressed in the articles.

REGARD TO NEWSPAPER POLICY.

"Considerable freedom, however, was given to the leader-writer to look at the subject from his own individual standpoint, or, as it were, through his own particular spectacles. An article will be all the more interesting, forcible, and convincing, the more the writer is allowed to make it the warm and strenuous expression of his own genuine feelings, unfettered by the restraining influence of the editor, who, as the person primarily responsible, is naturally inclined to be more or less cautious and circumspect in committing the paper to any strong course of action or declaration of principle. But there are two things which the leader-writer must always bear in mind and which must influence every sentence he writes. First, he must preserve the traditional policy of the paper, and, secondly, he must do no violence to the opinions of its readers. These, indeed, are practically the same thing in different words, for the policy of a newspaper is the policy of its supporters. We know well what line our paper has always taken in regard to this, that, and the other subject, and we are therefore acquainted with the views which, on these subjects, are acceptable to our readers. All we strive to do is to say something new on the subject, or at least to present the old views in a fresh guise. It does not often happen, then, that a difference of opinion arises in the editorial staff as to the line which should be taken on any question; but in such a contingency the judgment of the editor is final. It is very rarely, indeed, that a new subject arises which is outside the scope of the settled policy of the paper and as to which it is impossible to guess the feelings of its readers. Such a difficulty arose in most Liberal newspaper offices when Mr. Gladstone startled and perturbed the political world by the announcement of his home-rule policy in 1885."

THE MECHANISM OF THE "LEADER."

"The leader-writers, having got their subjects, dispersed till 10 o'clock, when, as a rule, they reassembled in the office. Some of them had their 'leader' written by that time; some, perhaps, had not yet put pen to paper. It all depended on the topic. If the subject be a parliamentary debate or a speech by a leading politician at a public meeting held in the evening, the writer must of course wait until the report of the debate or the speech reaches the office, is put into type, and he is furnished with 'proofs.' It may be midnight before all this is accomplished; but in the meantime the writer, being able to guess with almost unerring accuracy what the leading politician will say or what the result of the debate in the House will be, has thought over the matter and sketched the 'leader' in outline, so that when he has rapidly read through the 'proofs' of the speech or the debate and filled in the rough plan of his article by one or two striking quotations from the speech, with appropriate comments of his own, he is able to turn out the article rapidly in its proper form; and as it is being written it is taken, page by page, to the composing-room, with the result that the writer is able to see a 'proof' of the 'leader' in type a few minutes after he has completed it. But if, on the other hand, the subject is a local meeting or a local event of any kind, which is reported in the evening papers, or a topic which needs reference to a library for 'material,' the leader-writer usually writes his article at home and brings it to the office at night. After handing in my 'leader' I have often had to wait in the office till midnight writing 'editorial notes,' or the paragraphs, dealing also with passing events, which follow the leading articles in most journals, or to turn out another 'leader.'"

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

THE new features in the January *Century* are chiefly stories. The magazine opens with the prize story in the *Century's* competition for college graduates. It is entitled "Only the Master Shall Praise," and is by Mr. John M. Oskison, a bachelor of Leland Stanford University, and deals with life on the cattle ranges of the Indian Territory, for which scenes, of course, Mr. Remington has been selected to make the pictures. The first part of a new serial by Mary Hallock Foote is entitled "A Touch of Sun," and is printed with pictures by the author; while there are short stories, the continuation of Dr. Mitchell's "Autobiography of a Quack," and the conclusion of Mr. Seton-Thompson's story of a grizzly bear's life. Gov. Theodore Roosevelt has an article on "Fellow Feeling as a Political Factor," in which he argues that any healthy-minded American is sure to think well of his fellow Americans if he only gets to know them, the trouble being that he does not know them. It is the lack of this fellow-feeling which Governor Roosevelt thinks is the greatest danger to the party organizations of a great city and the menace of all serious political organizations. If these are to be successful he says they must necessarily be democratic, in the sense that each man is treated strictly on his merits as a man. The tendency to patronize is fatal.

Mr. Booker T. Washington gives some notes on "Signs of Progress Among the Negroes." Mr. Washington describes the excellent work of his own Tuskegee Institute and advocates analogous methods with the 800,000 negroes in Cuba and Porto Rico. As is well known, the Tuskegee Institute is founded on the basis of industrial education first. Mr. Washington says that he does not mean from his emphasis on the industrial factor to protest that the negro is to be excluded from the higher interests of life, but he does mean that "in proportion as the negro gets the foundation—the useful before the ornamental—in the same proportion will he accelerate his progress in acquiring those elements which do not pertain so directly to the utilitarian."

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

THERE are several articles of timely interest in the January *Harper's*. Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart tells us "What the Fathers of the Union Thought Concerning Territorial Problems." Professor Hart's interpretation of the facts is shown in the following sentence: "The Senate and the House of 1803, the people of that time, the experience of a century, and common sense, unite in the conclusion that the United States may constitutionally acquire territory by either conquest, purchase, or voluntary cession, and that out of that territory may be created new federal States." He shows that as to the question of expediency the fathers of the United States were divided, just as men now are as to the desirability of the annexation of territory. Professor Hart concludes: "Wise or unwise, far seeing or haphazard, consecutive or accidental, good or evil, the policy of our forefathers was a policy of territorial extension, and they met and supposed that they had surmounted most of the problems which have now returned to vex American public men and to give concern to those who love their country."

Mr. Sydney Brookes discusses "The British and Dutch in South Africa" from the British point of view, but with no great pride in the history of Anglo-Saxon rule in South Africa, which he calls a vast museum of imperial blunders. He says South Africa shows what must inevitably happen when foreign policy is made the sport of party politics, and one government reverses what another government has declared irreversible, and no minister dare formulate or propose anything without an eye to the mandates of the people. Mr. Arnold White gives a very adequate description of the actual machinery by which modern England performs her task of colonial administration, in his article entitled "The British System of Colonial Government." After his analysis of England's colonial administration he calls to the attention of his readers that there is no element conducive to success in colonial government that is lacking in American institutions, with the exception of a permanent civil staff, guaranteed as to the fixed tenure of their appointments and educated with a single eye to the public service. Mr. Archibald R. Colquhoun, in his article on "The Occupation of Siberia," says that there is no reason why that vast country need longer be a *terra incognita*. Even now, before the completion of the railroad, travel is as riskless as in Europe or the United States. Delicate ladies have repeatedly made the journey from Pekin to St. Petersburg. The public impression of the hazards of Siberian travel is largely the result of what Mr. Colquhoun calls the ridiculous heroics of certain travelers, seeking cheap glory rather than information. In this number begins the new novel by Mrs. Humphry Ward, under the title "Eleanor." The illustrations are by Mr. Albert Sterner.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

THE January number of *Scribner's* begins with the first installment of the most important feature of the magazine for 1900—Gov. Theodore Roosevelt's life of Oliver Cromwell. Governor Roosevelt's historical style is marked by a quiet dignity which does not lose the force characteristic of everything accomplished by the dashing colonel of the Rough Riders. Much of this first chapter in the life of Cromwell is devoted to an attempt to picture the times in which Oliver lived and their relation to him as a man. Here is Governor Roosevelt's idea of his hero: "When Cromwell grew to manhood he was a Puritan of the best type, of the type of Hampden and Milton; sincere, earnest, resolute to do good as he saw it, more liberal than most of his fellow-religionists, and saved from their worst eccentricities by his hard common sense, but not untouched by their gloom and sharing something of their narrowness. Entering Parliament thus equipped, he could not fail to be most drawn to the religious side of the struggle. He soon made himself prominent, a harsh-featured, red-faced, powerfully built man, whose dress appeared slovenly in the eyes of the courtiers, who was no orator, but whose great power soon began to impress friends and enemies alike."

Mr. Frederick Palmer writes on "White Man and Brown Man in the Philippines," from the light of his experience as a war correspondent during the recent fighting. In contemplating the problem of managing the Philippines when Aguinaldo is disposed of, he recognizes that the real difficulty will be in finding the right men to take the higher positions. Certainly some of the high places can be filled from the army, by men like General Wood and General Bates. He suggests that the minor positions can be well provided for by sending our young college graduates, but warns us that it will be necessary to establish grade promotions and pay salaries which will enable a young man to keep his position and to look forward to a decent pension after he has served thirty years in the tropical climate. Mr. Palmer thinks that once pacified and rightly governed, it will not need more than 10,000 white troops and 15,000 native troops to garrison the islands. Mr. Frederick Irland gives an excellent description of moose-hunting in the far northern Canadian woods, under the title "The Coming of the Snow." The feature in fiction for 1900, Mr. J. M. Barrie's "Tommy and Grizel," begins in this number. Mr. Jesse Lynch Williams describes the polite regions of New York in his article, "The Walk Uptown," and the remainder of the number consists of stories.

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

THE very readable January number of *McClure's* contains an article by Mr. Sturgis B. Rand entitled "Hottest Heat and Electrical Furnaces," which we have quoted from in another department. Another excellent essay of popular scientific value is Prof. Simon Newcomb's explanation of "How the Planets Are Weighed." Lieutenant Peary gives an account of his visit to Greely's old camp and his latest work in the Arctic Ocean. Lieutenant Peary's plan on his seventh voyage, begun in July, 1898, was to remain in the far north until he reached the pole, making a persistent march toward it with dogs and sledges. He believed that the essential difficulty of carrying sufficient fuel and food for him and the dogs to sustain them on the last stages of the journey could be overcome. Peary's present winter quarters are at Etah, on Smith Sound, opposite Cape Sabine. He has finally established a base at Fort Conger, and this letter of Peary's describes the condition of Greely's old camp at Fort Conger, which was left on May 23, 1899.

The irrepressible Mark Twain appears in this number with a contribution entitled "My Boyhood Dreams," in the course of which he bewails the fate of Mr. Howells, whose boyhood dream was to be an auctioneer; of Secretary Hay, who aspired to be a steamboat mate on the Mississippi, and "in fancy saw himself dominating the forecastle some day on the Mississippi and dictating terms to roustabouts. Hay climbed high toward his ideal. When success seemed almost sure, his feet upon the very gangplank, his eye upon the capstan, his fortune came and his fall began.

"Down—down—down—ever down: private secretary to the President; colonel in the field; *chargé d'affaires* in Paris; *chargé d'affaires* in Vienna; poet; editor of the *Tribune;* biographer of Lincoln; ambassador to England; and now at last there he lies—Secretary of State, head of foreign affairs. And he has fallen like Lucifer, never to rise again. And his dream—where now is his dream? Gone down in blood and tears with the dream of the auctioneer."

Mark also sadly records Thomas Bailey Aldrich's failure to become a horse doctor, Stockton's unfulfilled dream of being a barkeeper, and Cable's dashed hopes of becoming a ringmaster in the circus.

THE COSMOPOLITAN MAGAZINE.

IN the January *Cosmopolitan* there is a sketch of "Pushkin and His Work," by Madame Ragozin, a Russian lady of high attainments, who is now residing in New York City. Pushkin is very much the national poet of Russia, Madame Ragozin says. "Yes, Pushkin is Russia, all Russia, the national poet in the widest sense, as was strikingly shown during his centennial, when each of the numerous political and intellectual factions, from the highest official circles to the reddest radical cliques, claimed him for its own and could support its claim from passages in his works and in his life." Yet Pushkin's ancestry was not pure Russian; in fact, his great-grandfather was a full-blooded Abyssinian, stolen in infancy by slave dealers and brought to Constantinople. The poet's father belonged to the old Russian *noblesse.* Pushkin lived in the atmosphere of the court and fell at the age of thirty-seven in an unnecessary duel.

Mr. John S. Fulton's prize essay on "The Home Care of the Sick" contains a great number of details as to the practical management of cases of illness in the home which ought to be valuable in every household, and which, he wisely says, are not a substitute for the technical expertness of the trained nurse, but are designed to supplement the work of the trained nurse. Another prize article is Mr. M. V. O'Shea's on "Encouraging the Mental Powers of Young Children." Mr. O'Shea is president of the National Child Study Association, and makes a plea for the granting of wide latitude to the imagination and impulses of children. He attempts to show how much harm may be done and is done to the race by repressing children and reproving what we may only think is obstinacy in an attempt to gain docility. Mr. O'Shea says while docility is oftentimes pleasing to such as have to train children, because it flatters their pride in the display of authority and makes discipline easier, yet it is a quality of mind which needs to be made more virile by engendering initiation and independence.

Mr. Howard W. Bell contributes a readable article with interesting pictures on "Fossil Hunting in Wyoming," and Mr. Kirke La Shelle describes the various activities and audacities of "The Theatrical Advance Agent."

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

IN *Munsey's* for January Mr. Frederick Emory, chief of the Bureau of Foreign Commerce of the United States Department of State, in an article entitled "Our Commercial Expansion" describes the wonderful change that has taken place within recent years in our position in the markets of international trade, which has brought the United States to be really a world power in commerce, as well as in war and diplomacy. Mr. Emory regards territorial extension as merely an incident of commercial expansion, which has been gathering energy and force for some years. He thinks that in spite of the arguments advanced to minimize the value of both the Latin-American and the Oriental markets to us, it is clear that the nations of Europe think the trade of South America, Asia, and especially

China is worth striving for, and the average American will be apt to conclude that he might as well have his share.

There are two articles on the trust question, one by Senator William E. Chandler, "Free Competition Versus Trust Combinations," and the second by Arthur McEwen, "The Trust as a Step in the March of Civilization." The attitude of both writers is fully indicated by their titles. Senator Chandler believes in free competition and believes that trusts destroy it and that they should be suppressed. He has no faith in federal laws to accomplish this purpose, and points out that the only dangerous powers of the trust are the corporate powers, and as corporations are the creation of the State legislatures, it is to these legislatures that appeal should be made for defense against the growing despotism of trusts. He argues specifically that a legislature may provide that separate corporations shall not contract with each other for the purposes which trusts seek to accomplish; that it may specify the business in which every corporation shall engage and confine it to one subject of commerce; and that it may limit the capital and debts of every corporation—that is, it may keep its size so small that it cannot be dangerous as a destroyer of competition.

Mr. McEwen looks on the trust as inevitable and as a necessary and valuable outcome of modern industrial conditions. In their present unrestrained condition he regards the trusts as the most forbidding and injurious kind of socialism, "the communism of pelf," and he thinks it obvious that this sort of socialism cannot be endured in the democracy. However, he thinks the trust itself points the way to its conquest, and that by demonstrating the power of associated effort for business ends it is merely a step toward a rational socialistic organization. A well-illustrated article in this number gives a sketch of the Vanderbilt family and its hereditary fortune through four generations of millionaires, and there is an interesting description of "How the Railroads Fight Snow," by Francis Lynde, with capital illustrations from photographs taken in the snowy fastnesses of the Rockies.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

MR. JOHN BATES CLARK writes in the January *Atlantic* under the title "Disarming the Trusts." He thinks that the great body of the people is still uncertain whether it wants trusts or does not want them; whether it should frame statutes that will crush them or merely try to regulate them, or even let them alone entirely. Mr. Clark thinks the only practical thing worth worrying about at present is to find out what a State can do, as he expresses it, to open the rift between centralization and monopoly, to enable the mills to produce and to sell as cheaply as the biggest establishments can do, but to stop the extortion that trusts practice and ward off the greater extortion that they threaten to practice. He thinks himself that the trusts as now organized are breaking the spirit of the law when they lower prices in one corner of the country and sustain them elsewhere for the purpose of ruining somebody whose market is in the limited region; when they make so-called "factors' agreements," by which merchants who sell its goods make a contract compelling them not only to keep prices at the level which the trust prescribes, but to handle no goods of a general class other than those which the trust makes.

Dr. William DeWitt Hyde asks for several reforms in theological education. In the first place, he thinks indiscriminate eleemosynary aid to theological students must be stopped; second, that a high standard of scholarship must be maintained; third, that the seminaries must not tie their professors to the teaching of a prescribed creed; fourth, that the secular studies must be carried on side by side with the traditional theological subjects throughout the seminary course; fifth, that the methods of instruction must be more individual and original. He shows very forcibly that with the mere use of text-books no student can stock up in three years with enough ideas to feed a congregation upon for the following forty. Mr. John Jay Chapman, in an essay with the title "Between Elections," makes a strong exhortation to the individual respectable citizen for his active efforts in politics. He calls upon honest men to rise up and make a row when they see dishonest political dealings in their town. "This whole subject must be looked at as a crusade in the cause of humanity. You are making it easier for every young man in town to earn his livelihood without paying out his soul and conscience." Mr. D. Z. Sheffield discusses "The Future of the Chinese People," with considerable sympathy for that huge and unfortunate nation. He admits that as a nation they are untruthful in speech and are selfish and sordid in their lives. He says it is a mistake, however, to think of the Chinese in their mutual intercourse as forgetful of the principles of right and truth and duty. He adds his testimony to much that has gone before that the Chinese are splendid workmen, born traders, and good students. Mr. Sheffield thinks the substance of the matter is that China needs protection and guidance, even to the point of wise compulsion, at the hands of such Christian nations as are truly interested in her welfare. Even though the Chinese national life may disappear for a time, he thinks the life of the people will continue and that there is no lack of virility.

THE BOOKMAN.

IN commenting on the career of Mr. E. L. Godkin, the late editor of the *Evening Post*, the editor of the *Bookman* thinks that Mr. Godkin showed an extraordinary strength and independence in his editorial capacity, and that he had this nowhere more impressively than in his absolute defiance of the dictates of the counting-room. "He would say at any cost just what he thought, and he would write just what he believed to be true, no matter who might be offended. . . . His rash utterances sometimes cost the *Post* large sums of money in libel suits and in loss of patronage." The *Bookman* thinks that "the mischievous star system" on the American stage is gaining hold in the magazine world too, and it goes through the list of the popular magazines to show that all of them, except those that rely largely on the element of timeliness, have engaged for the year 1900 some one prominent feature by which they hope to gain readers, leaving the remainder of their announcements in secondary place. The list is as follows:

"The Life of Oliver Cromwell," by John Morley, in the *Century*.

"Eleanor," a novel, by Mrs. Humphry Ward, in *Harper's*.

"Tommy and Grizel," a novel, by J. M. Barrie, in *Scribner's*.

"The Life of the Master," by the Rev. John Watson, in *McClure's*.

"The Great Battles of the World," by Stephen Crane, in *Lippincott's*.

"The Autobiography of W. J. Stillman," in the *Atlantic*.

"William Shakespeare, Poet, Dramatist and Man," by Hamilton W. Mabie, in the *Outlook*.

"The Theatre and Its People," by Franklin Fyles, in the *Ladies' Home Journal*.

"America's Literary Diplomats, from Franklin to Hay," in the *Bookbuyer*.

"Essays on the Literature of the Nineteenth Century," in the *Critic*.

The *Bookman* itself is beginning a series on "The Great Newspapers of Continental Europe." Mr. Henry W. Fischer begins with a good account of the German newspapers, which he characterizes as above all dignified. A German reporter's life does not fall in such pleasant places as the New York newspaper man's. The free-lance earns from $25 to $50 a month, and the legitimate reporter may make as much as $100 a month, but never more. Editors receive from $1,000 to $3,000 a year and work from 9 o'clock in the morning to 6 in the evening, sub-editors remaining until 8 or 9 o'clock.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE *North American* for December is chiefly noteworthy for its series of South African articles, from the first of which—that contributed by Mr. Bryce—we have quoted in another department. The other contributors to the series are Karl Blind, Francis Charmes, Max Nordau, Andrew Carnegie, and Demetrius C. Boulger. Not one of these writers defends England in her course, and three of them comment, in almost identical expressions, on the striking unanimity of European opinion hostile to John Bull in the present crisis.

Under the caption, "Some Consecrated Fallacies," Mr. Amos K. Fiske combats the proposition that government in the Philippines should depend upon "the consent of the governed." He holds that not only is a test of the question of consent impossible under present circumstances, but even if it were possible it is wholly irrelevant. A lack of such consent can never be permitted to stand against our interests and those of other nations toward whom we have assumed responsibilities. People may be governed without their consent "if rights and interests broader and higher than their own require it."

In an article on "The Highways of the People" the Hon. Hugh H. Lusk sets forth the advantages of state ownership of railroads as demonstrated in the experience of the Australian colonies. That experience proves, according to Mr. Lusk, that "it costs very much less for the people, through their governments, to build their own railroads than it does to have them built for them by capitalists. The original expense is less rather than greater, and the cost of the money with which the work is done would appear to be about one-half as great. And in addition to these advantages the people need give no bonuses in the shape of lands, which put the practical control of the country into the hands of a small class of its people, and which may endow them with vast mineral wealth, leading to permanent social inequalities and containing the germs of all that is worst in the class distinctions of older and less popularly governed countries."

Mr. Lusk further contends that not only have the government railroads of Australia been built more cheaply than the privately owned lines of the United States, but that they are operated more economically, although he admits that the passenger and freight rates are somewhat higher.

Mr. Joseph Pulitzer, of the New York *World*, makes a forcible appeal for a check on the growing power of the national executive. He suggests a constitutional amendment extending the President's term to six years and making him ineligible to reëlection, together with the withdrawal of patronage.

The Rev. R. F. Clarke, S.J., defends the practice of confession in the Roman Catholic Church; Sir Thomas Lipton records his far from dismal reflections as the last unsuccessful challenger for the *America's* cup; Mrs. F. A. Steel describes the condition and prospects of East Indian women; Mr. W. B. Yeats chronicles "The Literary Movement in Ireland;" the Hon. Perry Belmont outlines the Philippine situation as it presents itself to Congress; and the Hon. John Dalzell sets forth the main points in the currency propositions now before Congress.

THE FORUM.

IN another department we have quoted from Professor Bemis' discussion of the trust problem in the December *Forum*.

Mr. J. Castell Hopkins opens the number with "A British View of the Transvaal Question," presenting essentially the same arguments that were advanced in Mr. Ireland's *Atlantic* article, reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles" for December. Mr. Hopkins emphasizes the Boers' ill-treatment of the native population.

Mr. O. P. Austin, chief of the United States Bureau of Statistics, contributes an encylcopedic account of "Africa: Present and Future." He gives the following statistics of the area and population of the territory in Africa held by each European government and by the independent states of that continent at the present time, so far as can be ascertained:

	Area.	Total Population.	Foreign Population.	Persons per Square Mile.
French Africa	3,028,000	28,155,000	922,000	9.3
British Africa	2,761,000	35,160,000	455,000	12.8
Turkish Africa	1,750,000	21,300,000	113,000	12.3
German Africa	944,000	11,270,000	4,000	12.0
Belgian Africa	900,000	30,000,000	2,000	33.3
Portuguese Africa	790,000	8,059,000	3,000	10.2
Spanish Africa	243,000	36,000	.....	0.5
Italian Africa	188,000	850,000	.....	4.5
INDEPENDENT STATES.				
Morocco	219,000	5,000,000	.....	22.8
Abyssinia	150,000	3,500,000	.....	23.3
South African Republic	120,000	1,096,000	346,000	9.2
Orange Free State	48,500	208,000	78,000	4.3
Liberia	48,000	1,500,000	25,000	31.3
Totals	11,189,500	146,133,000	1,948,000	

NOTE.—The above area and population only include territory claimed by the various European states or by the independent governments. The total estimated area is 11,875,000 square miles and the estimated population 150,000,000.

Mr. Round compares Cromwell with President Krüger. They were both "Old Testament heroes" and their very methods were the same:

"When Calamy, the non-conformist, once said to Cromwell, 'Tis against the voice of the nation; there will be nine in ten against you,' Oliver replied: 'Very well; but what if I should disarm the nine and put a sword in the tenth man's hand? Would not that do the business?' Even so did the despot of Pretoria, we are told on high authority, meet the appeals of a Uitlander deputation by that quite conclusive reply: 'I have the guns, you have not.' Ah! but Cromwell, his champions will exclaim, was fighting for a righteous cause. But so, says Mr. Krüger, are the Boers. And righteousness, we know, was in each case what they happened to consider right."

AUSTRIA "FIN DE SIÈCLE."

Francis Count Lützow contributes a survey of "Austria at the End of the Century," but it cannot be said that his article, with the exception of a severe condemnation of Count Goluchowski, whose views he describes as narrow and bigoted, contains anything new. Austria, says Count Lützow, must base her position in Europe on the Slav majority of the population:

"The small and historically distinct Slav countries that form a part of the Austrian empire well know that it is to the fact that they belong to that large and powerful country that they owe the preservation of their distinct nationality and language. They therefore believe as firmly in the necessity of the existence of the Austrian empire as Palacky did half a century ago. Many, it is true, think that the parliamentary institutions should be modified in a manner not dissimilar from that which I have outlined above. Austria governed by a German minority may be feeble, but with a government that is thoroughly trusted by the Slav majority of the population, Austria would be one of the most powerful, perhaps the most powerful, country in Europe."

PLAGIARISM.

Mr. E. F. Benson discusses "Plagiarism" and attempts to define what a literary man may steal. His judgment seems to be that the successful adoption and improvement of a theme or style justifies itself. All literary culture, as opposed to inborn talent, is the result of unconscious plagiarism. Mr. Benson says:

"To attempt to steal a style from another is a crime of the most serious import, but its successful accomplishment is luckily a difficult matter—it is stealing in broad day. On the other hand, our duty and our pleasure alike bid us to study, and by healthy study to assimilate the splendid meal which, among other things, sixpenny editions, one of our latter-day advantages, afford us. Then if we practice, so to speak, and every one practices—for life in itself is an art, to be learned from the contemplation of noble lives—we shall get, by assimilation of our food, not a plagiarized imitation of our original, but a manner which, but for it, could never have been ours. The painter will legitimately, necessarily soak himself in masterpieces, the sculptor in Greek statues, not that he may give us a reminiscence of Phidias, but something which without Phidias could not have been produced."

HOME LIFE IN INDIA.

The Hon. J. D. Rees, C.I.E., gives a very pleasant picture of "A Hindoo Home," but his article, though it deserves to be read for its sympathy and insight, is rather hard to quote from. Here is a picture of the recreation of a Hindoo family of high rank, which does not suffer by isolation:

"Then the sun went down, and we wandered round the house, visiting the bathing ghat, in which the little girls swim like mermaids (not that I saw them), and the deep well, alongside which the family pepper, lately collected from the family vines, is drying. Then the daughters, with much laughter, balanced themselves in a swing, consisting of a split bamboo into the end of which was inserted a cross-piece for a seat. When it grew darker and every one had duly saluted the god of fire, the girls sat upon the floor and played games with tamarind seeds, hundreds of which are deftly and rapidly picked up while one seed, thrown by the same hand, ascended and again descended, and was caught before it touched the polished floor. I am quite sure Nausicaa's games were much like these, that her garments resembled those of these Eastern girls, that the courtyard of her father's palace was very much like that of my host, for gourds and cucumbers grown upon an elevated framework look exceedingly like vines. The musicians came and played again, and the two sisters sang with extreme earnestness, in shrill voices and well-modulated cadences, the words they did not understand, beating time by gently clapping the palms of their hands as they sat enveloped in cloth-of-gold tissue which swept the spotless floor."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is a review by Mr. Sidney Colvin of Mr. Stephen Phillips' "Tragedy of Paolo and Francesca." Sir T. Wemyss Reid contributes his second review of "The Newspapers."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

WE have dealt elsewhere with Mr. Le Gallienne's appreciation of Grant Allen and with the article on "Russian Railway Policy in Asia" in the December *Fortnightly*. In addition to these there are several other articles of considerable interest. The number begins with a reply by Mr. Herbert Spencer to Professor Ward's misrepresentation of his views; but the article is wholly devoted to corrections, quotations, and counter quotations, and extracts from it would hardly profit our readers.

FRANCE SINCE 1814.

Baron Pierre de Coubertin concludes his review of the history of France since 1814, the moral of which is that the French people must abandon their faith in radical expedients in government, that revolutions and sudden changes are always fruitless, and that even when they seem destined to bring about improvements and confer advantages the far-off counter blow is ominous. It seems certain that liberty and the republic have taken permanent root in the national soil:

"The republic has lived, thanks to the wisdom of that universal suffrage which has withstood all the assaults made by a vanquished minority in the name of the great memories of the past. In order to attain its perfect form it will have to overcome yet other difficulties. Curiously enough, there is every reason to believe that, being as it is under pain of death at the hands of socialism, it will have to make up its mind to destroy the work of centralization accomplished by the first republic and confirmed so solemnly by Napoleon I.

When that day comes it will not only have restored the true historical tradition of old France—it will have broken once and forever with Bonapartism."

ARCHITECTURE AND MATHEMATICS.

Mr. Julian Moore has a paper on "A Lost Principle of Beauty in Architecture," in which he pleads against the dominance of mathematical regularity in the building of streets and houses. He gives an interesting list of the irregularities purposely practiced by the old architects for the purpose of giving a charm to their buildings. The modern critic of decorative art, he says, would seem to have never learned anything in his life but the definitions of the first book of Euclid. In street reconstruction this principle of artistic irregularity is even more important; and Mr. Moore thinks that London's unassuming Strand is far more pleasant than any of the pompous, straight streets of Paris and America. He appeals to the English people to "prevent the beautiful curves in our old streets from being Haussmannized into mere vast chutes, as are the French and American boulevards. The success in every way of our chief new thoroughfares, Shaftesbury Avenue and Charing Cross Road, shows that absolute straightness is not needed in a modern street, even from the point of view which must always, I admit, be of first consideration—commercial success and practical utility. These thoroughfares make most natural and rhythmic companions to Piccadilly and Regent Street; and neither produces on the stroller the effect of mental lassitude and a desire to return home—that most undesirable of all desires from the shopkeepers' point of view—that any one feels after walking along one of the Paris boulevards. Can any one imagine a walk which for its distance is more fatiguing than from bottom to top of the Champs Elysées? The eye has nothing to rest on except the great arch, which for two thirds of the distance is out of easy range of the eye, and therefore an object of strain to it, till one has nearly reached the top."

A FAMOUS PREACHER.

Mr. T. H. Escott makes the sermons of the Rev. F. W. Robertson, recently published, the text of an essay on the personality of the famous preacher. The nature of Robertson's character is best shown in his portrait, and we quote Mr. Escott's description:

"It is a superbly intellectual brow and forehead. The lines of close and constant thought are scored in every lineament of the face. But the expression is not merely that of a thinker: it is also that of a born leader of men, of one fitted equally for the task whether the leadership were moral or physical, an attack upon a redoubt bristling with cannon and steel, or a resistance to the forces of social and religious corruption, banded in a corrupt age against gravity and truth. The scorn of the mean, of the false, of the low, lighting up the whole countenance, is that which so often illuminated, in pulpit, on platform, and in private talk, the features of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. The serenity of soul, betokened by the quiet eye, recalls in his happiest moments the tranquillity that Jowett always seemed to have at his command. Such in personal appearance was the thinker and teacher whose place, if the judgment of foreigners anticipate the verdict of a native posterity, has long since been fixed in the history of European thought during the present and expiring century."

ENGLAND'S DARKEST HOUR.

Mr. Sidney Low in "The Darkest Hour for England" describes the condition of England in 1797, when to her international troubles was added the appalling news of the mutinies at Spithead and the Nore, when the Bank of England was only saved by an order in council suspending cash payments, when Ireland was on the brink of rebellion, and the whole military and naval resources of central and western Europe were at the disposal of France. It is for the purpose of holding up to ridicule the extravagances which the present trifling war has produced that Mr. Low's article was written. The vaporing over skirmishes as great victories, he says, is only less ridiculous than the ludicrous vehemence with which the public congratulates itself on its calmness when it happens to lose a few hundred men. The Anglo-Saxon, says Mr. Low, is very much the reverse of Carlyle's grim inarticulate man:

"He is always admiring himself publicly and drawing attention to his own valor, his high spirit, his unconquerable resolution, the nobility of his bearing, his fine spirit in adversity—above all, the magnificent figure he must necessarily cut in the eyes of other and inferior peoples. If he wins a victory, though it be over practically unarmed savages, he talks of it in terms which would be rather exaggerated if applied to Austerlitz or Waterloo; if he incurs some trivial reverse he pats himself on the back and calls upon the world to marvel at his constancy because he does not immediately give way to a cowardly despair."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. F. G. Aflalo reviews the books on sport of all kinds published in 1899. Prof. F. W. Maitland replies to Canon MacColl's historical arguments on the ritualist controversy which appeared in the October number of the *Fortnightly*. A few pages are devoted to Mr. Hamilton Aïdé's magic drama, "A Gleam in the Darkness," which in a French translation was played in England last year by Sarah Bernhardt. Miss Fiona Macleod concludes her strange allegory, "The Divine Adventure."

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

MR. T. F. MANNING enlarges in the December *Westminster* on the obvious fact that the exciting and ostensible cause of war is, after all, only one among many concurrent causes, several of which are far-reaching and deep-seated. He illustrates his thesis by defending the Crimean War. He says:

"People who take account of only the proximate cause will aver that those hundreds of thousands of lives and hundreds of millions of money were sacrificed to maintain, on the one hand, the right of a score or two of Latin monks, and on the other hand the right of a few dozen Greek monks, to repair a church roof. But the true cause was highly complex, and taking all the elements into consideration, it appears to have been adequate and even imperative."

The outbreak of war in 1870 furnishes the writer with "an argument against the value of arbitration." He cites many other cases of international strife, but only touches on the present war as an apparent exception to the rule that in serious disputes the stronger nation will nearly always strike first, suddenly and quickly. This absence of warning, he thinks, "renders appeal to an arbitration court impracticable in a majority of cases."

THE DECLINE OF "LITERARY JOURNALISM" IN ENGLAND.

"The Lament of a Leader-Writer," who foresees the speedy extinction of his species, is a doleful enumeration of the extirpating influences. Among these he instances the titled *littérateur*. He says:

"It has been discovered by many astute editors, as well as by company promoters, that nothing draws so well as a title, and there is no difficulty in procuring the article at a proper fee. Those who have had the honor of corresponding with members of the peerage in private life are sometimes a little surprised at the great literary skill which they display in their public effusions. . . . I have known instances where the most capable specialists have been rejected in favor of some titled ignoramus, who was 'coached' for his subject and then wrote, or had written for him, a signed article upon it."

The electric telegraph, he bewails, has ruined literary journalism; "it is no longer necessary for a journalist to be able to write." He knows an able correspondent of a leading London newspaper "who would be puzzled to string together an article in decent English."

THE LEGEND OF THE MISTLETOE.

J. Hudson, M.A., after recounting the well-known Druidical use of the mistletoe as a "panacea" or "heal-all" peculiarly sacred to the Deity, tells the less familiar Scandinavian legend:

"Balder, the son of Freya (or Friga), the goddess of love, dreamed a dreadful dream, which warned him that he was in imminent peril of his life. The terrified goddess, by way of securing immunity for her dear son, exacted an oath from the four elements—earth, air, fire, and water, and all things springing from them—that they would do no harm to her son. This being given, the Scandinavian gods met in their hall, and placing Balder in their midst, amused themselves by casting stones and darts and other missiles at him. In obedience to the oaths that had been taken these all fell off from him, leaving him unscathed."

Loki, the spirit of evil, moved with curious envy, found out that all things had taken the oath of protection save the mistletoe, which was only a parasite and not a plant, and too feeble to do harm. Loki promptly makes an arrow of the mistletoe and puts it in the hand of Hoder, the blind god of fate, who pierces with it the heart of Balder. So Balder died, but rose again. The love associations of the mistletoe are Scandinavian, not Druidical, coming from its (somewhat dismal) connection with Freya, the northern Venus.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Horace Seale boldly undertakes to solve the problem of space and time. Space is ether. Matter also is ether. Time is continuous motion. Mr. J. Lee Osborne gives a rather dreary picture of commercial life in Australia, especially of its morality. J. Tyrrell Baylee, writing on the minimum wage and the poor law, suggests that all paupers should be reminded that they are bound, if possible, to repay out of their own subsequent earnings what they have taken from the earnings of others. Mr. W. M. Webb pleads for a more general adoption of biology as a branch of education. "A Plea for a New Ireland in a New Century" is put forward by Mr. Dudley S. A. Cosby, who advocates the establishment of "a sound system of education, which shall be entirely outside the control of the priests and other religious factions."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

IN the *National Review* for December "Ignotus" writes an article entitled "The Coming Storm in the Far East." His idea is that England must form an alliance with Japan which would take the shape of an understanding on the following lines:

"In the first place, each power would undertake to assist the other with its whole force in the event of the other power being attacked by a coalition of powers. Each would have single-handed to face any one power, and the alliance would only become operative if other armies or navies came into the field. In the second place, the territorial *status quo* in China would be upheld by both powers, and the maintenance of the 'open door' would be insisted upon in existing spheres of influence. In the third place, the pledge of support already given China by Lord Salisbury on behalf of England would be given by the Japanese Government on behalf of Japan. Finally, a naval and military convention would be concluded between the two allies, the minimum force to be maintained by each in the far East defined, and the dockyards and coaling-stations of each thrown open to the other in time of war. It will be observed that the understanding or alliance would be defensive and conservative, not offensive and aggressive."

THE SAMOAN SETTLEMENT.

The editor of the *National Review* thinks that England got much the worst of the Samoan settlement. He says:

"Great Britain habitually comes off second best in her dealings with Germany, and we can see from the various railroad and telegraph arrangements to which Mr. Rhodes has been induced to assent that 'the fault of the Dutch,' if it is a fault, consists as ever 'in giving too little and asking too much.' They have a positive genius for getting something substantial from the other side in exchange for something which either has no value or which does not belong to them. This process is admirably exemplified in the Samoan agreement, whereby we surrender our share of a group of islands in which we had great and growing interests, and where we had contracted sacred obligations to the natives who had stood by us in the recent disturbances which were provoked by the German consul. Our faithful allies will be now at the mercy of their enemies, and we can have no illusions as to the treatment they will receive, for German treatment of natives is a by-word. As a set-off, Germany foregoes her 'rights' in Tonga, which were practically *nil*, relinquishes some little bits of islands which will be no use to us or do not belong to her, rectifies a boundary in West Africa, probably to bring us into conflict with somebody else, and agrees to recognize our status in Zanzibar when other powers do!"

THE ITALIAN POLICY OF THE VATICAN.

Mr. Richard Bagot writes an article entitled "The Vatican at Work." Mr. Bagot, although an English Roman Catholic, entertains the strongest opinion as to the exceeding impolicy, not to say criminality, of the policy of the Vatican in forbidding Italian Catholics to take any part in Italian politics.

"The Vatican, in short, aimed at inoculating the administration of the hated Italian nation with the microbe of infidelity, of official peculation, and of social and political corruption. Thirty millions of Catholics

were to be left to the care of a government which, according to the calculation of the Vatican, could only be composed of Freemasons, atheists, and political adventurers. In order that the Roman *curia* might revenge itself upon those who had deprived it of its temporal authority and worldly emoluments, a Catholic nation was to be sacrificed, and an infallible pontiff, professing to be the representative of Christ and the successor of him to whom was confided the care of Christ's followers, gave his official sanction to the nefarious design by the issue of the decree that Catholics were to take no part in the elections to the Italian Parliament."

Mr. Bagot thinks that the dream of the Vatican is to destroy the Italian kingdom and to place Italy under the dual control of France and Austria, who would administer the civil government and restore the papal dominions in the Pope's name and interest.

A PLEA FOR A SYMBOLICAL SIGN LANGUAGE.

The Chinese minister, Sir Chihchen Lofengluh, contributes an article on the evolution of a tendency to adopt symbols as the universal written language of the world. The Chinese language is a symbolical language, as opposed to a phonetical or alphabetical language. He maintains that we are moving in the Chinese direction and sums up his conclusions as follows:

"The world is in want of a universal written language. I assert that Europeans are beginning to supply this want by *symbols* used as abbreviations; they are feeling their way toward a symbolic language, which is bound to be formed some day. Sounds, then, must be altogether discarded, or rather the attempt to represent sounds by writing. Sounds alter from day to day, dialects degenerate into *patois*, and nations are kept apart, instead of being drawn together, by such a means of writing. Codify your symbols and invent fresh ones, using some as determinatives, or key symbols, and so complete your parsigraphy. For whether you know it or not or wish it or not, you are drifting toward a universal language, in obedience to the law of evolution."

OTHER ARTICLES.

The Boer war is dealt with as part of "The Chronicle of Greater Britain." Another paper on a subject of the day deals with "The Transports and the Troops." There are literary articles on John Donne and Walter Bagehot and the usual chronicle of the month in America. Lady Rayleigh describes the position of "The Pupil Teacher in Rural Schools," and C. B. Luffmann describes "A Winter's Camp in Gippsland."

Sir H. Meysey Thompson, describing what should be done after the war, lays down three central and guiding principles: a direct representative of the Queen as the supreme authority in South Africa, including Rhodesia; one military force at the disposal of that representative; and equal rights for all white subjects of the Queen, whatever race they may be sprung from. Mr. H. W. Wilson, writing on "Democracy and the War," predicts that the Boers, like the Southern Confederacy, will "fight to the very last, and then unhesitatingly accept the inevitable. On the whole, this is much better than that they should submit before they feel that they are thoroughly beaten, and then cherish smoldering discontent in the future."

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

THE October number of the *Edinburgh* is notable to the politician for the grave doubts it expresses of British policy in South Africa. Travel is excellently represented by a description of the Blue and White Niles; old-age relief is the theme of original proposals in poor-law reform; the progress of English prose is passed in rapid survey; while the November meteors impart an astronomic interest to the varied contents.

WANTED—A LAW SCHOOL FOR THE EMPIRE.

A paper on the Inns of Court inquires whether they could not be turned to better purpose than they serve at present. The writer makes this proposal:

"A great school of law in the capital of the British empire could hardly fail to attract students from all parts of the world. The increasing facility of intercourse between the colonies and England would seem to be in itself a reason why the Inns of Court should endeavor to fill the large place which they held in past times. . . . To the law school of Bologna students in the Middle Ages came from all parts of Europe, drawn thither by the excellence of the teaching. Is there any reason why in the immediate future societies with so noble an historic past as the Inns of Court should not become the central law school of England and her colonies? The imperial idea is not necessarily one of expanding boundaries; its surest development lies in the strengthening of the connection of England and her colonies."

THE ANGLO-INDIAN NOVEL.

A study of Anglo-Indian novelists leads to the conclusion that they have made a not unworthy contribution to the repertory of English fiction, "which is perhaps the largest and most varied that any national literature contains."

"The narrow range of plot and character that may be observed in the pure Anglo-Indian novel reflects the uniformity of a society which consists almost entirely, outside the Presidency capitals on the seacoast, of civil and military officials. . . . The whole company that play upon the exclusively Anglo-Indian stage belong to one grade of society, and the hero is invariably a military officer. . . . The Indian novel belongs to the objective outdoor class; it is full of open air and activity, and the introspective psychological vein is almost entirely wanting."

THE REVIVAL OF CONNEMARA.

A paper on Connemara closes with a cheerful prospect of its development, thanks to Mr. Balfour's social policy, and especially his railroads:

"For the introduction of the railroad has changed the outlook of its people from the setting to the rising sun. It is no longer through the dreary sea-mists of the wild Atlantic seaboard that the western cottier strains his eyes to catch the vision of the 'terrestrial paradise.' . . . The railroad, which has brought the remotest west of Ireland within twelve hours' reach of England and eighteen of London, has taught its people to look eastward for the sources of wealth and the means of bettering their lot. And with the railroad has come a long-desired and much-needed change in the standard of the hotels and inns throughout the district, which is fast assimilating the conditions of touring in the west of Ireland to those which the traveler is nowadays accustomed to demand and entitled to expect."

THE FRENCH AND ITALIAN REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

THERE is a reference to the South African war in M. Charmes' chronicle in the second November number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. M. Charmes begins by quoting two stanzas from "Don Juan" in which Lord Byron abuses his countrymen, "Those haughty shopkeepers who sternly dealt their goods and edicts out from pole to pole, and made the very billows pay them toll," and again:

"Alas! could she but fully, truly know
How her great name is now throughout abhorred;
How eager all the earth is for the blow
Which shall lay bare her bosom to the sword."

The quotation is certainly apt in view of the recent outbursts of continental opinion against England. M. Charmes goes on to say that the English claims as put forward by Sir Alfred Milner at Bloemfontein, and later developed by Mr. Chamberlain, had for their object an attack upon the internal independence of the Transvaal. There is thus at the bottom of the war a political interest and, M. Charmes adds, a financial interest. He explains that the passion for money has entered into the whole of England's national life, and the touchstone which the English apply to everything is that of material gain. This plague, he thinks, has fascinated them to the point of rendering them unable to distinguish between justice and injustice, good and evil, right and violence. He quotes M. Montégut as saying that the exaggerated importance given to wealth is the great moral sin of England. In these circumstances M. Charmes regards the inertia of the great powers when confronted with the Boer war as by no means a creditable phenomenon at the close of the nineteenth century. "Is there still a Europe?" asks M. Charmes in despair, and he is evidently annoyed to think that England will not meet with other difficulties in her enterprise than those which result from the geographical conformation of South Africa and the heroic and desperate resistance of the Boers. England, he says, has fallen under the yoke of politicians of a new school, who do not sufficiently regard the interests and the dignity of the rest of the world. He admits that England is a great nation; but whereas she owes her greatness in the past to peace, she now dreams of making herself greater still by far different means. It may be noted in conclusion that M. Charmes makes no reference to the large blocks of South African mining stocks held in France and, to a less extent, in Germany.

INDIA THROUGH NATIVE SPECTACLES.

It is not a very pleasant view of the English power in India which M. Filon presents in the first of a series of articles. From various native sources, including Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji, who, it will be remembered, sat for a short time in Parliament, M. Filon proves, to his own satisfaction, that the English have brought practically nothing but misery and poverty to India. Before the arrival of the English the wealth of India was astonishing and was not confined within a few hands, but was spread through all classes by the caste system and the collectivist organization of the villages. When the English came all was changed, and India became an orange to be sucked dry by the Western adventurers. The period from the viceroyalty of Lord Cornwallis to 1858 did not differ much from the first, except that the exploitation of India was conducted with more regularity and method. It was calculated in 1838 that England had abstracted more than £700,000,000 from the riches of India. It might be thought that the abolition of the Old John Company in 1858 was the signal for a better system, but M. Filon is far from admitting this. Salaries, pensions, annuities, industrial dividends, every sort of extortion is practiced, he thinks, upon the natives, who are always paying. The great extension of railroad construction in India, though it provided work for the time, he regards as an unmitigated evil, because the natives have to pay the dividends and apparently do not profit by the railroads at all. In fact, M. Filon even makes England indirectly responsible for the outbreaks of plague, because the natives, being deprived of their wealth, could no longer purchase sufficient nourishment to protect them from the ravages of the disease. The remedy for this state of affairs is not to rise in revolt and chase the English out of the country; indeed, M. Filon admits that India is not yet ready for self-government. His remedies are milder: first, to admit the natives to a share in the various commercial and industrial enterprises, and, secondly, to admit native officials to the highest administrative posts by degrees.

FRANCE IN THE FAR EAST.

To the first November number M. Pinon contributes a long article on the position occupied by France in the far Eastern question. It is important to note that he declares, in so many words, that France is anxious to secure the open door in China, and he even adopts the words of Mr. St. John Brodrick, who lately said that England did not want to waste her time and energies in sterile struggles with other powers which pursued the same great work as herself. M. Pinon, however, hints not obscurely at a general continental alliance against the vaulting ambition of England in China, and he notes with satisfaction that it was in the far East that the Franco-Russian alliance took a practical form for the first time, and there also, for the first time since 1870, France and Germany found themselves in agreement.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among other articles may be mentioned a study by M. Gautier of Madame de Staël's relations with the republic of 1798; some interesting Carlist reminiscences by Count Remacle; the continuation of M. Dehérain's instructive articles on scientific agriculture; a description of the ambassadorship of the Duc Decazes in London from 1820 to 1821, by M. Ernest Daudet; and a criticism by the expert, M. Lévy, on the French budget of 1900.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE *Nouvelle Revue*, which has gone down in price to two francs net a number, keeps well up to its promise, and while paying as much attention to political matters as under the editorship of Madame Adam, an effort is evidently being made to introduce general topical articles, while the fiction remains, as always, exceptionally good.

M. Piou opens the first November number with a powerful attack on the present French Government

and its methods, while Madame Adam, whose "Letters on Foreign Politics" remain a permanent feature of the new series, gives a survey of the European situation and sees in the Transvaal war, and what may be called the Chamberlain policy, a great menace to France and, indeed, to the whole world. Madame Adam would like to see Russia seize the present opportunity to strengthen her position in Persia. The South African war is described by her as "unpopular, odious, and cynical."

THE FRENCH NAVY.

A powerful and well-written article on the modern French navy, and more particularly the present minister of marine, M. de Lanessan, one time governor of French Indo-China, is worthy of attention from all those interested in naval matters. The writer points out how fatal is the republican system of constantly changing the supreme naval authority. No attempt is made to choose a man who is really familiar with the technicalities of the work undertaken so lightly. Also the writer, M. Chassériaud, not content with merely blaming individuals and systems, shows what is, in France, the very rare moral courage of telling his fellow-countrymen how their navy is regarded by their only serious rival—that is, Great Britain. He says, perhaps truly, that there would have been no Siam crisis and no Fashoda crisis had not Great Britain been fully convinced of France's utter naval inferiority. He points out, what should be quite obvious even to the civilian mind, that no great fighting or defensive machine, like a navy or an army, can be either created or kept up without time, money, and, above all, a spirit of continuity. He recognizes that at the present moment the British navy has a numerical superiority of nearly three to one; what is more, he does not believe that this numerical superiority can ever be seriously attacked. What he would wish to see would be the creation of French colonial and coast navies, each of which, sufficing to itself, should be able to deal with each colonial or defensive problem as it may happen to arise. It is curious to note that M. Chassériaud, though a practical navy man, does not take into account—at any rate not in this article—the submarine boat, which is exciting so very much interest both in France and in America.

WORKERS' CONFERENCES.

M. Depasse contributes some interesting pages concerning the great workers' conferences which are becoming more and more usual on the continent and which are made up of delegates both from workmen and from employers. Hitherto the greater companies have tried to evade taking part in these conferences, but little by little they have been brought to see that in their being held lay one of the very few ways in which possible strikes might be averted. The writer believes that soon the whole civilized world will see the necessity of periodical conferences of this kind. In fact, what M. Depasse hopes to see realized are working committees, where all those practically interested in an industry shall be able to have their say, and these conferences, which should, he thinks, take place once a month or once every three months, would form a link between the worker and his employer which would not only directly contribute to the prosperity of each, but which would also cause them to get to know and respect one another. "Workmen could learn a great deal from the employers and the employers could learn a great deal from their workmen." In 1891 one of the greatest coal strikes which have ever taken place on the continent was practically terminated by a workers' conference which took place at Calais, and where both employers and men were represented. Unfortunately the employers—not unnaturally—prefer to let things remain as they have been so long. Even during the last few years great efforts have been made to abolish in France the existence of trades unionism. M. Depasse points out that in Great Britain, where trades unionism is so strong, trade is in an exceptionally flourishing condition. "The more your workers are intelligent and responsible, the more your industries will hold their own in the world of commerce."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Other articles consist of a rather finely worded apology for the terrible Klobb and Voulet drama; a charmingly illustrated paper on woman as she appears to the modern portrait painters; and a semi-biographical, semi-critical account of three notable contemporary women authors, who are, however, very little known in this country—namely, Madame Krysinska-Bellenger, Madame Meunier, and Madame Manoel de Grandfort.

REVUE DE PARIS.

WE have noticed elsewhere M. Malet's really terrible indictment of King Milan of Servia, the first violent attack on a living sovereign which has ever been, so far as we are aware, published in a leading continental review.

GREAT BRITAIN AND THE TRANSVAAL.

The first November number of the *Revue de Paris* opens with what may be called a typical, and therefore very unfavorable, analysis of the relations of Great Britain and the Transvaal. The writer, who has preferred to remain anonymous, has evidently made a special study of his subject. He admits, with considerable fairness, that many Englishmen and Englishwomen really believe the Transvaal war justified, and he puts in a few very clear words the usual arguments brought forward by those who uphold Mr. Chamberlain's policy. He declares, however, that these views are much more held by the lower classes than by what he calls the governing classes. "The Englishman rarely thinks for himself," he observes; "he accepts, without criticising them, the leading articles of the newspaper that has his confidence, and when he is pleased with a government he will, on a whole, accept what that government chooses to do." Then at great length the writer tells us the story of South Africa from the days of Vasco da Gama to the present time.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

M. Roux concludes his vivid account of the Suez Canal. The fact that he was actually one of M. de Lesseps' most trusted friends and assistants of course lends special interest to his work. De Lesseps was not only a great engineer; he seems also to have been, at least in the middle of his life, a great administrator. He was determined to bring some of the benefits of civilization to the country surrounding his beloved canal, and under his auspices the company built the hospital and the sanatorium of St. Vincent de Paul, where the employees and the workmen who actually did the manual work were nursed gratuitously. The sanatorium is at some distance from the hospital. More lately dispensaries

have been opened, children's schools have been founded, and coöperative stores and clubs have been inaugurated. M. Roux goes at great length into the financial affairs of the Suez Company. He points out that during the first seven years of the company's existence the hundred-dollar bonds could be bought for $60; they were worth last May close on $800.

LETTERS OF GEORGES SAND.

Some exceedingly charming letters of Georges Sand, which are full of human as well as of literary interest, are published in the second number of the *Revue*. In one of these she gives her views as to what should constitute a young people's library. Books of travel she puts first on the list; among novels, all of Walter Scott's and Fenimore Cooper's, she declares, are instructive, amusing, and healthy. She would approve of a certain amount of theatrical literature—Corneille, Schiller and Goethe, and an expurgated Shakespeare. She would also admit a certain amount of poetry and a few good fairy tales, but she adds, with great good sense, that it is important to leave even children and uneducated people to make, to a certain extent, their own choice. They will know what their intelligence will best be able to digest.

THE LATER NAPOLEONIC ERA.

It is curious to see that as time goes on the French writers, and apparently the French readers, return with interest to the later Napoleonic era. Very curious to the student of modern history is the account, which seems to have been founded on a number of original documents, of Louis Napoleon's effort to provoke an insurrection at Strasburg in the year 1836. Louis Philippe very wisely pardoned the arch-conspirator, and Prince Louis Napoleon found himself, to his great disgust, shipped off to America on board the French frigate *Andromeda*. Those left behind were formally tried early in 1837 amid a scene of considerable popular enthusiasm. They were all acquitted.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Other articles deal with the condition of the Théâtre Français in 1817; Lieutenant X. continues his not very interesting account of the Americans in Manila as seen from the deck of a French man-of-war; and MM. Depont and d'Eckardt analyze Pan-Islamism and the Islamic propaganda.

REVUE DES REVUES.

THE *Revue des Revues* for November 15 is a very interesting number, the principal article being that in which M. Victor Charbonnel gives his many reasons for believing in "The Mussulman Origin of the Jesuits." Bound up with his article he gives a short sketch of Loyola, whom his evident dislike of the Jesuits does not prevent him from recognizing as a great man.

Another article of much interest is that upon "Popular Universities in France and Abroad," giving some account of the aims of the popular university recently founded in Paris in the heart of the working quarter. Incidentally a generous tribute is paid to such English institutions as the Birkbeck, the Regent Street, and even the Battersea Polytechnic.

M. Frederic Passy writes "Against War," an article which is chiefly a summary of M. Bloch's recent pamphlets. Several interesting letters are published dealing with the question of the flood of more or less mischievous contents poured out from the French press and read greedily and indiscriminately by the lower classes. In an article entitled "A Stay at Aldershot" Captain de Malleray examines the British military system in detail and does not find it very good.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE *Nuova Antologia* blossoms out this month with a number of excellent illustrations. It leads off (November 16) with a striking portrait of Gabriele d'Annunzio, accompanying a long declamatory poem in a form of rhythmic blank verse called "Praises of the Heavens, of the Sea, of the Earth, and of Heroes." There is also a biographical sketch, with some half dozen illustrations, of the great Italian artist, Segantini, who died a few weeks ago in the prime of life, and who is principally known for his pictures of Alpine scenery.

But the most weighty article in the number is one entitled "New Problems," by the venerable author and senator, Pasquale Villari. It is a scathing indictment of the financial condition of Italy as regards not only the way the finances are disbursed, but the way they are gathered in. He begins the article—which no student of Italian politics should miss—by remarking that the Italian Government is the only one in the world for which no one has a good word to say. This he attributes in the main to her economic blunders. On the one hand there is reckless extravagance, on the other the most cheese-paring economy. Fifty per cent. of the taxes fall on the very poorest portion of the population. The products of agriculture are so heavily taxed that all over the country land is falling out of cultivation, and the south, which is purely agricultural, is taxed for the benefit of the north, which is, partially at least, industrial. Administrative corruption exists everywhere. The ex-minister reserves his conclusions for a future article; but it is evident that he looks to a more intelligent treatment of the agricultural problem as offering the best means of escape from existing difficulties.

The article that appeals most to the general public in the learned *Rivista di Scienze Biologiche* is one by Madame Lombroso on the evolution of thought in children. Perhaps the most definite conclusion she is enabled to draw concerns the very wide difference in clearness and precision in the answers given by the children of educated and those of uneducated parents.

The leading Italian magazines adopt a fairly friendly, or at least an impartial, attitude toward England in the matter of the Transvaal war. The *Rivista Politica e Letteraria*, however, publishes a lengthy and well-informed article, very bitter in tone against England, summarizing the history of her relations with the Transvaal, and declaring in conclusion that Great Britain has incurred the disapproval of nearly the whole civilized world by her act of aggression.

THE NEW BOOKS.

HISTORY.

Last month we noted the appearance of the fourth volume of Mr. James Ford Rhodes' history of the United States, covering the most important months of the Civil War. Almost simultaneously there comes from the press Mr. James Schouler's *History of the Civil War* (Dodd, Mead & Co.), which forms the sixth volume in the author's *History of the United States Under the Constitution*, thus completing, after an interval of eight years, a work which has withstood with unusual success the most searching tests that can well be applied to historical writing. Mr. Schouler has aimed to present the civil as well as the military side of the war, making full use of the historical materials that have accumulated during the last thirty years. He has intended to subordinate military details which are still matters of controversy, and what he aptly calls "the arithmetic of slaughter," in order to bring out in clear relief the actual aim and results of successive campaigns, as well as the characters of different commanders. Throughout this and all the preceding volumes of his great work, Mr. Schouler avows that it has been his constant purpose to do justice to all sides, and we believe it will be the general verdict of historical students that this purpose has been fulfilled to a remarkable degree.

In a little volume entitled *The Territorial Acquisitions of the United States* (Small, Maynard & Co.), Mr. Edward Bicknell presents an historical review of all the precedents established by this country in the matter of territorial expansion since the beginning of its government, beginning with the organization of the "Northwest Territory" in 1787 and coming down to the acquisition of Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines in 1898.

Capt. George Clarke Musgrave, who went to Cuba during the insurrection of 1895 as a correspondent for an English paper, and suffered imprisonment there, gives an account of the Cuban insurrection and the Spanish-American War in a volume entitled *Under Three Flags in Cuba* (Little, Brown & Co.). The author went to Cuba with prejudices in favor of Spain, but was soon converted into a sympathizer with the cause of the Cuban revolutionists, in whose service he for a time held a commission. He vividly describes life in the Cuban, Spanish, and American camps. He discusses the causes of the insurrection and the justification of American interference. His conclusions, on the whole, are optimistic.

Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, the author of *Home Life in Colonial Days* and of other domestic and social histories of colonial times, has written *Child Life in Colonial Days* (Macmillan), illustrated from many photographs of children's toys, books, and articles of dress, handed down from the olden time. Perhaps no other book gives so clear an insight into the every-day life of the American child in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Several of the most effective illustrations in the volume have been made from photographs of objects preserved in various historical museums, notably the Memorial Hall at Deerfield, Mass. All of the pictures have a basis in actuality.

The Puritan as a Colonist and a Reformer, by Dr. Ezra Hoyt Byington (Little, Brown & Co.), admirably supplements the author's previous book, *The Puritan in England and New England*. In this new volume the author gives a fuller and more connected account of the Pilgrims and Puritans as colonizers, as missionaries to the Indians, and as reformers in New England. John Eliot, the apostle to the Indians, and Jonathan Edwards, the great religious teacher, are among the chief personalities figuring in Dr. Byington's studies.

Prof. Goldwin Smith has entitled his two-volume history of England *The United Kingdom: A Political History* (Macmillan), the author's aim being to give to the ordinary reader a "clear, connected, and succinct view of the political history of the United Kingdom, as it appears in the light of recent research and discussion." The author's well-known misgivings as to the outcome of British imperialism are not concealed.

Prof. Edward Kirk Rawson, Superintendent of Naval War Records, has written *Twenty Famous Naval Battles: Salamis to Santiago* (Crowell). This work is in two volumes, and is illustrated. Professor Rawson's aim is to do for the sea what Creasy in his "Decisive Battles" has done for the land. Professor Rawson has had access to the best sources of information, and has been able to write a work of great interest.

It is significant that the most important work of our time on Pompeii, although written by a German archeologist, has been first published in the United States. We refer to Prof. August Mau's *Pompeii: Its Life and Art* (Macmillan). Professor Mau has for the past twenty-five years spent his summers among the ruins of Pompeii, and his winters in Rome, working up the newly acquired material, and has written much on the subject in both German and Italian. The present volume has been translated into English by Prof. Francis W. Kelsey, of the University of Michigan, and the liberality of the publishers has permitted the illustration of the work on an adequate scale. The author's researches have covered one of the most interesting fields in which the archeologist can labor.

Messrs. George W. Jacobs & Co., the Philadelphia publishers, have brought out illustrated editions of the late Dean Stanley's *Historical Memorials of Westminster Abbey*, and *Historical Memorials of Canterbury*.

BIOGRAPHY.

Among the autobiographies appearing in 1899, Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's *Reminiscences, 1819–1899*, (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) holds perhaps the first place in interest and importance. This work marks the completion of Mrs. Howe's eightieth year, and her recollections go back to the '20s and '30s in New York City, and to the '40s, '50s, and '60s in Boston. Her book opens with an account of New York City, and its literary and social life at that remote period when Bond Street was well "up-town." The more strenuous part of Mrs. Howe's life, however, was passed in Boston in the thick of the reformatory movements of half a century ago. Her acquaintance embraced almost every distinguished writer and philanthropist of our country for more than fifty years. Her experience in the anti-slavery and

woman's suffrage movements gave her an intimate personal knowledge of the leaders of those days, while her own part during the Civil War gave her a unique prominence among American women. In this volume Mrs. Howe tells the complete story of the writing of the famous "Battle Hymn of the Republic," in 1861, and the publishers have reproduced from the original manuscript the first draft of those famous lines.

Bishop Whipple's *Lights and Shadows of a Long Episcopate* (Macmillan) contains not only the personal reminiscences of the senior missionary bishop of the American Episcopal Church, but also much important historical material of permanent value. Bishop Whipple has long been recognized as one of the foremost authorities on the Indian problem in this country, and perhaps no man, within or without the Government service, is so well informed as to the whole course of our dealings with certain of the Indian tribes. The letters and other documents relating to these matters which Bishop Whipple gives to the world in this volume have a direct bearing on the problem of our future dealings with the wards of the nation. As a record of faithful and persistent missionary effort in the face of great obstacles, Bishop Whipple's review of his long frontier service is surely most encouraging to all who believe in the ultimate Christianization and civilization of the red man.

Horace Bushnell, Preacher and Theologian, by the Rev. Dr. Theodore T. Munger (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), while not the first biography of Bushnell, is the first attempt to give a full and connected account of his work as a theologian. As a study of the thought and work of one who, a quarter of a century ago, was in the vanguard of advanced theology, by a writer and thinker who to-day occupies a similar position in reference to the most modern theological thought, this volume has a peculiar interest.

E. P. Roe: Reminiscences of His Life, by his sister, Mary A. Roe (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is the story of a writer who achieved unusual success in the face of general disparagement from all the supposed masters of literary criticism. Notwithstanding the critics' sneers at the efforts of "a native author called Roe," it is a fact that Mr. Roe's novels not only had a phenomenal circulation during his lifetime, but are sold in large numbers and in various languages at the present day. Whatever one's critical judgment of Mr. Roe's works may be, the modest life which this little volume commemorates was surely a wholesome and preëminently useful one.

The Autobiographical Sketch of Mrs. John Drew (Scribners) has an introduction by her son John Drew, the actor, with biographical notes by Douglas Taylor. Mrs. Drew's retrospect, reaching over seventy years of active and faithful devotion to the dramatic profession, was not written, her son tells us, for publication, but for the perusal of her children and grandchildren. The record includes so much material of general interest relating to the progress of the dramatic art in the United States, that it would have been a great mistake to have permitted it to remain unpublished. In securing illustrations the publishers have largely depended on the remarkable portrait collection of Mr. Peter Gilsey.

A considerable part of *The Art Life of William Morris Hunt*, by Helen M. Knowlton (Little, Brown & Co.) is anecdotal, containing much of Hunt's entertaining and stimulating talk as taken down at the time by Miss Knowlton, who was his pupil. Hunt's famous work in the New York State Capitol at Albany is fully described. Besides portraits of the great artist, the illustrations of the work include reproductions of his principal paintings.

Mr. Frank Preston Stearns has written a new life of Prince Bismarck (Lippincott). Recognizing the fact that Bismarck's memoirs are not in a true sense an autobiography, that Busch makes no attempt to explain Bismarck's policy, and that Lowe's English life of Bismarck was written many years before his death, Mr. Stearns has undertaken to give to Americans "a clear statement of the character of the man, the principal events of his life, and an explanation of his policy as related to the historical events of his time." This is done in a straightforward, complete and well-proportioned volume.

Prince Kropotkin's *Memoirs of a Revolutionist* (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has appeared in consecutive issues of the *Atlantic Monthly*. But in the volume now published much has been added to the original text in those portions dealing with Prince Kropotkin's youth, his stay in Siberia, and his life in Western Europe. An appreciative introduction is furnished by Georg Brandes. The book is extremely interesting, not merely as to the revelations of an interesting personality, but for the light it throws on political and social conditions in Russia.

The inspiring life of the seventh Earl of Shaftesbury has been related in a volume by Jennie M. Bingham (Eaton & Mains.) Lord Shaftesbury's efforts which led to the abolition of child-slavery in the mining regions of England and to the shortening of the hours of labor in factories, and many other social and economic reforms, are fully and graphically described in this book.

The True William Penn, by Sydney George Fisher (Lippincott), has been written on the same lines as *The True Benjamin Franklin*, an earlier volume by Mr. Fisher. The common conception of William Penn as a "pious, contemplative man, a peace-loving Quaker in a broad brim hat and plain drab clothes, who founded Pennsylvania in the most successful manner, on beautiful, benevolent principles, and kindness to the Indians" is not wholly dissipated by Mr. Fisher's book, but it is demonstrated that the real Penn, "though of a very religious turn of mind, was essentially a man of action, restless and enterprising, at times a courtier and a politician, who loved handsome dress, lived well and lavishly, and, although he undoubtedly kept his faith with the red men, Pennsylvania was the torment of his life."

It is hard to see how the "Beacon Biographies" of eminent Americans (Small, Maynard & Co.) could be easily improved either in plan or in execution. Among the recent issues in this excellent series are sketches of *Aaron Burr*, *Frederick Douglass*, and *John Brown*, by Henry Childs Merwin, Charles W. Chesnutt, and Joseph Edgar Chamberlin, respectively. The authors of these sketches have been able to use materials published in existing biographies and autobiographies, condensing and rearranging to suit the purposes of the series. Each volume is prefaced by a running chronology embracing all the principal events of the subject's career.

Miss Lilian Whiting has written a sympathetic biography of her friend Kate Field (Little, Brown & Co.), whose life she fitly characterizes as "varied and prismatic." The volume has been enriched by the inclusion

of much of Miss Field's unusually interesting personal correspondence. There are letters from the Brownings and from other names distinguished in literature, and many of Miss Field's own characteristic letters to prominent Americans. The volume is illustrated by five portraits of Miss Field, one of them dating as early as 1852. Miss Field was a busy woman of affairs, and her friend's book gives revelations of an inner life which, to many, will be a surprise.

In *Browning, Poet and Man: A Survey* (Putnams), Elisabeth Luther Cary attempts an estimate of the place occupied by Browning's life and poetry in the generation to which he belonged. The author has embodied much of the best current criticism on Browning's work. The volume is liberally illustrated.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

A large proportion of our recent books of travel relate to the far East. Several accounts of explorations in comparatively unknown portions of Asia have appeared during the past few years. The latest of these is a volume by Mr. William Jameson Reid, entitled *Through Unexplored Asia* (Dana Estes & Co., Boston). In this volume Mr. Reid gives an account of a journey of exploration through the hitherto unknown regions of Western China and Eastern Thibet, during the year 1894, in conjunction with the late George Burton. Unfortunately, the author's loss of photographic plates made half-tone illustration impossible for this work. Accurate drawings were made, however, by Mr. L. J. Bridgman, with the collaboration of the author.

The Real Malay: Pen Pictures, by Sir Frank Athelstane Swettenham (John Lane), contains an English traveler's impressions of the Malay civilization. It also furnishes, incidentally, some bright side-lights on British methods of colonial administration.

Village Life in China: A Study in Sociology, by Arthur H. Smith, D.D. (Fleming H. Revell Company), is an important contribution to our knowledge of the every-day life of the Chinese people. The writer has had an extended experience in China, and writes with genuine enthusiasm of the possibilities of the country.

In Ghostly Japan (Little, Brown & Co.) is another of Mr. Lafcadio Hearn's inimitable interpretations of Japanese life and literature. Mr. Hearn, who lectures on English literature in the Imperial University at Tokio, might very properly be called to a lectureship on Japanese literature in some American university.

America To-day, by William Archer (Scribners), is in two parts, "Observations" and "Reflections." Under the head of "Observations" the author gives us his impressions of New York, Washington, Chicago, our university system, and other topics likely to interest the untraveled Englishman. In "Reflections" Mr. Archer discourses on "North and South," "Republic and Empire," "American Literature," and "The American Language." The latter essay, and especially Mr. Archer's discussion on American slang, is particularly interesting.

Like *Trooper 3809*, which was recently noticed in these columns, Mr. Horace Wyndham's *The Queen's Service; or the Real Tommy Atkins* (L. C. Page & Co., Boston) is a realistic study of army life from the private soldier's point of view, Mr. Wyndham presents a far more pleasing picture of military life than did the author of *Trooper 3809*. One does not gather from Mr. Wyndham's pages that the English private soldier is badly treated, badly fed, badly clothed, or badly trained. On the contrary, he writes as one quite content with his lot, although not blind to details where there is need of improvement. Just now, when the Queen's defenders are being hurried to South Africa by the tens of thousands, Mr. Wyndham's interesting study of the British soldier's lot is especially timely.

The British Isles Through An Opera Glass, by Charles M. Taylor, Jr. (George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia), is an attractive volume of travel sketches.

Famous Homes of Great Britain and Their Stories (Putnams) is a beautifully illustrated volume containing authentic historical sketches of several of the most famous of British castles. The work has been edited by Mr. A. H. Malan, and several of the chapters were contributed by him.

SOME BOOKS OF VERSE.

Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton has become known through her *Swallow Flights* and *In the Garden of Dreams*, and other volumes, as an especially charming lyrist and sonneteer. The daintily-bound little volume entitled, *At the Wind's Will* (Little, Brown & Co.) is carefully divided into the divisions which respectively include the lyrics, the sonnets, the rondels, the quatrains, and the translations. The first division of lyrics proper sees Mrs. Moulton without doubt at her best.

Mrs. Lucy W. Thacher, in *The Listening Child* (Macmillan), has made a selection from practically the whole field of English verse for the benefit of the youngest readers, and she has made a selection distinguished by excellent good sense and æsthetic consideration. It is very unusual to find so much intelligence used in a work of this character. The first part of the book prints verses selected from the writings of poets from William Shakespeare to Robert Louis Stevenson. A second and slighter division goes back beyond Shakespeare to Chaucer, and his immediate followers. It is a little difficult to imagine a child reading "Queen Alcestis and the God of Love," even with the aids of some modernized words. But with the exception of this one selection from Chaucer there is scarcely a stanza in the volume which would not be understood, or at least felt, by a fairly bright child of ten. Inasmuch as all the poetry is good poetry, the volume is quite as attractive to grown-ups as to children.

Mr Joel Chandler Harris furnishes an introduction to Miss Weeden's *Bandana Ballads* (Doubleday & McClure Company) and credits it with what he calls "the relish of reality." Certainly this is the one thing and the all-important thing that has been wanting in negro protraiture, whether in verse, or prose, or picture, and Miss Weeden does seem to have come decidedly nearer the real darky,—not the mystical, sainted, impossible darky of literature,—than any artist or writer we have recently seen in that field. The dozen portraits, "Shadows on the Wall," she has drawn for these verses are, in their way, excellent attempts to give a pictorial likeness of the negro countenance.

Mr. Dunbar, the young negro poet, is at his best in the subjects which furnish the contents of the present volume,—"The Deserted Cabin," "Chris'mus is a-Comin," "A Banjo Song," etc. (*Poems of Cabin and Field*, Dodd, Mead & Co.) His publishers have given the eight poems which make up this book a very gay setting, and the verses have been illustrated from photographs of darky characters and scenes, made by the Hampton Institute Camera Club. This method

seems more appropriate to the illustration of the negro life than any other purpose, especially on account of the failure of our illustrating artists to hit off the negro characteristics with anything like the perfection which they display in other fields of their art.

Mr. Ernest Howard Crosby's volume of verse (*A Plain Talk in Psalm and Parable*, Small, Maynard & Co.) is dedicated to his master, Tolstoy. The influence of another master, Walt Whitman, is suggested with almost startling clearness in the opening lines of his book; the rhythm, or lack of rhythm, according to your point of view, is Whitman's exactly. Almost all of the pieces in Mr. Crosby's book are inspired by social wrongs and injustices, and prophesy of a time when these will be changed.

The editor of *Nature Pictures by American Poets* (Macmillan) has done a decidedly interesting thing and done it well. Miss Marble has selected with care and discrimination the best verses written by Americans having their impulse primarily from the prompting of nature, and has classified these under such titles as "Landscape Vistas," "Music of Winds and Storms," "Sea, Streams, and Tides," "Bird-Notes and Crickets' Chirp," "Flower Songs," and "Calendar of the Seasons." William Cullen Bryant furnishes a greater number of nature poems to this anthology than any other poet; no writer appears earlier than Bryant, Whittier and Longfellow. The West furnishes Ella Higginson, of Council Grove, Kansas, John James Piatt, of Indiana, James Whitcomb Riley, Edith Thomas and Maurice Thompson; while the South produces John B. Tabb and Christopher P. Cranch.

BOOKS ON MUSIC.

Mr. Elson's book on *The National Music of America* (L. C. Page & Co.) begins with the Pilgrims' psalms, and includes the distinctive songs of the South as well as those of the North. The book is written with care, and a good many current superstitions as to the origin of certain of our songs are dispelled. Mr. Elson's researches, which have evidently not been slight nor unintelligent, do not, however, explain the mystery of the origin of "Yankee Doodle." The first printed version of "Yankee Doodle" that Mr. Elson can find is in George Coleman's opera, printed in 1784, entitled "Two to One;" but the air was freely used by both English and Americans long before any printed version.

In the same series and with companion binding to Mr. Elson's book, is *Famous Violinists of To-day and Yesterday* (L. C. Page & Co.), by Henry C. Lahee. The father of violin playing was Arcangelo Corelli, who was born in Bologna in 1653, and who laid the foundation of all future development of technique. Mr. Lahee in his comprehensive review of the great violinists, sketches the musical achievements of hundreds of the followers of Corelli, dwelling for a time on the more notable and more modern masters, especially Paganini and Ole Bull, who has a chapter to himself. Of all contemporary violinists, Mr. Lahee places Joseph Joachim as clearly the first. There is a chapter on women violinists, and a final one on famous quartettes.

The difficult task that Mr. Martin A. Gemünder has appointed for himself in his monograph entitled *What Constitutes Good Music?* (Blumenberg Press) is to show not what music and musicians are good, but what constitutes a good or bad effect in music, and who is to be the judge. He points out that among the greatest musicians the standards of good music are certainly not accurate and final, for Schumann classed Meyerbeer as a charlatan, Wagner thought him the essential expression of "incoherency and empty striving after outward effect," while Rubinstein thought his operatic compositions were of the first rank; Mendelssohn thought little of Schumann, Moscheles thought Chopin harsh and inartistic, Handel depreciated Gluck, no one knows how many depreciators Richard Wagner has had, and so the story goes on. In spite of these discouraging phenomena, Mr. Gemünder proceeds to search for the law determining good music, with the result that the farther he goes the more fixed becomes his conclusion "that there is nothing good in art or music *per se*, aside from its subjective effects.

A useful work by Mr. Charles Annesley, *The Standard Opera Glass* (Brentano's) condenses the plots of 123 celebrated operas. Inasmuch as our most important operatic work is invariabiy rendered in French, Italian or German, there will undoubtedly be great numbers of music lovers who will find *The Standard Opera Glass* just what they have needed to give them an intelligent and accurate idea of the scheme and context of each operatic story. Although the number of operas reviewed in the volume is so great as to allow but three or four pages at the most to any one, the condensations of the stories are quite enough in detail to clear away that hazy condition as to the events depicted, in which, for instance, a performance of "*Die Meistersinger*" in German is sure to leave the greater part of an American audience.

Not unlike Mr. Annesley's aim is Miss Mabel Wagnalls' in her *Stars of the Opera* (Funk and Wagnalls). Miss Wagnalls, however, begins her volume with a series of interviews with such operatic celebrities as Sembrich, Eames, Calvé, Nordica, Lehman and Melba and ends her book with a pretty full recital of the plots of twelve of the most popular operas in which the above named artists take the parts of the heroine. Miss Wagnalls is herself a musician and achieved success as a piano soloist in both Europe and America. The book is written more particularly for the purpose of informing and entertaining those who are fond of dramatic music, but have not the opportunity to familiarize themselves with grand opera.

Professor Hugh A. Clarke's essay on *Music and the Comrade Arts* (Silver, Burdett & Co.) is designed to show music's relationship with, and interdependence upon, the comrade arts, especially the relation of music and the various arts to science. His point of view is that though art is based on science, its expression in the higher forms is not subject to scientific laws but to æsthetic laws, which may be formulated in the future by an advanced psychology.

Miss Esther Singleton's effort in *A Guide to the Opera* (Dodd, Mead & Co.) to explain the plots of the operas we are accustomed to hearing in New York is rather the most thorough and intelligent of the various books that have appeared this year for this purpose. She assumes that it is necessary to understand the significance of the musical phrasing as the composer meant it quite as much as the words and the action. In addition to the words and music she has incorporated the stage directions, and everything necessary to a complete comprehension of the scene at any moment. The chief works of Mozart, Beethoven, Glück, Meyerbeer, Verdi and Wagner are explained by Miss Singleton in a happy style which makes her book very readable in itself, quite apart from its value as a work of reference. The

book is illustrated with portraits of the chief operatic stars of the Metropolitan Opera Company, shown in character.

Miss Anna Alice Chapin in her volume, *Wotan, Siegfried, and Brünnhilde* (Harpers) has for her purpose not the interpretation of any opera, but rather a sympathetic study of the three chief characters of the Nibelungenlied. She wishes to give an idea of the broad philosophy of Wagner as exemplified in these three salient characters. She analyzes the life of Wotan in the Opera, separating the four periods in the development of his character. She thinks that Siegfried alone among all the characters drawn in literature is the only being absolutely natural, and interprets Wagner's dragon-slayer as a perfectly elemental and primitive being, influenced only by instinct. Brünnhilde is called the noblest piece of character development in all of Wagner's works.

Turning from American books about music to some American music itself, we find Mr. Willard Patten's oratorio of *Isaiah* (W. J. Dwyer & Bro.) such a sincere and valuable work in the interests of the best and highest forms of music is thoroughly commendable. The composition is published in complete vocal score, with piano accompaniment. The text is selected from the Book of Isaiah, and the music was composed by Mr. Patten. The oratorio is scored for a full orchestra. When Mr. Patten brought his chorus from Minneapolis to Omaha at the time of the exposition there, the performance of this oratorio was quite the musical episode of the exposition, and the work of this native composer was not only highly pleasing to the audience, but elicited Mr. Theodore Thomas' hearty commendation.

SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

In *The Future of the American Negro* (Small, Maynard & Co.) Mr. Booker T. Washington goes directly to the point, and discusses the facts of the negro's situation in the South in the same clear, definite, and forcible way in which he has frequently presented the case on the public platform, both North and South. Mr. Washington has written a book that will undoubtedly be very widely read by the Northern friends of the work at Tuskegee, and, what is perhaps more to the purpose, it will be read by intelligent Southerners who believe that Tuskegee holds the key to the ultimate solution of the race problem in their section.

Prof. Nicholas Paine Gilman, whose previous studies of profit-sharing and socialism have commanded the respect of American economists, has written a work entitled *A Dividend to Labor* (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) in which he describes employers' "welfare-institutions," a scheme by which labor receives an indirect dividend, the dividend in the profit-sharing scheme being regarded as direct. Professor Gilman has collected much cheering information regarding the liberality of American employers to their workmen. He has also made a diligent study of some experiments and enterprises in Europe.

Interest in the ever-present trust problem has called out a new edition of *Monopolies and the People* (Putnams), by Mr. Charles Whiting Baker, the editor of *Engineering News*. Mr. Baker regards the death of competition in the great proportion of industries as inevitable, and government regulation as likewise inevitable. He is a firm believer in the public ownership and management of many industries.

Mr. Hugh H. Lusk, formerly a member of the New Zealand Parliament, who has written much for American magazines and reviews on Australasian topics, is the author of a little volume, entitled *Our Foes at Home* (Doubleday & McClure Company), which discusses many of the practical questions of the day, giving special attention to the subject of monopolies. Like Mr. Baker, Mr. Lusk pronounces in favor of public control of natural monopoly.

Dr. A. F. Weber's treatise on the *Growth of Cities in the Nineteenth Century* (Columbia University) gives the result of an investigation chiefly conducted in the unrivalled statistical library of the Royal Statistical Bureau in Berlin. While primarily intended for the specialist, the essay has been expanded into a popular work, technical terms being explained and illustrated so that the book becomes a manual for general reference, and is a notable addition to the small number of reliable works of this class.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

A large staff of editors, headed by Mr. Justice Brewer, of the United States Supreme Court, is engaged in the preparation of *The World's Best Orations* (St. Louis: Ferd P. Kaiser), a work to be completed in ten volumes, giving in full the oratorical masterpieces of all countries, "from Demosthenes to date." As the arrangement is alphabetical according to the names of the orators, the first volume gives a fair indication, we presume, of the range of selection to be observed. Among the orators represented in this volume are Pierre Abélard, the Adams family, Æschines, Saint Anselm, Thomas Arnold, Henry Ward Beecher, and Judah P. Benjamin. These are only a few of the names, taken at random from the table of contents, but they give some idea of the inclusiveness and extent of the undertaking. The print and paper are excellent. The work is sold only by subscription and Messrs. J. F. Taylor & Co., 5 and 7 East 16th St., New York, represent the publishers in the East.

The *National Cyclopædia of American Biography* (James T. White & Co.) is chiefly distinguished by the great number of sketches of living men which it contains. The publishers have made a special point of securing accurate data concerning the lives of Americans prominent at the present time. For example, in the ninth volume, which has only recently appeared, we find sketches of all the chief participants in the Spanish-American War. It is a rule strictly followed in the compilation of this cyclopedia to submit all biographical sketches to the subjects themselves, or to relatives, for correction and revision. The editors seem to have had a particularly difficult task in securing an authentic biography of Whistler, the artist, and the sketch which appears in this ninth volume is said to have been the result of "five years of labor and research, investigation, and correspondence." It probably gives for the first time in print an authentic account of that eccentric artist's ancestry and early life. This is only one instance of the industry and diligence which have marked the editorial management of this publication. In the present volume there are sketches of several eminent men recently deceased, including Prof. O. C. Marsh, of Yale, Prof. Daniel G. Brinton, of the University of Pennsylvania, the Hon. Thomas M. Cooley, of Michigan, and Col. Robert G. Ingersoll. As a whole, the work is invaluable for purposes of reference, particularly in a newspaper or magazine office.

A unique volume entitled *The Private Stable*, by "Jorrocks," (Little, Brown & Co.) deserves mention as a book of encyclopedic range in the facts and suggestions presented for the benefit of horse owners. Everything that needs to be known for the successful establishment and management of a private stable seems to be contained between the covers of this excellent manual. The publishers have enhanced the value of the book by excellent illustrations, which they have lavishly supplied.

NEW EDITIONS OF STANDARD WORKS.

In the series of "The World's Great Books" (Appleton) the most recent issues are Pope's translation of Homer's *Iliad*, with a critical introduction by William C. Wilkinson; De Quincey's *Confessions of an English Opium Eater*, and *Literary Reminiscences*, with a critical and biographical introduction by Ripley Hitchcock; Richard Henry Dana's *Two Years Before the Mast*, with introduction by Charles Warren Stoddard; and James Anthony Froude's *Julius Cæsar*, with an introduction by Burke A. Hinsdale. These titles serve to show the range and scope attempted by the publishers in the production of this valuable series. The introduction to each volume is an important feature. The reader is by this means put in touch with the author, and led to appreciate more fully the significance of the work to which his attention is directed. Each volume thus far made up in this series is a classic in itself, quite worthy of a place in the most select library. The paper, typography, and binding are in keeping with the dignity of the series.

Mr. Thomas B. Mosher publishes some exquisite reprints of choice works which are most appropriate for gift purposes. In "The Brocade Series" the new issues this season are *The Tale of the Emperor Constans*, by William Morris; *The History of Over Sea*, by William Morris; *Emerald Uthwart*, by Walter Pater; *Hours of Spring and Wild Flowers*, by Richard Jefferies; *Will o' the Mill*, by Robert Louis Stevenson; and *Marjorie Fleming*, by John Brown. These volumes are printed on Japan vellum, but are sold at the low price of 75 cents. To "The Old World Series" have been added *The Story of Ida*, by Francesca Alexander, with a preface by John Ruskin; *A Child's Garden of Verses*, by Robert Louis Stevenson; *Monna Innominata*, by Christina G. Rossetti; and *The Tale of Chloe*, by George Meredith. The volumes in this series are printed on Van Gelder paper, and are bound in flexible Japan vellum, with white parchment wrappers. Mr. Mosher also issues an English prose translation of *The Georgics of Virgil* by J. W. Mackail in two small volumes. All of these titles represent the highest art in dainty bookmaking.

Messrs. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. have added this season to their well-known "Faïence Edition" of reprints *An Attic Philosopher in Paris*, by Émile Souvestre; *Barrack Room Ballads, and Other Poems*, by Rudyard Kipling; *The Blithdale Romance*, by Nathaniel Hawthorne; *Cyrano de Bergerac*, by Edmond Rostand; *English Traits*, by Ralph Waldo Emerson; *My Uncle and My Curé*, by Jean de la Brète; *Prue and I*, by George William Curtis; *The Snow Image, and Other Twice-Told Tales*, by Nathaniel Hawthorne; and *Walden*, by Henry D. Thoreau. These volumes are published at 75 cents each, and are provided with illustrations, and also with an introduction by writers well-known in literature. The same publishers present "The Copley Series" of reprints, in which the volumes differ from those in the preceding series by having a colored frontispiece, larger sized page, and finer paper and binding. These books are published at $1.00, and comprise Mrs. Gaskell's *Cranford*, Halévy's *Abbé Constantin*, Hawthorne's *House of the Seven Gables*, Longfellow's *Evangeline*, Kipling's *Barrack Room Ballads*, Longfellow's *Hiawatha*, Meredith's *Lucile*, and *Prue and I*, by George William Curtis. From the same house come a two-volume edition of George Eliot's *Middlemarch*, with numerous drawings by Alice Barber Stephens, and, in the series called "Children's Favorite Classics," *Robinson Crusoe*, and *The Swiss Family Robinson*.

Messrs. Harper & Brothers have begun the publication of a new series of reprints which they call "Little Books by Famous Authors," and which is to include the best short stories, sketches, and verse by famous authors. The books are daintily made up in narrow 16mo size. The first title in the series is *The First Christmas*, which is taken from *Ben-Hur*, by Gen. Lew Wallace. This is followed by *The Story of the Other Wise Man*, by Henry van Dyke, and *Two Gentlemen of Kentucky*, taken from James Lane Allen's *Flute and Violin*.

ILLUSTRATED BOOKS.

Mr. Sidney Lanier's *Bob, The Story of our Mockingbird* (Charles Scribner's Sons) is a conscientious recital of the rather dramatic events in the bird's life, and its tragical ending. The poet studied this particular songster with great faithfulness from day to day, and the resulting account is of value as an accurate contribution to amateur observation in natural history, as well as a charming picture of a poet and a mocking-bird. The publishers have reinforced the little sketch from both of these points of view by the unusual and elaborate methods of illustration and printing. The illustrations in particular are worthy of remark. The artist, Mr. Dugmore, at the expense of much time and pains made scores of photographs of mocking-birds of all ages, from those just hatched to the final adult. Selecting the best of these photographs, Mr. Dugmore colored them and they have been reproduced in color in the book, showing "Bob" in all stages of his development, and in the more dramatic episodes of his life.

The inimitable sketches of slum child-life which made Mr. Michael Angelo Woolf known to all Americans have been brought together here by Mr. Joseph Henius in a volume entitled *Sketches of Lowly Life in a Great City* (Putnams), which includes not only the best of the contributions to *Life* and *Judge*, but a number of hitherto unpublished drawings. The quaint child-philosophy and humorous contrasts of the illustrator have a flavor all their own. Mr. Henius calls attention to the tenderness and simplicity which mark all Mr. Woolf's conceptions, and assures us that they were principles of the man's character. Mr. Woolf, by the way, was born in England, so a biographical note tells us, his father being a musician of eminence and possessing talent in pictorial art and literature as well. The illustrator died last March.

Mr. Oliver Herford is responsible for the nonsense verses, as well as the nonsense pictures in his *Alphabet of Celebrities* (Small, Maynard & Co.) He makes such good hits in several of his verses that one is quite inclined to forgive his audacity. This is a sample:

> "K is the Kaiser, who kindly repeats
> Original verses to Kipling and Keats."

RECENT NOVELS.

Mr. W. D. Howells first introduced us to those stand-by characters of his, Mr. and Mrs. March, in *Their Wedding Journey*. We have now the felicity of knowing their experiences abroad twenty-five years afterwards. *Their Silver Wedding Journey* is a most delightful story of foreign travel in the very best and most charming manner of the veteran author who, in spite of all the newcomers, holds firmly his place as our foremost writer of fiction and man of letters. The two-volume illustrated edition of *Their Silver Wedding Journey* has many excellent illustrations by W. T. Smedley, and dozens of well-printed bits of half-tone reproductions from photographs of European street scenes, buildings, and so on. (Harpers.)

The editor of the *Bookman*, Professor Peck, in a review of the novels of 1899, concludes with a list of those that he regards as the six best ones from a literary point of view; and five of the half-dozen are by Americans. It does not, of course, follow that Mr. Peck's verdict is final, but it is interesting to know that he places at the top of the list a volume of eight tales by an American woman, Edith Wharton, collected under the title *The Greater Inclination*. Mrs. Wharton's are stories of great delicacy of literary art, resembling in that regard the better work of Mr. Henry James. (Scribners.)

The Maternity of Harriott Wicken, another of Mr. Peck's selections, is by Mrs. Henry Dudeney, and is an English story, essentially a study in morbid psychology, very unpleasant and powerful. It is curious to note how disagreeable these strong English women writers usually are, and how wholesome and attractive by contrast are the books of most of our American women writers, who also, as a rule, greatly excel their English contemporaries in point of literary art. (Macmillan.)

Two posthumous novels by American writers, namely, Mr. Edward Noyes Westcott's *David Harum*, and Mr. Harold Frederic's *The Market Place*, are included in Mr. Peck's favorite half-dozen. The remaining two are Mr. Winston Churchill's *Richard Carvel*, and Mr. Edwin Caskoden's *When Knighthood Was in Flower*. Professor Peck assigns a prominent place to Mr. Richard Whiteing's *No. 5 John Street*, a London story of extreme social contrasts, the author of which, by the way, now gives us a new story, *The Island*, or "The Adventures of a Person of Quality." *The Island* is a rewritten tale with several fresh chapters, the first edition of which had appeared in England previous to *No. 5 John Street*. The motive of it is somewhat the same as that of Mr. Howells' *Altruria*, and the story is really a satire on our modern civilization. (Century.)

A no less able student than Mr. Whiteing of English social conditions, and an even more powerful writer, is Mr. Arthur Morrison, whose earlier books called *Tales of Mean Streets*, and *A Child of the Jago*, are now added to by the appearance of a third called *To London Town*. Mr. Morrison knows the life of the poor in the London slums better, perhaps, than any other writer. (Stone.)

In strict seasonableness, we ought to have mentioned last month the fact that Mr Thomas Nelson Page has written a charming Christmas story. But although Christmas will have been past when these running notes appear, Mr. Page's *Santa Claus's Partner* will not have become obsolete. It is a charming little story, most beautifully printed and illustrated, and, like Dickens' tales, good for many Christmases to come. (Scribners.)

Mr. A. T. Quiller-Couch has written a good story of Cornwall, entitled *The Ship of Stars*, (Scribners) that now appears in book form after having been a success as a serial in *Scribner's Magazine*. Mr. Frank R. Stockton, whose books are to have the deserved honor of being reprinted in a uniform series, to be known as the "Shenandoah Edition" (presumably in reference to the pleasant fact that Mr. Stockton has become possessed of a charming old Virginia home in the Shenandoah Valley) contributes to the stack of recent stories a book called *The Vizier of the Two-Horned Alexander*. This tells the adventures of an oriental person who a long time ago drank heavily at the Fountain of Youth, with the consequence that he is living comfortably in New York to-day as a Wall Street broker after having known numerous great people, from Abraham and other Old Testament worthies down to Napoleon and celebrities still more recent. (Century.)

Mr. Maurice Hewlett is an English writer of promise, and already of distinction, whose *Little Novels of Italy* has been regarded by the critics as one of the most original and important of the books of the year. An article in the Book Number of the *Outlook*, which we may reasonably attribute to Mr. Hamilton Mabie, says that "In point of beauty of style and literary quality a first place must be given to Mr. Hewlett's *Little Novels of Italy*, a collection of short stories of Renaissance life, manners, and morals." Conceding its rare insight into the life of those times, and its value regarded as literary art, the book is not to be read for anything that its characters can teach modern people as to the proper ordering of life; for Renaissance morals were outrageously bad. (Macmillan.)

Margaret Sherwood's *Henry Worthington* is an American college novel, with its scenes laid possibly in Boston. Henry is a young professor of sociology, and his department is endowed by a commercial gentleman who does not like Henry's progressive teachings, with the consequence that we find ourselves in the very thick of the modern problem of academic freedom. (Macmillan.)

Among current English novels is Mary Cholmondeley's *Red Pottage* (Harpers), an English society story, built upon conventional lines but rather better than the average; and Mr. Morley Roberts' *The Colossus*, a political novel having to do with Mr. Cecil Rhodes as an empire-builder and railway financier. (Harpers.)

Several of our younger American novelists have brought out excellent volumes of short stories, among which are to be mentioned with much commendation Mr. Bliss Perry's eight tales collected under the title *The Powers at Play* (Scribners). Mr. Richard Harding Davis' five good stories embraced in a volume called *The Lion and the Unicorn* (Scribners) reflect somewhat the wide range of Mr. Davis' recent interests and activities. Mr. Stephen Crane's *The Monster, and Other Stories* (Harpers) shows no falling off in the freshness, directness, and power of the work which had already given Mr. Crane a distinct place among our writers of fiction.

Mr. Zangwill's new book, *They That Walk in Darkness*, is a collection of stories which includes a former

volume, *Ghetto Tragedies*, to which a number of new tales of modern Jewish life are added. (Macmillan.)

American readers have reason to be thankful for every opportunity given them to read the books of the great Hungarian novelist, Maurus Jokai. The one now brought out under the name *The Poor Plutocrats*, translated by R. Nisbet Bain, has never had an English rendering before, although translations of it are extant in many other languages. Its Hungarian name is *Szegeny Gazdagok*. Under the circumstances, the translator may be pardoned for inventing a pronounceable title. (Doubleday & McClure.)

HISTORICAL FICTION—AMERICAN.

We may leave it to the critics to account, if they can, for the changing fashions in popular literature. The immediate fact remains that just now there is a strong taste in our own country for the blending of romance and history upon a plan that proposes to give us at once a readable story, true to the fundamental facts of life and human nature, and at the same time a trustworthy and illuminating study of some period or phase of our history, or some interesting locality or section of the country. Several recent American books of this kind have been remarkably successful. To what extent they may, or may not, hold their own as permanent contributions to our standard literature, is purely a question of opinion. They will at least have served an extremely good purpose in providing several millions of American readers with entertainment and instruction of a high order.

The Revolutionary period has thus far lent itself more successfully than any other to the ends of our historical novelists; and of recent stories dealing with that period three have been successful beyond the rest. Two of these,—Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's *Hugh Wynne* (Century), and Mr. Winston Churchill's *Richard Carvel* (Macmillan),—have been already noticed in these pages. The latest is Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's *Janice Meredith* (Dodd, Mead & Co.), which made its preliminary appearance by instalments in the *Bookman*. It appeared in book form in October, and it will have sold by the first of January probably not less than 150,000 copies. *Richard Carvel*, which had made its appearance in June, had gone steadily on, and late in December had reached 260,000. Dr. Weir Mitchell's *Hugh Wynne* was the earliest of this trio, having appeared in the *Century Magazine* as a serial, after which it came out in book form in September, 1897. Its large sales have received a new impetus from the appearance of an illustrated two-volume edition, in which the carefully selected pictures of historical buildings, places, scenes and personages, together with the fine drawings of Mr. Howard Pyle illustrating the story itself, greatly add to the value of the novel considered as a contribution to local history,—the Philadelphia of Franklin's time being the central point of Dr. Mitchell's narration.

There has been of late a protracted discussion in the literary press of the similarities and dissimilarities of these three historical novels. George Washington appears in them all, though only incidentally in *Richard Carvel*. Mr. Churchill's work was well advanced before *Hugh Wynne* appeared, and he did not allow himself the pleasure of reading Dr. Mitchell's great book until his own was finished; so that there could have been no conscious or intentional imitation at any point. Mr. Ford, on the other hand, certainly knew nothing about *Richard Carvel* when he was writing *Janice Meredith*. In short, each of the three is a perfectly independent piece of work, and each has been written by a man unusually well qualified to write either fiction or history. They all deserve the success they have attained.

Of the latest,—namely, *Janice Meredith*,—the opinion may be ventured that it will survive as a remarkably thorough and valuable study of Revolutionary history, rather than as a work of fiction *per se*. The story is agreeable, indeed, and never drags, so that the book will not lack for readers who care only for the entertainment they get from wholesome and lively romance. But it is to be remembered that Mr. Ford is one of our most learned and accurate authorities upon Revolutionary history; and the light that this book throws upon political and social conditions, particularly in the colony of New Jersey, where its scenes are principally laid, and also upon Washington's military campaigns, entitles it to very high praise from the historical standpoint. Especial mention should be made of the illustrated two-volume edition, to which Mr. Pyle has lent his best efforts.

Hugh Wynne and *Janice Meredith* both give us, among other things, some very entertaining chapters dealing with gay social life in Philadelphia during the period of the British occupation, when Washington's soldiers were suffering at Valley Forge, and when Major André and the other British officers were turning the heads of the maidens of the Quaker City. A spirited tale of that winter in Philadelphia is *D'Arcy of the Guards*, by Louis Evan Shipman. D'Arcy is a British captain who eventually marries a Philadelphia girl, and whose adventures are entirely true to the historical and military conditions of 1777. (Stone.)

From Kingdom to Colony is a Revolutionary novel by Mary Devereux, who takes us to New England, the scenes being laid chiefly at Marblehead, Mass., and the time being the opening period of the war. The heroine is described as "a delightfully inconsistent and fascinating character," and she,—like the heroines of almost every one of our group of revolutionary novels,—enjoys the friendship and protecting favor of His Excellency George Washington. (Little, Brown & Co.)

Among the recent stories based upon American history are some of the pre-Revolutionary times. *The Sword of Justice*, by Sheppard Stevens, deals with the historical period of Francis Parkman's *Pioneers of France in the New World*. The time is the latter part of the sixteenth century, and the scene is Florida, with Spaniards, Frenchmen and Indians as the characters. The manner in which this book depicts Indian life and characteristics, is worthy of special commendation. (Little, Brown & Co.)

In Castle and Colony, by Emma Rayner, is a story of the early settlement on the Delaware River of the Swedes and Finns. This colony had its period of hard struggle with the Dutch, by whom it was absorbed before they, in turn, yielded to the English. A readable story manages to include an authentic historical study of this Swedish settlement. (Stone.)

Mistress Content Cradock, by Annie Eliot Trumbull, is a study of the Massachusetts Bay Colony during the time of the troubles which resulted in the banishment of Roger Williams. It is based upon an exceptionally thorough acquaintance with the social and religious life and customs of primitive New England. (Barnes.)

The Rev. Dr. Cyrus Townsend Brady achieved a worthy place among the writers of historical romance

a year or two ago with his story of the Revolutionary period entitled *For Love of Country*. This is now followed by a second book, *For the Freedom of the Sea*, which is a romance of the War of 1812, and which rests its historical climax upon the great sea fight between the *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*. Archdeacon Brady brings to the aid of ample historical scholarship the gift of spirited narration. (Scribners.)

Another story of the navy of the period of the second war with England is entitled *Smith Brunt, U. S. N.*, by Waldron K. Post. Our great naval hero Lawrence is a prominent character, and the scenes shift from the vicinity of New York to the thrilling deeds of our navy off the coast of Tripoli in the Mediterranean. (Putnams.)

The Mormon Prophet, by Lily Dougall, is admitted by Congressman-elect Roberts to be "a strong, clear-cut, purpose-story, lofty in tone; its incidents easily within the limits of probability, and singularly free from the vulgarity of nearly all the writers of fiction who have made their work at any point touch Mormonism. It is an honest effort to account for Joseph Smith and his work." This quotation is from an elaborate review of the book contributed by Mr. Roberts to the New York *Times* some weeks ago. Mr. Roberts by no means admits the accuracy of the general attitude towards Mormonism of the writer of this novel. Nevertheless, it is conceded that the book is based upon intimate knowledge of the early history of Mormonism in the Nauvoo period, and that it is a positive contribution to American historical fiction. (Appleton.)

The great Confederate cavalry raider, General John Morgan, whose daring exploits in Tennessee and Kentucky, and whose disastrous but amazing incursion into the southeast corner of Indiana and across southern Ohio form one of the most romantic chapters in the history of the Civil War, stands out as a romantic and attractive figure in a remarkable new western story, *The Legionaries*, written by Mr. Henry Scott Clark. Doubtless the book would have been called *The Raiders* but for the fact that Mr. Crockett had taken that title for one of his recent stories of the Scottish border. "The Legionaries" was a name locally applied to the levies of home-guards which were called upon in southern Indiana to resist the progress of Morgan's raiders. War-time conditions in that Ohio River region are well set forth in this book. The love story is a fine and readable one, too; but the study of the locality in its geographical and social conditions, and above all the account of the military exploit of Morgan, and of the wavering loyalty of a large part of the "butternut" population of the Indiana and Ohio border counties are all as true to the life as Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's study of the New Jersey campaigning of the Revolution, when the shifting politics of the Jersey farmers knew no principles except to be on the winning side. (Bowen-Merrill Company.)

The Last Redet, by Joseph A. Altsheler, is a picturesque and sketchy tale of a remote post in the southern Alleghenies, where the end of the war did not arrive on time, so to speak.

For serious fiction based upon events and scenes in the late war with Spain we must await the lapse of time to give some perspective. One or two writers have been willing, however, to amuse current readers without much reference to the permanence of their work; and Mr. T. Jenkins Hains has in *The Wreck of the Conemaugh* (Lippincott) a very natural and readable sea story of last year's war; while in *The Little Heroes of Matanzas* Mary B. Carret has thrown vivid and pathetic light upon the sufferings of the Cubans just before the United States came to their rescue. (Boston: James H. West Company.)

OTHER NEW HISTORICAL NOVELS.

Mr. F. Marion Crawford, in *Via Crucis*, makes an essay in the field of romance by venturing boldly into the mediæval conditions of government and religion that resulted in the crusades. Mr. Crawford is a man of profound religious convictions; and the hero of his story, who comes in contact with the splendid and complicated conditions that surrounded mediæval courts, preserves the simplicity of Christian character to the end. Queen Eleanor, and Bernard of Clairvaux are two of a number of real historical characters who figure in this story. (Macmillan.)

A rival—perhaps an equal—of Sienkiewicz in the power of reproducing the central figures of imperial Rome's decline has appeared in the person of a Russian novelist, Dimitri Mereshkovski, whose *Julian the Apostate* has just been translated into English by Mr. Charles Johnston (Altemus). In this story, as in *Quo Vadis*, the central personage is a Roman Emperor. Julian's fame through all the centuries has rested on the dying utterance imputed to him, "Thou hast conquered, Galilean!" He was a far more attractive character than Nero and the period in which he lived and played his part was one of unusual interest.

Among new English novels is *The Orange Girl* (Dodd, Mead & Co.) by Sir Walter Besant, a romantic story of London life in the eighteenth century,—particularly valuable, apart from a rather exciting plot, for its careful delineation of places and contemporary conditions. *The White King of Manoa*, by Mr. Joseph Hatton, takes us into the reign of Queen Elizabeth; and if the history gets the better of the story it is enough to say that it is the history of a very great period, and is seriously and usefully interpreted. (Fenno.)

Parson Kelly is a novel in which Mr. Andrew Lang and Mr. A. E. W. Mason have collaborated, and it deals with events in the reign of King George the First. Not to allude to the usual pretty love story, it suffices to explain that the fortunes and misfortunes of an Irish parson, acting as a secret agent of the Stuart Pretender in the earlier part of the reign of George the First gives opportunity for pictures of English life and London society that are skilfully drawn. (Longmans, Green & Co.)

Rupert, a famous prince of the Palatinate, who lived and died in the seventeenth century, was a famous cavalier about whose exploits—all the way from Bohemia to the farther shores of the British Isles—all sorts of romantic tales have been told for two hundred years. He took an active part as a cavalry leader on the defeated side in the Cromwellian wars, and had a range of naval and military experience that it would take much space to relate. He is the hero of a very brilliant and readable story called *Rupert by the Grace of God*—which comes from the pen of an English writer, Dora Greenwell McChesney. (Macmillan.)

John Buchan is a Scotch writer whose romance entitled *A Lost Lady of Old Years* is a very good story of the Highlands in those romantic times, so innumerably depicted in fiction, when the Highlands existed solely for the promotion of the cause of Prince Charlie.

The best figure in this story is Lovat, chief of the Frasers. (John Lane.)

The latest novel of the Reverend S. Baring Gould is called *Pabo, the Priest*, and its theme is the cruelty of King Henry towards the Welsh. It is based upon an accurate study of Welsh history, and ought to be popular among the many intelligent Americans of Welsh origin. (Stokes.)

We are bringing out in this country a series of young western and Southern writers who are threatening to take away the laurels of Anthony Hope and Stanley Weyman in the fabrication of romantic tales based upon French life of a century ago. But Mr. Harris Dickson's new book, *The Black Wolf's Breed*, is, for American readers, much more than a charming romance; for the scenes are mainly laid in Louisiana, and the book is, therefore, in one sense a contribution to the literature of the composite beginnings of our great American commonwealth. (The Bowen-Merrill Co.)

The Favor of Princes, by Mark Lee Luther, is also a tale of old and new France, its period being one reign later than that of Mr. Dickson's novel just above mentioned. Among the historical personages introduced in Mr. Luther's story are Madame de Pompadour, Jean Jacques Rousseau, and the Duc de Choiseul. (Macmillan.)

Mr. Luther's story, in its account of conditions prevailing under Louis XV, foreshadowed the oncoming of the great revolution. That period of upheaval is described in a new story by Bernard Capes, entitled *Our Lady of Darkness*, a strong tale of swift movement, as befits the tragic times it deals with. (Dodd, Mead & Co.)

Pérez Galdós is a great Spanish novelist, sometimes called the Walter Scott of his country; and none of his books is more highly esteemed in Spain than *Saragossa: A Story of Spanish Valor*. The city of Saragossa sustained a siege by the generals of Napoleon with a valor that honors not merely the Spanish race but human nature itself; and this siege of Saragossa is the theme of Galdós' noble tale, which comes to us in a good translation by Minna Caroline Smith. (Little, Brown & Co.)

The House of the Wizard is a story by Mary Imlay Taylor, who has written successful historical stories before. This latest one deals with English life in the time of King Henry VIII, and it keeps us quite close to the court life of that very much married sovereign. (A. C. McClurg & Co.)

NOVELS OF LOCALITY—AMERICAN.

One of the best of the many new novels that owe the larger part of their claim upon our attention to the fact that they are conscientious studies of American life and society in distinctive localities is *The Gentleman from Indiana* by a new writer, Mr. Booth Tarkington. It is the story of a young Eastern college man who buys a newspaper in a country town in the Indiana gas belt some distance north of Indianapolis, has exciting adventures with the "White Caps," wins a charming bride, and goes to Congress. Its Hoosier quality is charming and unimpeachable. (Doubleday & McClure.)

The most discriminating critics are awarding very high praise to a novel by Mr. Hervey White called *Differences* (Small, Maynard & Co.), dealing with social demarcations between the rich and the poor, with the plot turning mainly on life in a social settlement in Chicago. The scene of Mrs. Mary H. Catherwood's new story, *Spanish Peggy* (Stone), is laid in Illinois in the '40s in the youth of Abraham Lincoln, who is one of the principal characters in the little volume. *Windy Creek*, by Helen Stuart Thompson, is a volume of connected sketches portraying life and manners in a Colorado community with that same fidelity that has been shown by several other Western disciples of Miss Mary E. Wilkins. (Scribners.)

It is enough to say of *Blix* that its author is Mr. Frank Norris, who wrote *McTeague*, and our readers will at once understand that it is a story of California life. But they would go far astray if, judging by Mr. Norris' other work, they were expecting grim and painful realism. This is a light and charming romance of the California that has its sunny and ideal side. (Doubleday & McClure.) Dr. C. W. Doyle, who wrote *The Taming of the Jungle*, and now brings out a new story of San Francisco called *The Shadow of Quong Lung*, must not be confounded with Dr. Conan Doyle, the Englishman. This story of the Chinese quarter is rather gruesome, but it has power and merit. (Lippincott.)

There lie on our table three or four Western railroad stories, all of which naturally enough have plenty of "go." *The Short Line War* purports to be written by a certain hyphenated "Merwin-Webster" without a Christian handle to his name. In turns out on inquiry that it is the collaboration of Mr. Samuel Merwin and Mr. Henry K. Webster. It tells a tale too painfully familiar in the history of American railroad consolidations, of the commingling of corporate rascality and political power in the wrecking and seizure of railroad properties. But the plot is as exciting as one could wish. (Macmillan.) *Snow on the Headlight* is by Mr. Cy Warman, who knows as much about railroading as any other man, and perhaps surpasses all others in writing about railroad life. Under the guise of a story this book purports to give a fair history of the great Burlington strike of 1888. It will assuredly take its place with works on the history of the labor movement in America. (Appleton.) Mr. Warman is not the only practical railroad engineer who writes railroad stories, for Mr. John A. Hill, who has brought out a volume of *Stories of the Railroad*, some of which have appeared separately in *McClure's Magazine*, makes capital reading out of Western railroad experiences. (Doubleday & McClure.)

Capt. Jasper Ewing Brady, who has served in the Signal Corps of the United States Army, and before that had been a telegraph operator, has written a volume of *Tales of the Telegraph*, based upon an American telegrapher's experience, which he dedicates to the operators of the country, and which will interest many readers not of that class. (Doubleday & McClure.)

Mr. George Ade, a young Chicago journalist, is making a place in American literature which in its way resembles the places made by two other active newspaper men, namely, the author of *Chimmy Fadden*, and the author of *Mr. Dooley*. For a good while he has been writing in the Chicago *Record* in a department of his own a series of papers called "Stories of the Streets and of the Town." His method is original, but not fantastic. It is the result of a close observation of the phases of life in our Western cities that have never before been put into books. These remarks are inspired by a swift turning of the leaves of Mr. Ade's two newest books, *Doc' Horne*, and *Fables in Slang*. These, like two preceding volumes, have been worked

out of the material first used in his newspaper work. (Stone.)

Much of the freshest and most original literature that this country is producing nowadays makes its appearance in the daily press, but the average literary critic fails to recognize it until it has been reprinted and bound in stiff covers. Mr. F. P. Dunne, for instance, is one of the journalists whose first series of sketches attained immense recognition as soon as brought into book form. His second series, *Mr. Dooley in the Hearts of His Countrymen*, is constructed upon the same lines as *Mr. Dooley in Peace and in War*. Mr. Dunne's humor is very genuine, and his mild satire has its distinct value. (Small, Maynard & Co.)

The new novels include several dealing with contemporary life in New York city. Mr. Brander Matthews contributes what may be fairly considered as, upon the whole, the best of these, in *A Confident To-morrow*, which deals with the career of a young writer who comes to New York, and makes his way to literary success. (Harpers.) *Averages* (Appleton), by Eleanor Stuart, is a very interesting study of various phases of the complex social life of the metropolis, and has much merit. Mrs. Burton Harrison, in *The Circle of a Century* (Century), makes good use of her thorough knowledge of the history of life in New York to write a novel in two parts, one of which presents a love story of old New York, and the other a love tale of the New York of to-day. *Oliver Iverson* (Stone) is an amusing novelette by Ann Devoore. It recounts the adventures of the hero, a sort of poetical granger, during four days and nights in New York in April of the year 1890. It is a delightful bit of story-telling that Stevenson himself would have been glad to own.

A Local Habitation (Small, Maynard & Co.), by Walter Leon Sawyer, is a newspaper man's story of life in South Boston, into which plebeian district a reporter goes in order to get material for a work of fiction. He has his experience, and graduates from it in due time. Edith A. Sawyer has written a book called *Mary Cameron*, a romance of Fisherman's Island, which is a story of the coast of Maine, and which Harriet Prescott Spofford in a brief introduction assures us is a "sweet, strong, fine story," and much else that is charming. (Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co.)

Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's much advertised new story of Washington life is entitled *In Connection with the DeWilloughby Claim*. The tragedy of the tale grows out of the contrast of a New England character, which Mrs. Burnett chooses to make fanatical to a remorseless and fiendish degree, with a Southern character marked by all that is gracious and lovely. (Scribners.) Miss Murfree ("Charles Egbert Craddock") has a new volume entitled *The Bushwhackers and Other Stories* (Stone), the volume getting its title from the first of three tales, the other two of which are "The Panther of Jolton's Ridge," and "The Exploit of Choolah, the Chickasaw." *San Isidro*, by Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield, carries us to the West Indies, and the novel deals romantically with Cuban life. (Stone.)

Sons of Strength, by William R. Lighton, is a romance of the struggle in Kansas between the friends and opponents of slavery, in which one side was led by old John Brown, who figures prominently in this book. It is not an elaborate piece of work, but it is strongly and faithfully executed. (Doubleday & McClure.)

NEW BOOKS IN DIALECT.

A few years ago there was a marked reaction against "dialect stories" in the popular mind; people said they were hard to read. Some American novelists doubtless went to an extreme in the effort to reproduce the accents and contractions of the spoken tongue. It was noticeable, however, that the dialect became wearisome in proportion as the thought which it clothed became commonplace. Witty and original sayings do not often suffer from association with a quaint or even uncouth form of language. If the wit is there, the dialect will not smother it. Indeed, there is a type of wit that must have its native dialect, else it falls short. Such is the soul of the Irish folk-lore with which Mr. Seumas MacManus has captured the hearts of his American readers. This young author's latest production is a volume entitled *In Chimney Corners* (Doubleday and McClure), devoted entirely to Irish tales of giants, witches, kings, and fairies. The colored illustrations drawn for the book by Miss Pamela Colman Smith effectively reinforce the text.

It is by no means an abrupt transition from the native legends of Ireland to the Irish-Americanisms of modern New York. The late Charles A. Dana thought enough of the *Mickey Finn Idylls* of Ernest Jarrold to print them in the *Sun*. He commended them for their "humor, pathos, and human nature." They have now been collected and published in book form by the Doubleday and McClure Company. They are chapters from the life of a boy who lives with his parents on the outskirts of the great city.

The wares that Mr. Joel Chandler Harris brings to the literary market have been so long and thoroughly tested that the popularity of his new book of negro dialect is fully assured. "Uncle Remus" still holds his own, and now *The Chronicles of Aunt Minervy Ann* (Scribners) bids fair to still farther enhance the Georgia writer's reputation. Aunt Minervy Ann's stories are out of her own experience. If the dreamy charm of the folk-tale is lacking, that other charm that comes from the illusion of actuality is always present. Aunt Minervy tells what happened to her and to her "people" in reconstruction times. Mr. A. B. Frost, the illustrator of the book, has successfully collaborated with Mr. Harris, as on former occasions, in delineating negro character.

We have noted comparatively few attempts, of late, to represent the "down-east" Yankee dialect, but a little volume comes to us from Chicago entitled *I Guess, or, Jess and Aramintha*, by "Cousin Sary" (W. B. Conkey Company), which seems to do this very accurately. The author is said to be a Wisconsin lady.

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All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

Ains.	Ainslee's Magazine. N. Y.
ACQR.	American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.
AHR.	American Historical Review, N. Y.
AJS.	American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.
ATJ.	American Journal of Theology, Chicago.
ALR.	American Law Review, St. Louis.
AMonM.	American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.
AMRR.	American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.
ANat.	American Naturalist, Boston.
AngA.	Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.
AngS.	Anglo-Saxon Review, N. Y.
Annals.	Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.
APB.	Anthony's Photographic Bulletin, N. Y.
APS.	Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Arch.	Architectural Record, N. Y.
Arena.	Arena, N. Y.
AA.	Art Amateur, N. Y.
AI.	Art Interchange, N. Y.
AJ.	Art Journal, London.
Art.	Artist, London.
Atlant.	Atlantic Monthly, Boston.
Bad.	Badminton, London.
BankL.	Bankers' Magazine, London.
BankNY	Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
Bib.	Biblical World, Chicago.
BSac.	Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.
BU.	Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.
Black.	Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.
BTJ.	Board of Trade Journal, London.
BB.	Book Buyer, N. Y.
Bkman.	Bookman, N. Y.
BP.	Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
Can.	Canadian Magazine, Toronto.
Cass.	Cassell's Magazine, London.
CasM.	Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.
Cath.	Catholic World, N. Y.
Cent.	Century Magazine, N. Y.
Cham	Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh.
Char.	Charities Review, N. Y.
Chaut.	Chautauquan, Cleveland, O.
CAge.	Coming Age, Boston.
Cons.	Conservative Review, Washington.
Contem.	Contemporary Review, London.
Corn.	Cornhill, London.
Cos.	Cosmopolitan, N. Y.
Crit.	Critic, N. Y.
Dem.	Demorest's Family Magazine, N. Y.
DH.	Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg.
Deut.	Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.
Dial.	Dial, Chicago.
Dub.	Dublin Review, Dublin.
Edin.	Edinburgh Review, London.
Ed.	Education, Boston.
EdR.	Educational Review, N. Y.
Eng.	Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
EM.	España Moderna, Madrid.
Fort.	Fortnightly Review, London.
Forum.	Forum, N. Y.
FrL.	Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.
Gent.	Gentleman's Magazine, London.
GBag.	Green Bag, Boston.
Gunt.	Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.
Harp.	Harper's Magazine, N. Y.
Home.	Home Magazine, N. Y.
Hom.	Homiletic Review, N. Y.
HumN.	Humanité Nouvelle, Paris.
Int.	International, Chicago.
IJE.	International Journal of Ethics, Phila.
IntS.	International Studio, London.
IA.	Irrigation Age, Chicago.
JAES.	Journal of the Ass'n of Engineering Societies, Phila.
JF.	Journal of Finance, London.
JMSI.	Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.
JPEcon.	Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.
Kind.	Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.
KindR.	Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.
LHJ.	Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.
LeisH.	Leisure Hour, London.
Lipp.	Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.
LQ.	London Quarterly Review, London.
Long.	Longman's Magazine, London.
LuthQ.	Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.
McCl.	McClure's Magazine, N. Y.
Mac.	Macmillan's Magazine, London.
MA.	Magazine of Art, London.
MRN.	Methodist Review, Nashville.
MRNY.	Methodist Review, N. Y.
MisH.	Missionary Herald, Boston.
MisR.	Missionary Review, N. Y.
Mon.	Monist, Chicago.
MunA.	Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
Mun.	Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.
Mus.	Music, Chicago.
NatGM.	National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
NatM.	National Magazine, Boston.
NatR.	National Review, London.
NC.	New-Church Review, Boston.
NEng.	New England Magazine, Boston.
NIM.	New Illustrated Magazine, London.
NW.	New World, Boston.
NineC.	Nineteenth Century, London.
NAR.	North American Review, N.Y.
Nou.	Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
NA.	Nuova Antologia, Rome.
OC.	Open Court, Chicago.
O.	Outing, N. Y.
Out.	Outlook, N. Y.
Over.	Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
PMM.	Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Pear.	Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
Phil.	Philosophical Review, N. Y.
PhoT.	Photographic Times, N. Y.
PL.	Poet-Lore, Boston.
PSQ.	Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
PRR.	Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila.
PQ.	Presbyterian Quarterly, Charlotte, N. C.
QJEcon.	Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
QR.	Quarterly Review, London.
RasN.	Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
RefS.	Réforme Sociale, Paris.
RRL.	Review of Reviews, London.
RRM.	Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
RDM.	Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
RDP.	Revue du Droit Public, Paris.
RGen.	Revue Générale, Brussels.
RPar.	Revue de Paris, Paris.
RPP.	Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
RRP.	Revue des Revues, Paris.
RSoc.	Revue Socialiste, Paris.
RPL.	Rivista Politica e Letteraria, Rome.
Ros.	Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
San.	Sanitarian, N. Y.
School.	School Review, Chicago.
Scrib.	Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
SelfC.	Self Culture, Akron, Ohio.
SR.	Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Str.	Strand Magazine, London.
Sun.	Sunday Magazine, London.
Temp.	Temple Bar, London.
USM.	United Service Magazine, London.
West.	Westminster Review, London.
Wern.	Werner's Magazine, N. Y.
WWM.	Wide World Magazine, London.
WPM.	Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Yale.	Yale Review, New Haven.
YM.	Young Man, London.
YW.	Young Woman, London.

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SENATOR JOHN T. MORGAN, OF ALABAMA.

(Chairman of the Senate Committee on Interoceanic Canals.)

On January 18 Senator MORGAN submitted a written report supporting the Nicaragua Canal bill now pending in both branches of Congress. The non-partisan character of the measure is shown by the fact that the remarkably strong and able report was unanimously presented on behalf of a committee composed of the following Senators: JOHN T. MORGAN (Democrat), of Alabama; WILLIAM A. HARRIS (Populist), of Kansas; GEORGE TURNER (Democrat), of Washington; CHARLES A. CULBERSON (Democrat), of Texas; JOSEPH R. HAWLEY (Republican), of Connecticut; WILLIAM J. SEWELL (Republican), of New Jersey; THOMAS C. PLATT (Republican), of New York; GEORGE W. MCBRIDE (Republican), of Oregon; MARCUS A. HANNA (Republican), of Ohio.

The sentiment of the report is shown in the following paragraph:

"We have reached a point in the discussion of a ship canal through the Isthmus of Darien where the necessity for the canal and its advantages to our country is no longer debated in Congress or among the people. As a connection and prolongation of our commercial coast line from Alaska to Maine, and as a door of access to our possessions in the Pacific Ocean and along its shores, and as a highway for our warships and merchantmen and a stronger bond of union between the Eastern and the Western States, such a ship canal is now a national necessity."

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Assurance of the "Open Door" in China.

One of the great events of the past month has been the announcement from Washington that our Department of State has succeeded in its plan of attempting to secure pledges from those nations that have been obtaining control of portions of the coast of China. We may expect in future to enjoy the same advantages of trade that have belonged to us by virtue of our treaties with the Chinese Government. England, of course, was ready to give us the most explicit promises, in view of the fact that our interests and those of the English happen to be identical as respects access to Chinese trade. Germany, which has an understanding with England that apparently extends to questions relating to Asiatic and Pacific as well as African questions, was willing to accede to Secretary Hay's request, provided other nations similarly interrogated should give their consent. Japan, naturally, was as ready as England. France gave assurances that were reported to be satisfactory. Russia professed eagerness for American trade in north China and Siberia. The Italian Government had no reason for taking an exceptional position. And thus all the powers concerned were reported as having given our Government the answer desired. It remained to have these assurances put into documentary form, so that there might be no future misunderstanding as to their scope. The importance of all this in its relation to the future of our commerce was shown in our pages last month in an important article by the Hon. John Barrett. Meanwhile, our Chinese trade grows apace.



THE GLAD HAND AND THE OPEN DOOR.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

A Full Public Treasury.

Questions having to do with our trade and tariff policies may be a good deal affected in the near future by the Treasury conditions described elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW in an article by an able and exceptionally well-informed financial writer, Mr. Charles A. Conant, of the New York *Journal of Commerce*. The remarkably prosperous business conditions of the year 1899 had their effect upon public as well as private incomes. Increased importations meant larger collections at the custom-houses, and the general diffusion of prosperity caused increased use of those articles of consumption that pay internal revenue taxes. The statistics will be found in Mr. Conant's article, and it suffices to remark here that the Treasury receipts have exceeded expectations, and there is accumulating a large surplus. This can be dealt with in several ways. It can be applied to the reduction of the interest-bearing debt of the Government—as already it has been to a moderate extent—by the purchase at a considerable premium of bonds not yet due. It may be expended in part for public improvements, in part for increased pensions, and in part

for such measures as the pending proposal to revive and develop the American merchant marine by a system of subsidies. If a part of it were used as an initial investment in the work of constructing the Nicaragua Canal as a direct government measure, the vast majority of the people of the United States, regardless of party, would be well pleased. And the ingenious attempts to delay the construction of the Nicaragua Canal by diverting attention to the Panama project do not now seem to have succeeded well enough to make it likely that this favorite American project will be delayed much longer.

The Nicaragua Canal.

For half a century there has not been so favorable a moment for our taking up in a decisive way the Nicaragua Canal. Our finances justify it, our commerce clamors for it, and the international questions affecting our undisputed control of the project could now be disposed of in a prompt way and on honorable and satisfactory terms. If territorial expansion is to be justified upon commercial grounds, then expansion ought not to be accidental and haphazard, but ought to be deliberate and statesmanlike, with well-considered reasons and plans. We have increased our territory and interests in the Atlantic and in the Pacific of late, and we have put ourselves in a position which demands for the sake of practical as well as theoretical symmetry the out-and-out acquisition by the United States of either the whole or a part of Nicaragua, and the construction by the United States Government of the Nicaragua Canal upon soil belonging as fully to the United States Government as that of Florida. Here is a project worthy of the ambitions of American statesmen. The reopening of the Panama question and the endeavor to stimulate American interest in Panama are simply part of the programme of



HON. WILLIAM P. HEPBURN.



THE MAN WITH THE SPADE.

If Congress will but provide him with that spade dirt will fly to some purpose in Central America.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

opposition to any canal whatsoever. If the United States should be led by these influences to the point of a decision in favor of Panama, forthwith we should see very much the same combination of interests suddenly swing around to an agitation in favor of Nicaragua—all for the purpose of gaining two or three more years. These interests would for the most part keep themselves concealed, as in years past and gone. If there has never been so favorable a time in the past for decisive action toward the accomplishment of the Nicaragua Canal, it is equally true that there is likely never to come again in the future an opportunity equally advantageous. The plans of American naval increase have been under discussion during the past month, and the swift and powerful vessels that are to be built, according to the latest decisions of the authorities at Washington, will add greatly to the strength and prestige of the United States at sea. But the acquisition of Nicaragua and the construction of a canal by our Government would be worth more as a naval measure than two or three times the cost of the canal expended



Prof. W. H. Burr. Hon. Samuel Pasco. Rear Admiral Walker. Prof. L. M. Haupt. Col. O. H. Ernst, U. S. A. Brig.-Gen. P. C. Hains, U. S. A.

MEMBERS OF THE ISTHMIAN CANAL COMMISSION AS THEY LEFT NEW YORK FOR NICARAGUA ON JANUARY 6.

upon battleships and cruisers. The proposed shipping subsidy that Senator Hanna, Senator Frye, and others are advocating with so much confidence and determination might indeed have a great effect in the development of our commerce and our shipbuilding industry. But as a strictly commercial measure, an equal amount of money spent in the construction of the Nicaragua Canal would be worth to us ten dollars for every dollar spent in steamship subsidies.

The Commerce Committee's Report.

Fortunately the House Committee on Commerce, of which the Hon. William P. Hepburn, of Iowa, is chairman, has decided not to wait for the report of the canal commission, which was instructed last year to go into the Panama question, but has brought in a report favoring the prompt attempt by the President to secure a suitable concession of land from Nicaragua, together with a strip desired from Costa Rica, with a view to the direct construction by the United States of the desired canal. This report is perfectly sound in principle, and it is entitled to the support of Congress and the country. The Nicaragua Canal is not a partisan proposition, and it is greatly to be hoped that patriotic men of all parties may perceive how many circumstances now converge to make the present the time to strike vigorously for this magnificent project. It is true we shall not be able now to build the interoceanic waterway in the nineteenth century, but let us at least settle the preliminaries. It is a project for the benefit of the whole country. It will be hard to say whether our Atlantic seaboard, our Pacific seaboard, our coast line washed by the Gulf of Mexico, or the Mississippi Valley has most reason to be eager for the creation of an interoceanic ship canal. Its commercial benefits would be felt by all these parts of the country in a marked degree. If cut through a strip of our own territory its usefulness would be greatly enhanced, because we should be as free in time of war as in time of peace from any embarrassment as to its use for naval purposes. As this REVIEW has declared for years, the Nicaragua Canal ought to be simply a part of the navigable waterways of the United States, like the estuary of the Hudson River or the mouth of the Mississippi. If the French company should desire to proceed gradually with the Panama Canal and bring that work to a conclusion, it need not interfere with our construction of a canal on

territory controlled by us. In no case would the French be willing to have the political control of the Panama Canal, begun by them, pass to the United States. On that point the French press has of late been emphatic. The action of the House committee was promptly concurred in by the Senate Committee on Commerce, which agreed unanimously to report a bill differing only in a few phrases from that reported by Mr. Hepburn in the House—the differences being of a sort that do not in any way affect the character of the measure. The unanimity of the committees of both houses would seem to foreshadow quite clearly the prompt action of Congress.

The Beer Tax and Public Policy.

There will be a strong effort made to secure the repeal of the tax on beer as now collected under the war revenue measure, on the ground that the income of the Government is excessive and taxation should be reduced; but this tax on beer, if continued, would of itself suffice in the course of a few years to pay all the cost of building the Nicaragua Canal, besides such amounts as might be deemed proper to allow Nicaragua and Costa Rica for the necessary strips of territory. Ex-Senator Edmunds, as the employed representative of the interests that are urging the passage of the proposed measure to subsidize American steamship lines, made a very strong presentation of that subject some days ago before the Senate Committee on Commerce, of which Mr. Frye is chairman, and there has been activity in both houses of Congress in the study and discussion of this subject. The friends of the measure well realize that this is the session in which their project will have its best opportunity. It bids fair, however, to assume the shape of a party measure, the Democrats in general being agreed to oppose subsidies on principle. The subject should be dealt with in a thoroughly practical spirit, however, and the bill should neither be supported nor opposed on mere theoretical or *doctrinaire* grounds.

The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty Must Be Abrogated.

The Clayton-Bulwer treaty had immediate reference to the circumstances surrounding the canal that it was proposed to construct in Nicaragua almost half a century ago. It has not the slightest applicability to conditions existing to-day. The American Government has repeatedly declared that it regarded this treaty as obsolete and a dead letter. Yet whenever we have seemed to be seriously approaching the business of constructing the Nicaragua Canal, England has made reference to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty as something that binds us in honor and good faith, both now and through all the centuries to come, to give England an equal share with us in the political control of that undertaking. The reassertion by the English of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, as if it were a living fact, has been excessively irritating to this country, and justly so. If England has any use whatever for the friendship of the United States in times of emergency, she will very readily agree quietly to a formal abrogation of all claims under that obsolete instrument. Otherwise it will be the duty of the United States once more, and in an emphatic manner, to denounce the treaty and to proceed without delay to assume full control of the projected canal.

An Opportunity for Statesmen.

However much or little prestige history may eventually bestow upon the McKinley administration for island acquisitions and the protection and development of commercial opportunities, there can be no doubt of the distinction that will be accorded to the American statesmanship that in the closing year of the nineteenth century can secure for the United States (1) the cession of an interoceanic strip of land in Central America, (2) the friendly abrogation by England of all claims and pretensions under the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and (3) the completion of all diplomatic and legislative preliminaries to the construction of the Nicaragua Canal. In the precise policy now determined upon by the committees of the two branches of Congress, the Democrats have been as prominent and active as the Republicans. From the party standpoint the best thing the Democrats can now do is to join heartily with the Republicans in keeping the interoceanic canal project on a national and non-political plane, and insisting upon having it pushed forward without delay. To those who are dubious about expansion and annexation, and who have an instinctive feeling that perhaps we have been going at so fast a pace that we ought now to hesitate before taking up the Nicaragua Canal project, we would like to say a word or two.

The Necessary Link.

Perhaps we were rash in buying the wagon, and perhaps we ought not to have bought the horse; but having made those investments for better or for worse, let us not now hesitate about buying a set of harness. The way to justify expansion is to make the most effective possible use of what we have acquired. Our altered position in both oceans, coupled with the enormous recent increase of our foreign trade, must require a larger and more expensive navy henceforth than we have maintained in the past. A canal on our own

making it possible for us to use the Gulf of ico and the Caribbean Sea as great naval ers from which our ships can have a quick safe passage to the Pacific, will almost dou- the efficiency for defensive purposes of a n number of war vessels, and will accord- y save us enough on our yearly naval bills to t all interest and sinking-fund charges on the t of the canal. Viewed from the material tandpoint and tested as a business proposition, he Nicaragua Canal is as necessary to the com- letion of our new territorial, commercial, and rategical policies as the harness is necessary to e utilization of the horse and wagon. The direct opposition that has made itself felt so werfully at Washington comes, of course, in e largest part from transcontinental railroad terests. This is natural enough, and it is erely well that the public should know it. We ave good reasons for going ahead, and in the nd these transcontinental railroads themselves ill be the richer for all the business develop- nents that may follow from the construction of the interoceanic canal.

The Improved St. Lawrence Route.

The Nicaragua undertaking is not the only ship canal that has been under close discussion of late. The German Emperor and Government continue to bring all possible pressure to bear upon public opinion and the elected representatives of the people to secure adoption of the plan to connect the Elbe with the Rhine by a deep canal. It is argued that this undertaking would have a good deal of commercial importance and that it would be eminently valuable for purposes of defense. Perhaps the most important recent achievement in the way of ship-canal construction is the completion by the Canadians of improvements that now give a continuous passage from the great lakes to deep water at Montreal for vessels drawing fourteen feet. The immediate consequence is that capitalists from the United States have secured large wharf and dock privileges at Montreal on the pledge of immediately building huge grain elevators and bringing to that port 35,000,000 bushels a year of the export wheat of the Northwest as a guaranteed minimum. The United States Government had spent a great deal of money in deepening channels and improving passages connecting our chain of great lakes, and it simply remained for the Canadians to improve their canal system in the Niagara region and around the rapids of the St. Lawrence River, in order to make it possible for a good-sized freight steamer or lake barge to meet ocean steamers at Montreal. They have shown commendable enterprise and deserve an ample reward.

Canadian Competition, the Erie Canal, and Mississippi Improvement.

This new condition has wholly changed the nature of the discussion of the future of the canals of the State of New York. Railroads cannot possibly compete with waterways in the transportation of grain, provided the waterways have a capacity to permit the movement of traffic in a modern way on a large scale. It will cost the State of New York a great sum of money, perhaps from $50,000,000 to $75,000,000, to modernize the Erie Canal, but the results would probably justify this large expenditure. Perhaps the chief beneficiaries, however, would be the Western farmers, whose surplus product could be transported to market at an appreciable reduction of transportation charges. The Mississippi Valley is also discussing the new Canadian grain route, and is finding fresh arguments for the comprehensive improvement of Mississippi River navigation. The success of the Nicaragua project will give a great impetus to Mississippi River trade, and vast quantities of cotton, wheat, and other staples will seek Oriental markets *via* the Gulf of Mexico and the interoceanic canal. The committee on Mississippi River improvement appointed by Speaker Henderson is regarded as unusually capable and influential, and it is believed that the subject is to

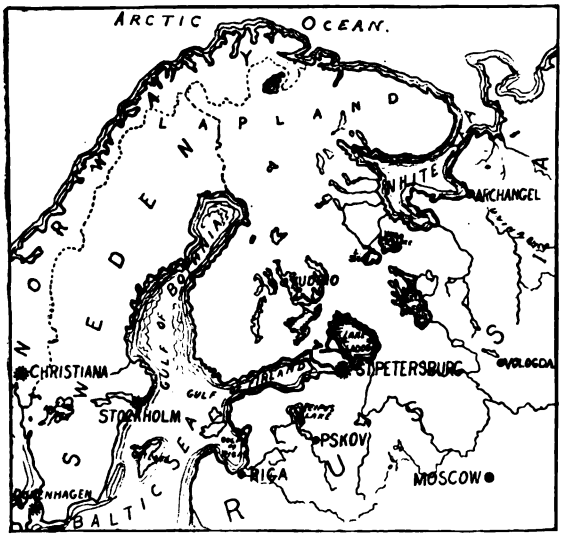


HON. RICHARD BARTHOLDT, OF MISSOURI.
(Chairman of House Committee on Improvements of the Mississippi River.)

have a large and far-reaching treatment. There is revived interest in the project of making the new Chicago drainage canal or some other water link serve to give an outlet to the immense traffic of the great lakes by way of the Mississippi. In 1825 New York connected Lake Erie with the Atlantic by opening a canal the benefits of which have proved as great as its projectors then prophesied. It must now be recorded that in January, 1900, the sluice-gates were opened to admit the waters of Lake Michigan through the new drainage canal to the Mississippi River. The Chicago canal was well described in this REVIEW last month by Professor Jordan. In due time it will become a great highway of commerce.

Russia's Canal Projects.

The discussion in the United States of the Nicaragua Canal and of the proposal of the New York State Canal Commission to make a radical enlargement of the Erie Canal to enable the Hudson to compete with the St. Lawrence in the grain-carrying trade, comes at a time when an imperial commission in Russia has reported in favor of great improvements in the system of canals of northern Russia which connect the Baltic with a chain of interior lakes. About three years ago some 12,000,000 rubles were expended in the improvement of these canals, with just about the same results as were obtained by the recent expenditure of $9,000,000 on the canals of the State of New York. The new commission reports that the improvements that were made on parts of that Russian system can be of little use until the worst parts are made equal to the best.



MAP TO SHOW REGION OF RUSSIAN CANAL PROJECT.



Photo by Prince.

GEN. FRANCIS V. GREENE.

(Chairman of Governor Roosevelt's advisory commission, which has reported on the New York State canals.)

The principal commercial advantage of these canals is the cheapening of grain rates from a large area of Russian country to St. Petersburg and the seaboard. It is now further proposed, however, to take up in a serious way the often-discussed question of connecting the Baltic with the White Sea by turning the existing inter-lake canals into deep ship channels. The Arctic Ocean and its vast inlet, the White Sea, are assuming a constantly increasing importance as Russian maritime interests develop. It needs only a cursory study of the map of Russia to see how important such a ship canal might be. It is believed that it would double the efficiency of the Russian navy, just as the Nicaragua Canal would affect the American navy. Russia has a new naval station on the Lapland coast of the Arctic Ocean.

Rapid Transit at Last for New York.

The ease with which a large public enterprise may be taken in hand after many years of discussion and wiseacre opposition has just now been illustrated in the city of New York. The great project of underground rapid transit is now an assured thing. A few months ago the prospect seemed very dark. It is true that the rapid transit commissioners, a very able and upright body of men, with the invaluable aid of a distinguished engineer, Mr. Parsons, had a good while ago decided on the route and the plans; but the way seemed blocked by a series of semi-political and semi-legal difficulties, the overcoming of which





MR. BIRD S. COLER.

the only bidders, and the award was given to Mr. John B. McDonald. His bid was $35,000,000. The theory of this contract is that the road is to be the property of the city, leased for fifty

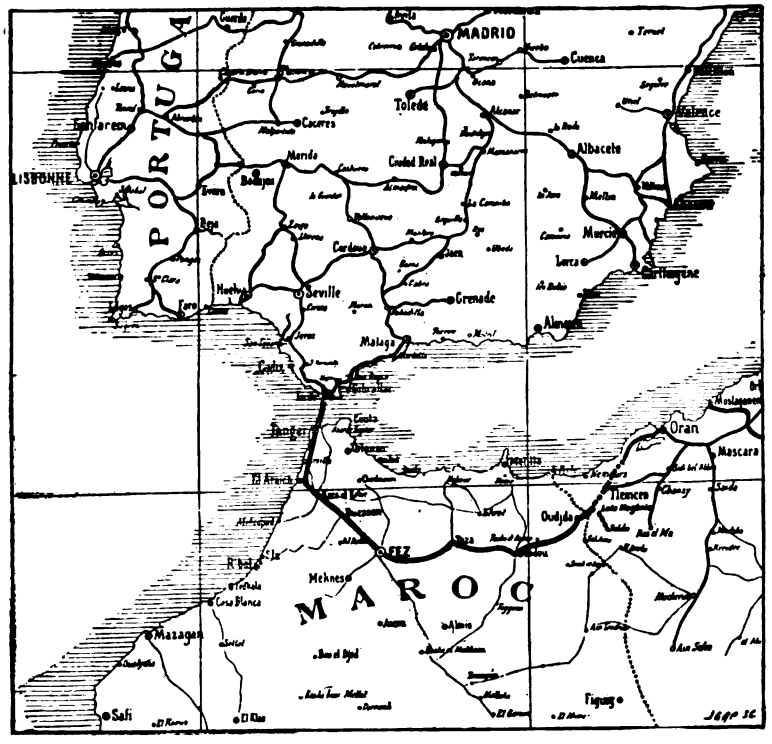
branch will probably be built from the City Hall Park eastward under the river to Brooklyn, paralleling in a general way the existing Brooklyn bridge, whose great facilities are severely overtaxed. These branches will probably be constructed in the near future, while Mr. McDonald promises to have the main underground system which is covered by the present contract completed within three years. Eventually, of course, the underground system will be extended to Jersey City in one direction and to Staten Island in another.

Underground Transit Elsewhere.

Underground transit, though a comparative novelty in this country, is destined to a have a very rapid extension both in metropolitan cities and also under straits and water-courses where bridges are not practicable. Thus the proposed tunnel railroad to connect England with the continent would have materialized years ago but for the political and strategical objections on the part of the English. Meanwhile a tunnel road to connect Britain and Ireland is much talked of. The French, who, by the way, are building an underground transit system in Paris, are now talking seriously of an underground railroad to connect the Continent with northern Africa by way of Gibraltar; and they have in mind both the commercial advantages of such a line and also a certain notion that this somehow would weaken the strategical significance of England's control of the fortified rock of Gibraltar. A French map which we reproduce herewith will give an idea of the route of this proposed underground connection between Europe and Africa. The future American traveler may go by rail from Queenstown, Ireland, to the remotest extremes of Europe, Asia, and Africa, if projects now proposed by engineers and capitalists are carried out. We alluded last month to the remarkable success of the subway system of Boston, which has taken the street cars off of some of the most crowded streets at the center of that city. It should be noted that Mr. McDonald, who has secured the contract for the New York underground system, built the railroad tunnel at Baltimore which has proved so convenient and successful. He has also carried out many other large projects of construction.



MAP TO SHOW THE THREE RIVAL ROUTES PROPOSED FOR THE BRITISH-IRISH TUNNEL.



MAP TO SHOW ROUTE OF PROPOSED RAILROAD TUNNEL UNDER STRAITS OF GIBRALTAR.

The Currency Measure.

The present session of Congress bids fair to have made an exceptional record. The Senate has agreed to reach a vote on the gold standard and currency measure on the the 15th day of the present month. This makes it morally certain that the measure will become a law. Its precise details will have to be worked out in conference committee, but it is not expected that there will be any difficulty about reaching an agreement. Whatever one's opinion may be on the money question, the great importance of this measure will be recognized on all hands. The Senate bill, however, it should be remarked, makes a provision for the future of the national banking system that the House may prefer to deal with as a separate question. This provision involves a refunding of the larger part of the national debt on a scale of great magnitude. The plan calls for the issue of $850,000,000 of bonds bearing interest at the rate of 2 per cent., the issue to be floated for the purpose of retiring outstanding bonds which draw a higher rate, and also and chiefly with a view to providing the national banks of the country with the opportunity to secure their circulation for a long period to come. If the national banking system is to be maintained, a large proportion of the banks will within a few years have to renew their charters. The present plan of a national bank currency secured by the deposit of government bonds requires for its successful continuance long-time government securities bearing a low enough rate of interest so that they will not command high premiums in the market. With a flush Treasury and a prosperous business situation, it would probably be quite feasible to refund the debt if that is the wise thing to attempt.

Prosperity and Railroad-Building.

In former periods of business prosperity we have in this country absorbed enormous quantities of our own capital, as well as capital borrowed in Europe, in the construction of railroads in undeveloped regions which were not destined to be profitable until after many years of tribulation. They have been bankrupted a time or two, and finally reorganized to meet the gradually developed business of the territory whose needs they had anticipated. A boom period that employs its resources in such fashion must inevitably be followed by a period of depression and inactivity. It is to be noted that the present period of revived business life is not characterized chiefly by projects of that kind. It is true that there has been during the past year a great sum of money spent upon railroad work in the United States, but most of this has been taken in a perfectly sound way from actual earnings, in order to renew worn-out tracks and otherwise to improve the condition and increase the capacity of railroads that were paying well enough to justify such improvements. Instead of increasing the dividend rate in a period of enlarged earnings, it has been the general plan of the best roads to seize the occasion of a flush treasury and a large present and prospective traffic to make the road and its equipment as good as possible. This policy is not the kind that promises to be followed by sharp reactions. It is also true, however, that the past year has been one of increased activity in the building of new railroad mileage, and the *Railway Age* finds that during the twelve months of 1899 no less than 4,500 miles of track have been laid in the United States.

Some Comparative Figures.

In the previous year about 3,000 miles of new railroads were built, while in no one of the four years preceding 1898 did the amount reach 2,000 miles. The new mileage of 1899 is distributed among 312 different railroad lines in 44 States and Territories, and it represents almost wholly the carefully planned extensions of prosperous railroad systems in regions where business fully justifies the new work. The largest amount of building for any one State was done by fifteen different lines in Iowa, the aggregate being almost 600 miles. Very little railroad-building had been done in Iowa for about ten years. There is no safer or better State in the Union, and it is fair to suppose that every mile of this new construction is justified by existing business demands. The present year will also see several thousand miles of new railroad lines laid in this country; but, as in 1899, it is probable that at least three-quarters of this work will be done by old companies in the legitimate extension of their systems, and that comparatively little of it will be done speculatively or upon unsound economic principles. These facts have an important bearing upon the outlook for the continued activity of the iron and steel business. For it is to be noted that the unprecedented demand for iron and steel in this country has been the foremost factor in the recent revival of our business prosperity—this, however, resting upon the underlying factor of agricultural prosperity. Another point to be noted is that a considerable part of the activity of our iron and steel industries has been due to the great foreign demand, in the supply of which our facilities enable us to take part with great advantage. Not only are the great steel companies enlarging their plants and perfecting their methods, but great numbers of small mills and furnaces that had been idle for years are now in profitable operation.

York City clearings gained 44.8 per cent. Thus in 1899 the New York City clearings were $60,761,791,000, while in 1898 they had been $41,978,782,000. The six principal Canadian cities showed a gain in their bank clearings of only 10.7 per cent., and the relative intensity of business life in the United States is reflected in the fact that the single town of Pittsburg last year had bank clearings of a larger aggregate amount than the sum total of the six Canadian cities whose clearings were listed by the financial papers. Pittsburg's gain of 56.7 per cent. last year over the preceding year is of course in its way a register of the enormous activity in the iron and steel business and the high prices that have prevailed. The larger rate of increase, as a rule, has been in the strong banking and financial centers rather than throughout the country at large, which was to have been expected in consequence of the so-called trust movement, with its influence upon financial concentration. The position of New York City as a money center bids fair by the end of the present year to have undergone a change that must arouse the attention of the whole world. European bankers and capitalists will henceforth have a far less important part to play in large financial and business operations in the United States, and the New York money market will have begun to take a greatly increased share in the affairs of the world at large.

Banks and Trusts as Party Issues.

The "anti-imperialism" issue seems to grow more and more prominent in the speeches of Mr. Bryan, whose renomination is now regarded as a certainty. It will be interesting to observe how Mr. Bryan will deal with the Nicaragua Canal policy which seems about to be accepted by both parties in Congress, inasmuch as that policy is the highest and most advanced expression of so-called imperialism that American statesmanship has yet ventured upon. There can be little doubt that



HON. WILLIAM SULZER, OF NEW YORK.

Mr. Bryan's friends will make as much political capital as possible out of the charge that the Treasury has shown favoritism toward certain New York banks. Mr. Sulzer, a Tammany member of Congress from New York City, was able last month to secure the support of Mr. Richardson and the other Democratic leaders of the House in pressing his resolution calling for an investigation of some recent dealings of Secretary Gage, including the sale of the New York custom house to the National City Bank. Mr. Gage, apparently, has shown every disposition to be frank, and the Republicans in Congress might have done well to welcome an inquiry as the best way of showing their belief that there was nothing in the world to conceal. The fact is that our independent Treasury system is a rather awkward affair, and a practical banker like Mr. Gage naturally utilizes in the transaction of public business those agencies that private finance has created to facilitate commercial transactions. Mr. Gage is not a politician by instinct, and it had not occurred to him, evidently, that it was safest for him as Secretary to look askance at bankers and to keep clear of them. In any case, Treasury transactions should be very open. After all,



UNCLE SAM: "Don't you think the old party is beginning to feel crowded?"—From the *Evening Post* (Denver).

no Secretary of the Treasury can quite hope to avoid criticism from a public that has been trained since Andrew Jackson's time to cherish prejudices against banks and to be extremely jealous of any intimacy between the national Treasury and the money market. The Democrats, as we have said, will not fail to make as much capital as possible out of the public impression that there may be something of a dangerous tendency, if not of a positively corrupt nature, in the relations between the present administration and the heads of great financial and industrial corporations.

Roberts, Clark, Quay, et al.

Both houses have had on hand one or more questions relating to their own membership. The special committee that was named to consider the case of Mr. Roberts, of Utah, came to a unanimous agreement about the facts of his polygamous record, and there was full concurrence in the opinion that he ought not to be allowed to hold a seat in Congress. Two members of the committee, one Republican and one Democrat, thought that Mr. Roberts should be sworn in on his Utah credentials and then immediately expelled. All the other members of the committee held that he should not be allowed to take the oath. The difference of opinion had merely to do with legal methods of procedure. In either case, the exclusion of Mr. Roberts was made certain by the decision announced on January 18. The Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections has on its hands a serious investigation of charges to the effect that Mr. Clark, the new Senator from Montana, obtained his seat by wholesale bribery of members of the Legislature of that State. It will take several weeks to complete the inquiry. There is also pending the stubbornly pushed claim of Mr. Quay, of Pennsylvania, to be recognized as entitled to his old seat in the Senate by virtue of the appointment by the governor after the Legislature had adjourned without making a choice.

Let the People Elect Their Senators!

Heretofore it has been the custom of the Senate not to admit the appointee of a governor, except to fill out an unexpired term, the State Legislature not being in session. It was reported by the newspapers last month that Mr. Quay and Mr. Clark had made a firm alliance in their struggle for senatorial seats. The principles involved in their cases are, of course, wholly unlike. It is true, none the less, that their cases are equally illustrative of the great merit of the proposition to take the election of Senators out of the hands of the Legislatures. The Constitution of the United States ought to be amended, either to prescribe election of Senators by direct vote or else to make it permissible for the several States to adopt the popular method if they should so wish. It seems probable that the House of Representatives will at this session approve of such an amendment to the Constitution. If the Senate should not be willing to allow this proposal to go to the States for ratification, it would put itself in an unfavorable light.

The Samoan Partition Ratified.

Mr. McKinley's administration has had several opportunities to win prestige in matters of foreign policy. Not the least important of these has been the clearing up of doubts about our future trading opportunities in China. The settling of the Samoan question has been another, and it is here to be noted that the United States Senate has complimented the administration and reflected credit upon itself by promptly voting, without a dissenting voice, to ratify the new Samoan arrangement. Under this agreement with England and Germany we have annexed the island of Tutuila, so far as its international status is concerned. The external importance of the island, as our readers know, lies in the fact of its containing the magnificent harbor of Pango Pango, where for more than twenty years we have had coaling-station rights. The action by the Senate in ratification of the partition of the Samoan group occurred on January 16. It will be our duty to consider very carefully the welfare of the natives of this island, and to make sure that their property rights are safeguarded and that their customs, in so far as these are not positively bad, shall be respected. The first American governor of Tutuila will be Commander B. F. Tilley, of the United States navy, who is there in charge of a coaling vessel. He will have the opportunity to compete in friendly rivalry with the enterprising Captain Leary, governor of our island of Guam, in making a reputation for civilized and progressive administration on plans beneficial to the natives.

Affairs in the Philippines.

On January 8 our American troops in the Philippines numbered 61,862 officers and men. A transport which arrived a few days later added nearly 1,400 men to that number. The reports of General Otis indicate that the recent active campaign in the northern part of the island of Luzon has been so successful that order is quite generally established there. General Young and Colonel Hood have been appointed governors in the northern provinces. The military funeral of General Lawton occurred at Manila on December 30. This

splendid soldier seems to have won the very general esteem of the Filipinos themselves. A fund for the benefit of his family, amounting to $90,000, had been collected in the United States by the middle of January. Gen. O. O. Howard contributes a sketch of General Lawton's career



ARCHBISHOP CHAPELLE, OF NEW ORLEANS.
(Now in the Philippines.)

to this number of the REVIEW. It is reported that the people of Luzon are becoming much more interested in business questions than in war or politics. Apparently it has begun to dawn upon the minds of the more responsible Filipinos that all in the world they have to do to secure the benefits of order, peace, justice, and business prosperity is to accept the situation. The military campaign has been transferred from the northern provinces of Luzon to the region south of Manila, where Generals Schwan, Wheaton, and Bates have been active. It is now the American policy to open the hemp ports in the Philippines and to do everything possible to encourage business. One of the most gratifying incidents lately reported from Manila has been the rescue of Lieutenant Gillmore and other American prisoners who had been for some time in the hands of the insurgents. A vexed question has been settled by the legalization of civil marriages in the Philippines under authority of General Otis. The insurrection seems to be almost absolutely confined to the people of the Tagal race. In certain provinces they will doubtless continue guerrilla methods for a good while to come. Outside of Luzon order is taking the place of chaos very rapidly.

Church and Property in Luzon.

Questions having to do with land titles and the authority and property of the Church and religious orders are of even more pressing importance than those having to do with the form of civil government that may be provided. Archbishop Chapelle, of New Orleans, is now in the islands, studying the church question as apostolic delegate under authority of the Vatican. Under Spanish rule relations of church and state were such that vast holdings of land controlled by the friars or other religious agencies might now be construed as national or public property, rather than as private possessions of the Church. The Filipinos are bitterly opposed to the Spanish friars, and the pacification of the islands is going to be greatly affected by the manner in which these questions of land-holding and church disestablishment are treated by the United States.

Mr. Beveridge and the Senate Debate.

The Senators have been indulging in a flood of talk on all phases of the Philippine question, respecting which a great variety of resolutions have been introduced as texts for speeches. Mr. Pettigrew, of South Dakota, has been exceptionally persistent and bitter in his attacks upon the policy of the administration, and Mr. Hoar, of Massachusetts—who has a certain *d priori* theory that does not appear to have a close relation to concrete questions of geography, race, history, or material fact—has continued to discourse with great ability upon those general and abstract considera-



THE SPHINX HAS SPOKEN.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



HON. A. J. BEVERIDGE.

tions to which he attaches importance. The most noteworthy speech was that of Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, delivered on January 9. It was his first appearance on the floor, and a good deal of curiosity had been aroused as to what he might say. He had brought with him from Indiana the reputation of a brilliant orator, and it was known that he had only recently returned from a study of the Philippine question on the ground. It was also known that he had convictions, and that he hoped to be able to impress them upon the Senate and upon the country. His speech was a remarkable and successful effort, considered purely as a matter of personal reputation; but it was also important in itself. Mr. Beveridge had offered a resolution which was the text of his speech, and which reads as follows:

That the Philippine Islands are territory belonging to the United States; and that it is the intention of the United States to retain them as such, and to establish and maintain such governmental control throughout the archipelago as the situation may demand.

It was an aggressive argument, full of vigorous and unqualified affirmations. It recognized the fact that the greatest kindness we can now show to the Filipinos is to show that we know our own mind, and that we can be firm and resolute in doing work to which we are irrevocably committed. It was wholesome and refreshing in its frankness. Mr. Beveridge's reason for not liking the talk of full-fledged self-government for the Filipinos is, as he says, that they are in no manner fit for it. He declares that the insurrection has been prolonged through the mistaken sympathy that the Filipinos have received from the United States. He has since been criticised as having based his defense of our Philippine policy upon the bald, materialistic fact that there is much Oriental commerce in store for us, with the archipelago as the base of our trade operations. But this criticism does not at all fairly represent the essential trend of Mr. Beveridge's statements and arguments. He believes in his country, its work, and its destiny. He does not believe in a half-hearted and apologetic attitude toward programmes and policies which can be glorious for our country and beneficial for everybody concerned if we will only do with enthusiasm, and with a true sense of what is involved, the thing that we are anyhow destined to do.

Preparing for Cuban Independence.

General Wood lost no time after his appointment as governor-general of Cuba in proceeding from the United States to Havana and entering upon the duties of his office. It is undoubtedly his purpose, in harmony with that of the administration at Washington, to bring our temporary military occupation and government of Cuba to an end just as soon as this can safely be done. We shall not have to wait much longer to learn the results of the census-taking. The accuracy of former Spanish enumerations is enough in doubt so that we shall not be able to rely upon exact comparisons; nevertheless we shall probably be able to judge approximately what effects the war had—particularly Weyler's *reconcentrado* measure—in reducing the population. It will also be possible now to know exactly the proportionate numbers of whites and blacks and the number of Spaniards as compared with Cubans. Upon the basis of this census it is expected that a representative assembly will be chosen to create a constitution, and thus to prepare for the launching of the independent republic of Cuba. A practical question now under serious discussion relates to the extent of the franchise that shall be accorded to the Cubans in the selection of the assembly. The holding of this first election must, of course, be under the auspices of Governor Wood and the American army. It would seem to us on the whole probably wiser not to impose any educational or property restrictions, but to allow the entire population to select the representative men who will frame a constitution and launch the new government. If all the people were thus permitted to join in the choice of the members

of this convention, it could safely be left to the convention itself to fix any restrictions that might be deemed desirable upon the future and ordinary exercise of the elective franchise; and a constitution framed by a body thus selected might well be put into operation without the formality of submission to the people for ratification.

Some Phases of the Annexation Problem.

A great deal continues to be said about the annexation of Cuba to the United States, the question being discussed almost invariably from the standpoint of the Cubans themselves. It is true that many Cubans of influence and standing are eager to secure the earliest possible inclusion of Cuba in the American Union. The Spaniards in Cuba—who have yet about ten weeks in which to decide whether or not they will renounce allegiance to the Spanish crown and declare themselves citizens of Cuba—are supposed to be almost unanimously in favor of a connection with the United States, for reasons readily enough understood. They consider it likely that their personal and property rights and interests would be far safer under the sovereignty of the United States than under an independent government conducted by their Cuban neighbors, with whom they were only lately in bitter antagonism. It is sometimes forgotten, however, by those who discuss the question of Cuban annexation, that even if the Cubans themselves—most of whom now want independence—were with one accord to become clamorous for annexation, there might still be some difficulty in persuading the people of the United States to consent. In the first place, Cuba would expect immediate statehood, and the political result would be that whereas the Cubans in Cuba would exercise under State sovereignty a complete control over their own purely domestic affairs, as Massachusetts or California now does, they would at once proceed to take an important part in governing us in our national affairs, by virtue of their having two representatives in the Senate and perhaps a dozen in the House of Representatives. But the most important ground by far upon which the Cubans would seek annexation would be that of economic advantage; and it would be a commercial union first and foremost that they would desire. This would mean the extension of our tariff lines and the free admission to the United States of Cuban sugar, tobacco, early vegetables, fruits, lumber, ores, and various other products.

Puerto Rico and the Tariff.

At the present moment very formidable organizations of American farmers and other citizens are engaged in the attempt to prevent the adoption of President McKinley's recent advice to Congress to give free admission to the products of our new island possession, Puerto Rico. Their arguments are numerous, but may be reduced to two, each of which may be expressed in a single word. The first of these arguments is sugar, the second is tobacco. The men who are endeavoring with great enthusiasm and with a considerable degree of success to develop a great sugar-beet industry in the United States do not wish at present to have a particle of additional competition from cane sugar. Puerto Rico's product is not large, but it is supposed that soil and climate make feasible its rapid increase. Its tobacco is of desirable quality, and the quantity could be greatly enlarged with the improvement of market opportunities. Puerto Rico's largest export crop in years past has been coffee, which, of course, does not compete with products grown in the United States. Having conquered Puerto Rico and taken possession, we are under plain obligations to consider the welfare of the people of that island as carefully as we once considered that of the people who lived in the territory acquired by the Louisiana purchase. In our opinion the trade relations between Puerto Rico and the United States ought to be absolutely unrestricted. If there are, however, any rea-



BUT HOW ABOUT ISLANDS AT HOME, GENTLEMEN?
From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn).

sons of weight why free trade between Puerto Rico and the United States should be accomplished at the end of a short term of years by means of a descending scale (this plan, if we mistake not, having been advocated by some of the farmers' organizations), the essential principle would not perhaps be altered.

Cuba and Our Tariff Policy in General.

Puerto Rico, however, is much further away than Cuba, and it contains only 3,668 square miles, while Cuba has 45,872 square miles. If, then, the opposition in the United States to giving our own island of Puerto Rico the full commercial benefits of union is great enough to have any importance, what may we expect if the question of Cuban annexation comes to the front? For that would mean the free admission to the United States of the sugar, tobacco, and other products of an island more than a dozen times as large as Puerto Rico, and capable of producing in vast quantities the cheapest sugar in the world and the finest tobacco grown anywhere. It is almost certain that the question of Cuban admission will come to the front a few years hence as an economic rather than a political problem, and that there will be coupled with it a discussion of fundamental importance on the future tariff policy of the United States. There are many men heretofore protectionists who believe that the so-called American policy has now accomplished as much for the development of the country as could be expected of it, and that in the not distant future our taxation system must be radically revised in the direction of a strictly revenue tariff. Some of the industries which a few years ago were most clamorous for high protective duties have become so strong that they are now supposed to be comparatively indifferent about the tariff. The growth of trusts and combinations has an important bearing upon many particular schedules or parts of schedules of the existing tariff.

In "Darkest Africa."

Reports from South Africa from the middle of December to the middle of January were very meager. The British Government did not relax the severity of its strict censorship over cable dispatches, and the policy of suppression at length aroused very severe criticism in England, while also on the continent of Europe there was a great deal of restlessness due to the alleged British interference with the lawful use of the cable lines for commercial purposes. The London newspapers were full of material sent by mail, but this related principally to the details of the disastrous battles fought in the second week of December. The seizure by British cruisers of merchant ships bound for the Portuguese port of Lourenço Marquez, in Delagoa Bay, gave rise to the sort of discussion as to contraband of war and the rights of neutrals that occurs in almost every war, great or small. The first instance of these recent seizures was that of a British vessel carrying American flour. The seizure of the flour led to a discussion between our Department of State and the British Foreign Office as to the articles which Great Britain was disposed to regard as contraband of war.

Neutral Trade with Delagoa Bay.

There was nothing acrimonious or exciting in the treatment of this question, and the British Government had simply to consider the nature of the precedent that the seizure of flour might create. If in a time of war between Great Britain and the Transvaal it is not permissible for the United States to sell flour to merchants in Portuguese territory, who may in turn sell it to the inhabitants of the Transvaal republic, then certainly a strict neutrality would make it improper for the people of the United States, while the war lasted, to sell flour or other foodstuffs to be used in England. Obviously the British Government has a right to make such rules as it pleases regarding the conduct of British merchant vessels in war-time; but to seize American flour on its way to Portuguese Africa has no more justification in international law than if this flour were on its way to Portugal in Europe. After taking a somewhat needlessly long period for consideration, the British Government concluded



UNCLE SAM: "Cousin John, you're stepping on my toes."
From the *Herald* (New York).

that the flour was improperly seized and that due reparation would be made to its owners. Other seizures were of German ships, one at least of which was carrying munitions of war to Delagoa Bay, these being probably destined to be sent overland into the Transvaal. In this case all that would seem necessary would be unquestionable proof of the ownership of the goods thus seized. If these munitions were clearly the property of the Transvaal Government their seizure would be permissible; but if they were consigned to merchants in Lourenço Marquez, even though such persons were probably intending to sell them immediately to the Transvaal Government, England would have a disputed right to interfere with a German ship that was carrying on trade between German and Portuguese territory.

How England Might Proceed.

If the Delagoa Bay route is being improperly used with the connivance of Portugal to supply the Transvaal with war supplies, England has the right to complain to the Portuguese authorities. Should satisfaction not be given, England might denounce Portugal as abetting the republics under the guise of neutrality, declare war against the Lisbon government, and take possession of Delagoa Bay. This would be an entirely logical proceeding. But so long as Portugal is regarded by England as maintaining a position of honorable neutrality, the legal right of ships from all neutral ports to trade with Delagoa Bay is beyond question or dispute; and England has been making a serious blunder in meddling with trade to the port of Lourenço Marquez. If Mexico were at war with France, Mexican trade with Galveston and New Orleans would still be unrestricted. Any number of Europeans who might wish to join the Mexican army would have a perfect right to land at Galveston so long as they came individually and not as organized soldiers; and we should not permit French cruisers in the Gulf of Mexico to interfere, even if the men arriving were commonly supposed to be intending to make their way by rail from Texas to Mexico. In the same manner Galveston merchants would have the right to import from Germany or elsewhere all sorts of supplies and materials, and to sell them in turn to their customers in Mexico. It happens that the Transvaal is fortunate, rather than unfortunate, in having a neutral neighbor on the seaboard. Under international law England has no right to interfere with the trade between Portuguese Africa and the Transvaal any more than a European power, if it should choose to declare war against Mexico, would thereby have the right to interfere with the trade between citizens of this country and citizens of Mexico, except by the process of obtaining actual possession of the situation on the Mexican boundary. Under international law there are only two ways by which England can shut off the shipment of supplies into the Transvaal from Portuguese territory. One of these is by invading the Transvaal and placing a sufficient force along the Portuguese frontier. The other is by taking control of Delagoa Bay, either by purchase or by conquest. For some reason the English intellect finds it hard to grasp this simple proposition.



GERMAN WILLIE: "Say, grandma, you must my ships let go! Ain't it?"—From the *Journal* (New York).

What "Neutrality" Means.

"Neutrality" means that the Boers have just as good a right under international law to buy mules and all sorts of supplies in the Portuguese territory that adjoins them, for the purpose of their war against the English, as the English have had to buy mules in the United States, and vast quantities of canned meat and other provisions from American packing houses for the supply of their forces in the war against the Boers. There is small reason to suppose that England will support the mistaken zeal of her naval officers in the Delagoa Bay region to the extent of bringing on serious complications with any neutral power. The German people are so much in sympathy with the Boers as against the English that the friendliness of the German Government toward England is a sufficiently difficult thing for the Emperor and his ministers to maintain in the

face of an adverse public opinion. England would not under such circumstances, therefore, run the risk of further inflaming the anti-British sentiment of the German people and press by sustaining the policy of improper seizures of German vessels carrying on trade with Delagoa



Lord Lansdowne. The Duke of Devonshire.
Mr. Goschen. Mr. A. J. Balfour.
Lord Salisbury.

A MEETING OF THE COMMITTEE OF NATIONAL DEFENSE.

Bay. In short, England must not count on defeating the Boers by the indirect process of starving them out or keeping them from getting a supply of powder and shot.

The Surprises of War.

In England, last month, the energies of the nation were divided between enlisting volunteers for South Africa and criticising the political and military leadership that had brought on a war for which the country was unprepared. When the war began it was the general opinion in England that a few regiments would be sufficient to bring it to a prompt end. There were not a few, indeed, in high position who had the impression that General White, with the troops already in Natal and Cape Colony, could force the Boers to sue for terms of peace within a fortnight. It is now a widely expressed opinion that it will take not less than 250,000 British troops to conquer the diminutive republic that Dr. Jameson less than five years ago was expected to upset with 500 raiders. War is an affair that is almost sure to have its bitter surprises for one side or the other. The Third Napoleon looked with disdain upon Prussia as a military power and thought the French army invincible. Bismarck knew that the facts were exactly the other way. The naval experts of Europe in 1898 declared that the Spanish navy was decidely superior to that of the United States, and the Spaniards themselves had no doubt on that score. Experience showed that the Spanish navy was worthless and the American incomparably the best in the world for its size. There was an impression prevailing that the defeat of Turkey by the Russians had reduced the Sultan to a military position of small importance, and it was thought that the Greek army might show such prowess as with the help of the fleet to win against the Turkish army. Whereupon, to the surprise of the world at large, the Turks put into the field—with marvelous promptness and with splendid facilities for mobilization—one of the greatest and most effective armies that Europe has ever seen. Mr. W. T. Stead's article in this number of the REVIEW, on the dangerous position of England, is an example of the kind of criticism to which the Sal-



BRIG.-GEN. HECTOR MACDONALD.

(Who succeeded the late General Wauchope in command of the Highland Brigade.)



GENERAL WHITE, THE HERO OF LADYSMITH.

isbury cabinet has been exposed from all sides. Parliament was called to meet at the end of January, and there was much demand for a reorganization of the ministry.

The Progress of the War.

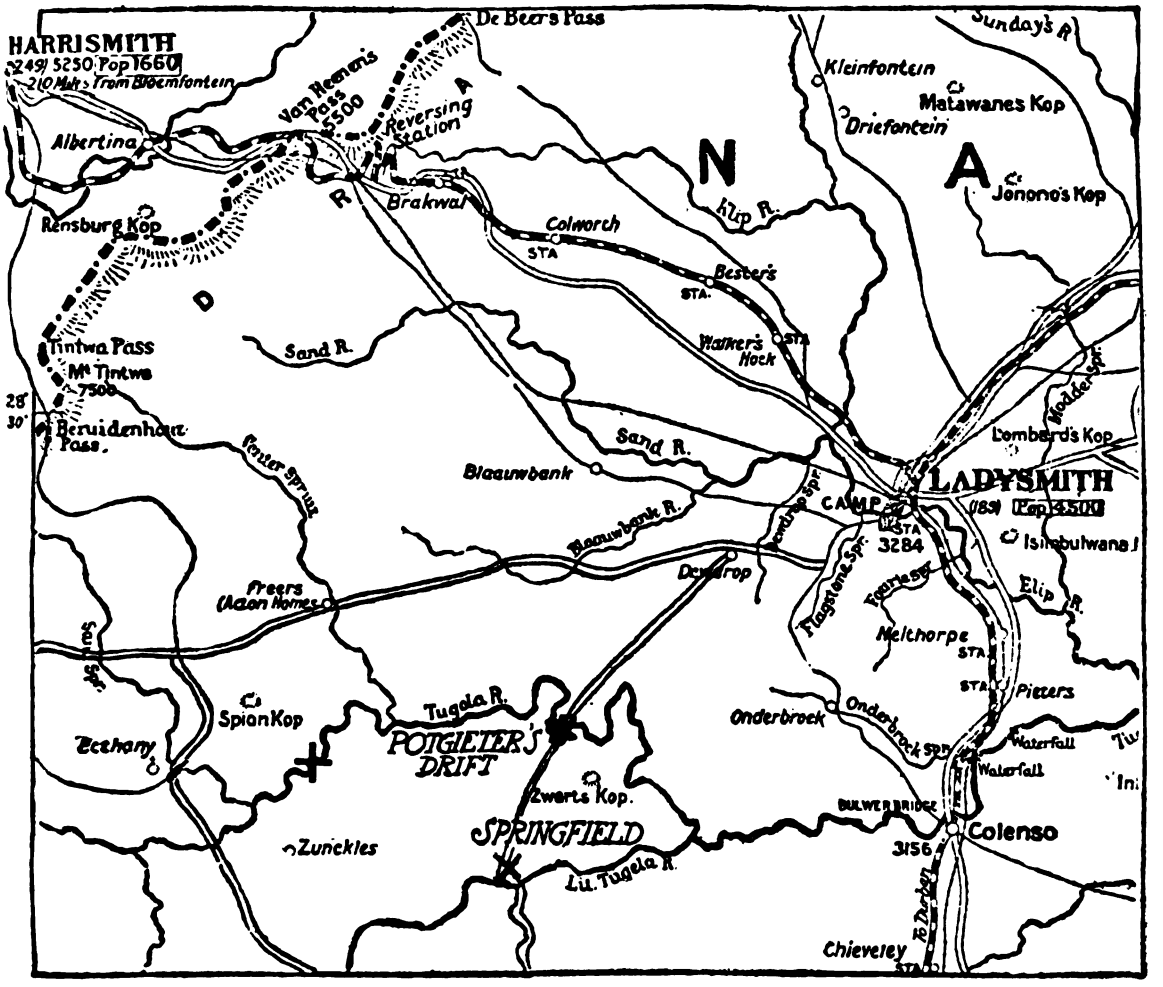
Nothing could be more futile than an attempt to forecast military operations in South Africa. From the middle of December to the middle of January the situation had remained almost unaltered. There had been one desperate action at Ladysmith on January 6, in which, as it was afterward reported, the English lost 13 officers and 135 men killed, and 271 men wounded. The fighting was desperate on both sides, and the Boer losses were probably heavier than the English. The result would not seem to have had any decisive value. General White's protracted resistance at Ladysmith had meanwhile won general admiration, and had regained for him in great part the military reputation that the opening events of the war seemed to have sacrificed. For many days after the first reports of his defeat in the neighborhood of Colenso, while trying to cross the Tugela River on December 15, very little was heard from General Buller, and the English press and public grew more and more impatient. He lay with a great army only about twenty miles from Ladysmith, and the newspaper warriors in England thought it unpardonable of him not to march to the relief of General White's beleaguered troops.

Buller's Forward Movement.

At length there came the reports that General Buller's forces were moving westward, and that Buller himself had established headquarters at a point about fifteen miles from Colenso, where it was understood that he was expecting to bring his forces across the river at a "drift" or ford known as Potgieter's. This movement was intended to evade the elaborate system of intrenchments and fortifications stretched out by the Boers for a good many miles in the neighborhood of Colenso, and to force the fighting upon the right flank of the Boer army. Buller had not waited for the arrival of General Roberts, but had carefully matured his plans, and his army on January 10 was fairly moving from the camps at Frere and Chieveley—where it had been recuperating for nearly four weeks after the disastrous



HEADQUARTERS OF GEN. SIR G. WHITE AT LADYSMITH, SHOWING "DUG-OUT" MADE FOR THE GENERAL BY HIS STAFF.

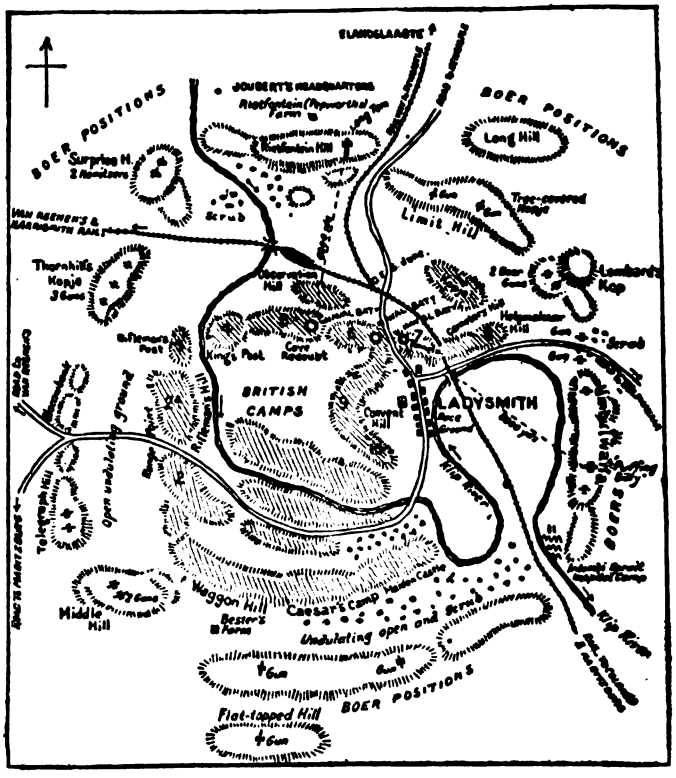


MAP TO ILLUSTRATE BULLER'S PLAN OF ADVANCE ON LADYSMITH.

(Potgieter's Drift is where General Lyttelton crossed the Tugela, and the cross further west indicates the position of Wagon's (Trichard's) Drift, where General Warren made his passage.)

battle of December 15—when Generals Roberts and Kitchener, who had joined one another at Gibraltar, arrived at Cape Town. The immediate object of this movement, as our readers will perfectly understand, was to get the army, with its munitions and supplies, safely across the swollen Tugela River at a point from which it could fight its way to a junction with the besieged army of General White at Ladysmith. Lord Dundonald, in command of the mounted brigade, by a swift and unexpected movement seized the bridge across the Little Tugela on the 11th, and pushed on immediately to Swartz Kop, a hill overlooking the ford across the main stream at Potgieter's Drift. The advance was resumed on the 16th, and General Lyttelton's brigade made a successful crossing at Potgieter's, while General Warren led his brigade across on a pontoon bridge a hundred yards long at Trichard's Drift, some six miles further west. It was understood that General Buller had taken the larger part of his forces on this westward movement, which was intended to turn the enemy's flank, while the remaining troops were left to hold the railroad and defend the general situation at or near Colenso. Meanwhile the Boers had offered very little resistance, and seemed to be employing their usual method of intrenching themselves upon ground that seemed to them best adapted to resistance when the British army, with the Tugela River behind it, should attempt to force its way through the hills toward Ladysmith. This town, meanwhile, was in desperate straits, and it was certain that heavy fighting, which might well prove to

be the decisive turning-point of the war, was destined to occur within a very few days. It was not to be supposed that the Boers would permit Buller and White to join forces without a desperate struggle. On the other hand, it has not been our opinion either that the war could be indefinitely prolonged or that it could have any other ending than the full victory of the British. Efforts to bring about the friendly mediation of the United States have been made by some of the European and American advocates of international peace; but such mediation cannot proceed without either the formal request of both belligerents or else informal assurances amounting practically to the same thing. The great majority of Englishmen, including those who were bitterly opposed to the war at the beginning, have since made it appear that they were in favor of fighting it to a decisive finish.



PLAN OF THE MILITARY SITUATION AT LADYSMITH IN JANUARY.

Boer Strength and Weakness.

It will not prove easy for the Boers to hold their forces together if the tide begins to turn against them. President Steyn and President Krüger have not been in perfect agreement at all points; and it is difficult at best to manage effectively the forces of two independent states coöperating as allies, and lacking the unified and absolute control under a single commander-in-chief usually requisite in successful warfare. It is true the Boers had for several months shown a wonderful power of resistance, but they had not by any means accomplished that which they had promised themselves when the war broke out. They had planned to "sweep the British off Table Rock into the sea" before the first reenforcements could arrive from England; and they had relied with confidence upon the uprising of the whole Dutch population of Cape Colony. If they were penning up garrisons at Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking, and checking the relieving columns of Buller and Methuen, it is true conversely that the English were also holding back the Boers from their previously threatened advance to the capital and the seaport of Natal and to the principal parts of Cape Colony; while the outlook for a general uprising of the Cape Colony Afrikanders had become hopeless. The failure of the Boers to take either Ladysmith, Kimberley, or Mafeking—at least up to January 20, when these pages were closed for the press—illustrated the fact that their aggressive strength was far inferior to their defensive.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 20, 1899, to January 19, 1900.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 20.—In the Senate the treaty signed at the Hague conference is received from the President; Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass.) introduces a resolution relating to the future policy of the United States....Both branches adjourn for the customary holiday recess until January 3.



CAPT. LORD EDWARD CECIL.

(The son of England's prime minister, wounded at Mafeking, December 26.)

January 3.—In the House Mr. Sulzer (Dem., N. Y.) introduces a resolution calling for information as to the relations of the Treasury Department with certain New York banks; the resolution is referred to the Ways and Means Committee.

January 4.—The Senate begins consideration of the currency question....In the House the Sulzer resolution relative to the deposit of Treasury funds in certain New York banks, as amended by the Ways and Means Committee, is adopted.

January 8.—The Senate takes up the Samoan treaty in executive session....The House adopts resolutions for the investigation of the alleged appointment of polygamists as postmasters in Utah and of General Merriam's course in the Idaho mining riots of 1899.

January 9.—In the Senate Mr. Beveridge (Rep., Ind.) makes a speech in advocacy of the retention of the Philippines by the United States.

January 10.—In the Senate eulogies of the late Vice-President Hobart are delivered; Senator Hale (Rep., Maine) offers a resolution of inquiry into the seizures of American flour by British ships.

January 11.—In the Senate Mr. Pettigrew (Rep., S. D.) makes a sensational attack on the President's Philippine policy; the currency bill is debated.

January 15.—The Senate debates the Philippine question and the currency....In the House the urgent deficiency appropriation bill is reported.

January 16.—In the Senate Mr. Pettigrew's motion calling for the instructions given by the President to the peace commissioners is laid on the table by a vote of 41 to 20; in executive session the Samoan treaty is ratified....The House debates the urgent deficiency appropriation bill.

January 17.—The Senate passes Mr. Hale's resolution of inquiry as to the British seizures of American flour, with modifications, and Mr. Hoar's resolution calling for information about the war in the Philippines....The House passes the urgent deficiency appropriation bill.

January 18.—In the Senate Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.), as chairman of the Committee on Interoceanic Canals, presents a report in favor of the Nicaragua Canal bill ....The House passes the Senate bill increasing the powers of the Director of the Census, with a proviso that the printing must be done by the Public Printer.

January 19.—The Senate passes the resolution introduced by Mr. Allen (Pop., Neb.) calling for information regarding the reported refusal of the United States Government to receive accredited representatives of the South African Republic....The House passes the pension appropriation bill ($145,245,230)....A bill is introduced providing for free trade with Puerto Rico.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 20.—Louisiana Democrats nominate W. W. Heard for governor....The Republican National Committee issues the call for the national nominating convention to be held at Philadelphia on June 19, 1900.... Nine customs appraisers in Havana are arrested on the charge of collusion with importers to defraud the Government.



THE LATE LADY SALISBURY.

(Wife of England's prime minister; died November 20, 1899.)

December 21.—General Wood assumes office as governor-general of Cuba and accepts the resignations of General Brooke's advisory cabinet.

December 26.—Governor Roosevelt, of New York,

signs the grant of lands under water to the Astoria Light, Heat, and Power Company of New York City, giving reasons for his action.

December 29.—The Naval Construction Board adopts plans for three new battleships, to be called the *Georgia*, *New Jersey*, and *Pennsylvania*, which will be equal to any similar craft afloat, having a displacement of 14,000 tons and a speed of 19 knots....The receipts at the Havana custom-house are $100,500, the largest in the history of Cuba.

December 30.—Governor-General Wood announces his Cuban cabinet as follows: Secretary of State and Government, Diego Tamayo; Secretary of Justice, Luis Esterez; Secretary of Instruction, Juan B. Hernandez; Secretary of Finance, Enrique Varona; Secretary of Public Works, José R. Villaton; Secretary of Agriculture, Ruiz Rivera.

January 2.—The Kentucky Legislature meets and a contest for the governorship is begun by Senator Goebel.

January 3.—President McKinley nominates Brig.-Gen. John C. Bates to be major-general of volunteers; Brig.-Gen. Loyd Wheaton to be major-general of volunteers by brevet; and Col. S. B. M. Young, Lieut.-Col. Arthur MacArthur, and Lieut.-Col. William Ludlow to be brigadier-generals....The New York Legislature meets....Governor-General Wood issues an order releasing 40 prisoners unjustly detained in Cuban jails.

January 4.—Governor Crane, of Massachusetts, is inaugurated.

January 5.—Col. S. M. Sawtelle, Tenth Cavalry, succeeds General Wood in command of the military department of Santiago and Puerto Principe.

January 6.—The Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections begins the taking of testimony on the bribery charges against Senator Clark, of Montana.

January 8.—George K. Nash is inaugurated governor of Ohio.

January 10.—Secretary Gage's letter in reply to the request of Congress for information regarding deposits of public funds in certain national banks and the sale of the New York custom-house is made public....John Walter Smith is inaugurated governor of Maryland.

January 11.—Gov. Leslie M. Shaw is inaugurated for a second term as governor of Iowa.

January 16.—The contract for the construction of the New York rapid transit tunnel is awarded to John B. McDonald, whose bids for the several sections of the work aggregate $35,000,000....The Mississippi Legislature elects A. J. McLaurin (Dem.) for the long term and W. V. Sullivan (Dem.) for the short term in the United States Senate; Governor Longino is inaugurated.

January 17.—The Kentucky Legislature elects J. C. S. Blackburn (Dem.) United States Senator; the Iowa Legislature reëlects United States Senator John H. Gear (Rep.).



SIGNALING TO LADYSMITH FROM FRERE BY MEANS OF THE SEARCH-LIGHT MOUNTED ON A TRAIN.



MAJ.-GEN. GEORGE ARTHUR FRENCH.

(Who won in several engagements with the Boers in the months of December and January.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 20.—M. Déroulède appears before the High Court in Paris, insults its president, and is therefore sentenced to two years' imprisonment....The lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath adjourns.

December 21.—The Spanish Chamber of Deputies passes a bill to keep the old budget in force until the new budget is voted on in its entirety....Li Hung Chang is appointed acting viceroy of Canton....The Deutsche Bank agrees to advance to the Turkish treasury 200,000 Turkish liras, to provide for the Ramazan requirements.

December 22.—The French Chamber votes two months' supply and 6,550,000 francs for the exhibition of 1900....In the High Court the evidence for the defense in the conspiracy concludes.

December 23.—Sir F. Wingate is appointed Sirdar and Governor-General of the Soudan on the resignation of Lord Kitchener....The New South Wales Parliament is prorogued....An edict is issued in the name of the Emperor of China for the arrest of Kang Yu-wei, at present in Hong Kong....A new Austrian ministry is formed....The French Parliament is prorogued.

December 26.—The president of the Paris High Court begins his speech for the prosecution in the conspiracy trial.

December 27.—Six of the prisoners accused of conspiracy before the High Court at Paris are accquitted and released.

December 28.—Pleas by the defense are heard by the High Court at Paris....The Italian Court of Cassation pronounces the public safety bill valid.

December 30.—The Duke of Connaught is appointed to the command in Ireland, succeeding Field Marshal Lord Roberts.

December 31.—The Emperor and the German Government decide that the twentieth century begins on January 1, 1900....The King of Italy signs an amnesty in favor of all persons condemned in connection with the disturbances of May, 1898.

January 1.—In an address at Berlin the German Emperor announces his purpose to place the navy on a level with the army.

January 2.—The High Court at Paris announces that it decides, by a vote of 148 to 48, that M. Buffet, director of the political bureau of the Duke of Orleans, is guilty of conspiracy, with extenuating circumstances; four others are acquitted.

January 3.—The High Court at Paris finds Déroulède and Guérin guilty of conspiracy, with extenuating circumstances.



THE LATE SIR JAMES PAGET.

(The most distinguished British surgeon.)

January 4.—The High Court at Paris sentences Déroulède, Buffet, and the Marquis de Lur Saluses to ten years' banishment and Guérin to ten years' confinement in a fortified place.

January 9.—M. Deschanel is elected president of the French Chamber of Deputies and M. Fallières of the Senate....The Prussian Diet is opened....The Newfoundland Legislature is prorogued till February 1.

January 12.—The French Court of Cassation hands down a decision making bull-fighting illegal in France ....Motions are made in the French Chamber of Deputies to remove the duties on coal, iron, and steel.

January 18.—The French Chamber of Deputies votes confidence in the government in the matter of the St. Etienne strikes.

January 19.—A new cabinet is appointed in Austria, with Herr Koerber as premier, the Emperor's aim being to reconcile the differences between the Germans and the Czechs.



THE LATE R. V. SMALLEY.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 21.—The Russian Government grants a reduction during 1900 of the import duty on British coal from 6 to 1½ copecks per pood at Odessa and other Black Sea ports.

December 26.—A treaty between Mexico and China is signed at Washington.

December 28.—A Brazilian warship is ordered to Amapa, in dispute between Brazil and France

December 29.—The British cruiser *Magicienne* seizes a German steamer, the *Bundesrath*, in Delagoa Bay, and takes her to Durban, on the ground that German officers and men intending to join the Boer army are on board.

January 2.—Secretary Hay announces to the Cabinet at Washington the success of his negotiations for securing a continuance of the "open-door" policy in China (see REVIEW OF REVIEWS for January, page 39)....The Government at Washington instructs Ambassador Choate to inform the British Government that the United States considers the seizure of American flour at Delagoa Bay by a British cruiser as illegal, and to ask for indemnity for the seizure.

January 3.—Foreign ministers to Brazil protest against differential tariffs against their countries.

January 4.—British authorities seize the German steamer *General* at Aden and compel her to discharge her cargo....Italy completes the list of great powers replying favorably to Secretary Hay's note regarding the "open door" in China.

January 5.—France orders a squadron to San Domingo to enforce payment of claims.

January 8.—The United States gunboat *Machias* is ordered to San Domingo.

January 10.—In reply to the note from the United States regarding the seizure of American flour in Delagoa Bay, the British Government declares that foodstuffs are not held as contraband of war unless intended for the enemy.

January 12.—Great Britain accepts the French proposal to renew the Newfoundland fishing-rights *modus vivendi*....Germany forbids the shipment of guns by the Krupps to either the British or the Boers.

January 16.—The United States Senate ratifies the treaty for the partition of Samoa....President McKinley appoints Robert M. McWade, of Philadelphia, to be consul at Canton, China, *vice* Dr. Edward S. Bedloe, resigned.

January 19.—The British Foreign Office notifies Ambassador Choate that a portion of the seized American cargoes has been released.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.

December 26.—The Russian Red Cross ambulance leaves for the Transvaal via Berlin and Naples....In a sortie from Mafeking by the troops under Colonel Baden-Powell 21 officers and men are killed, 24 officers and men wounded, and 3 men taken prisoners.

December 27.—The *Dunnottar Castle*, with Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener on board, sails from Gibraltar....There is a heavy fall of rain in Natal....The Boers assume the offensive and shell the Modder River camp.

December 28.—Spasmodic shelling continues at Modder River; at Ladysmith a Boer shell bursts which kills Lieutenant Dalziel and wounds 7 other officers.

December 29.—The *Orient* sails from Southampton with 1,275 officers and men for South Africa.

December 30.—A New South Wales battery leaves Sydney for South Africa; the *Majestic*, with 2,000 troops on board, arrives at Cape Town.

January 1.—General French captures the town of Colesberg, with wagons and stores; Colonel Pilcher defeats a Boer force at Sunnyside Laager, near Belmont, taking 40 prisoners.

January 4.—A Boer attack on the British lines at Colesberg is successfully repulsed.

January 6.—The Boers attack Ladysmith in force, but are repulsed by the British with heavy losses on both sides; the British casualty list shows 15 officers and 135 men killed and 26 officers and 244 men wounded; General Buller attacks the Boer position at Colenso.... General French reports the capture of 70 men, including 7 officers, by the Boers at Colesberg.



Photo by Sarony.

THE LATE REV. SYLVESTER MALONE, D.D.



Photo by Anderson.

THE LATE REV. EDWARD M'GLYNN, D.D.



Photo by Bachrach & Bro.

REV. MALTBIE D. BABCOCK, D.D.

(Successor to Dr. Henry van Dyke as pastor of the "Brick" Presbyterian Church, New York City.)



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REV. GEORGE T. PURVES, D.D.

(New pastor of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church New York City, the late Dr. John Hall's church.)

January 7.—Several Boer attacks on Ladysmith are repelled by the British.

January 11.—Lord Dundonald, with the mounted brigade of General Buller's troops, advances westward and seizes Springfield Bridge and Swartz Kop, commanding Potgieter's Drift.

January 16.—A part of General Buller's force crosses the Tugela River at Potgieter's Drift; five miles west, at Trichard's Drift, General Warren crosses.

January 17.—In the British advance on Ladysmith Lord Dundonald's troops maintain a successful action against the Boers near Acton Homes.

THE FIGHTING IN THE PHILIPPINES.

December 25.—Gen. S. B. M. Young is appointed military governor of the province of northwestern Luzon, with headquarters at Vigan.

December 26.—The Filipino general Santa Ana, with a force of insurgents, attacks the garrison at Subig, Luzon; the Americans, reënforced by marines from Olongapo, successfully repel the attack, several of the Filipinos being killed.

December 27.—Colonel Lockett, with a force of 2,500 men, including artillery, attacks a force of insurgents near Montalban, northeast of San Mateo, Luzon; many of the Filipinos are killed.

January 1.—There is a general advance of the American troops in southern Luzon; Cabuyac, on the south side of Laguna de Bay, is taken by two battalions of the Thirty-ninth Infantry, with the loss of 2 Americans killed and 4 wounded.

January 7.—Lieutenant Gillmore and the party of Americans long held as prisoners by the Filipinos arrive at Manila.

January 12.—A troop of the Third Cavalry has an encounter with the insurgents near San Fernando de la Union; the Americans lose 2 killed and 3 wounded..... General Otis reports all of Cavite province as occupied by General Wheaton's command.

January 17.—Lieutenant McRae, with a company of the Third Infantry, defeats an insurgent force under General Hizon and captures rifles and ammunition near Mabalacat.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 20.—The celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of a State government in California is begun in San José....The main building of Buchtel College, Akron, Ohio, is burned....The American Federation of Labor, in session at Detroit, reëlects Samuel Gompers president.

December 22.—More than 40 school children are drowned in the River Lys at Frelinghem, Belgium.... Sixteen children are killed in a fire at Quincy, Ill.

December 23.—By a coal-mine explosion near Brownsville, Pa., 40 miners are killed.

December 24.—The ceremony of opening the Holy Door of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome is performed by Pope Leo....The British steamship *Ariosto* is stranded off Hatteras, N. C., 21 men being drowned.

December 25.—An earthquake is felt over a large part of southern California....Coal miners and lace workers go on strike in France.

December 27.—The fifteenth Indian National Congress opens at Lucknow.

December 28.—The bodies of the officers and men of the *Maine* are reinterred in Arlington National Cemetery at Washington.

December 31.—The Rev. Dr. George T. Purves accepts the call to the pulpit of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church, in New York City.

January 3.—The bubonic plague is discovered in Manila....At the chess tournament in Vienna Maroczy wins first prize.

January 5.—The mail steamer *Iber*, of the Great Western Line, sinks off Guernsey; the passengers are saved....A white man is lynched at Newport News, Va.

January 6.—The British steamer *Glasgow* is sunk in collision in Dover Straits.

January 12.—M. Zola is presented with a gold medal as a memorial of his efforts in behalf of Alfred Dreyfus.

January 18.—A statue of Daniel Webster is unveiled in Washington.

OBITUARY.

December 21.—Charles Lamoreaux, the French orchestral conductor, 65.

December 22.—Dwight Lyman Moody, the evangelist, 63 (see page 163).

December 23.—Dorman B. Eaton, leader in the civil-service-reform movement in the United States, 76.

December 24.—Daniel S. Ford, proprietor of the *Youth's Companion*, 77.

December 25.—Elliott Coues, the distinguished naturalist, 57.

December 27.—Harry Escombe, former premier of Natal....M. Jules Bapst, late editor of the *Journal des Débats*, Paris, 69.

December 29.—Rev. Father Sylvester Malone, of Brooklyn, N. Y., 79....Eugene V. Smalley, the newspaper correspondent and writer, 58....Thomas MacKellar, of Philadelphia, author and printer, 87.

December 30.—Sir James Paget, the British surgeon, 85....Eugene Bertrand, of Paris, 65....Rev. Dr. J. Thomas Murray, of the Methodist Protestant Church, 70.

January 3.—Francis Schnadhorst, from 1885 to 1892 the chief organizer of the British Liberal party, 60.

January 5.—Former Surgeon-General William A. Hammond, U. S. A., retired, 71.

January 6.—John Bernhard Stallo, United States minister to Italy in President Cleveland's first term, 76.

January 7.—Rev. Dr. Edward McGlynn, 62....Rev. Dr. John Milton Williams, of Chicago, 83.



THE LATE DR. JAMES MARTINEAU.

January 8.—Alfred Edmund Burr, for sixty years the editor of the Hartford (Conn.) *Times*, 85.

January 9.—Ex-Representative William P. Howland, of Ohio, 68....Gen. Felipe Berriozabal, Mexican minister of war....Rev. Aloysius Schyns, head of the order of Alexian Brothers in the United States.

January 10.—John Q. A. Hoyt, one of the promoters and builders of the New York elevated railway system, 73....Rev. Dr. George Warren Field, of Bangor, Maine, 81.

January 11.—Gen. Dabney Herndon Maury, who served in the Confederate army, 77....Alexander Williams, a well-known Boston bookseller and publisher, 81....Earl of Ava (wounded at Ladysmith), 37.

January 12.—Rev. Dr. James Martineau, the distinguished Unitarian divine, 95.

January 13.—Gen. George H. Sharpe, of New York, 71....Felix Morris, the comedian.

January 14.—Alexander Majors, originator of the pony express in the overland mail service.

January 15.—George W. Steevens, special correspondent of the London *Daily Mail* in South Africa, 30.

January 18.—Prof. Amos. G. Warner, of the Stanford University, 38.



THE AFRICAN BULL-FIGHT.—From *El Hijo del Ahuizote* (Mexico).

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARTOONS



FATHER TIME: "My! my! But it looks more like 1900 B.C."

From the *World* (New York).

THE chief subject of the European cartoonists last month was the war in South Africa and England's international position. The American cartoonists, also, gave much attention to the Anglo-Boer affair, and the lack of sympathy with England was very generally apparent. Our selections are almost wholly devoted to this predominant theme. The familiar figures recurrent in these cartoons are "Oom Paul" Krüger, John Bull, Mr. Chamberlain, Lord Salisbury, and Cecil Rhodes.



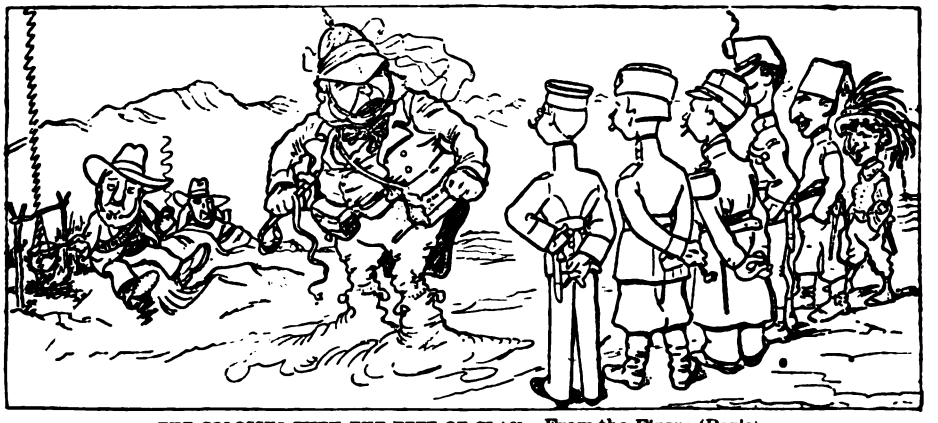
BLESSED IS THE PEACEMAKER.

UNCLE SAM: "Some of my folks want me to interfere, but I think this olive branch would get pretty badly mussed up if I should try it just now."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis.)



THE FOREIGN SITUATION LAST MONTH AS IT APPEARED TO AN ILLINOIS CARTOONIST.
From the *Herald-Transcript* (Peoria).



THE COLOSSUS WITH THE FEET OF CLAY.—From the *Figaro* (Paris).



"SAY, MUDDER, SHALL WE PACK OOP YET?"
From the *World* (New York).



"LONGWOOD, NAPOLEON'S RESIDENCE ON THE ISLAND OF ST. HELENA, IS BEING RENOVATED FOR THE RECEPTION OF PRESIDENT KRÜGER AFTER THE WAR."
From the *Press* (Cleveland)



HE'S A JONAH.

SALISBURY: "Your majesty?"
THE QUEEN: "Yes, me lord."
SALISBURY: "He'll have to go, won't he?"
THE QUEEN: "I'm afraid so."

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



KRÜGER'S CHRISTMAS TREE FOR MR. CHAMBERLAIN.

From *Le Rire* (Paris).



THE MEDDLESOME BOY.

JOE (to himself): "Wonder how it's getting on?"
LORD SALISBURY (head gardener): "I do wish he'd let hings alone!"—From *Punch* (London).

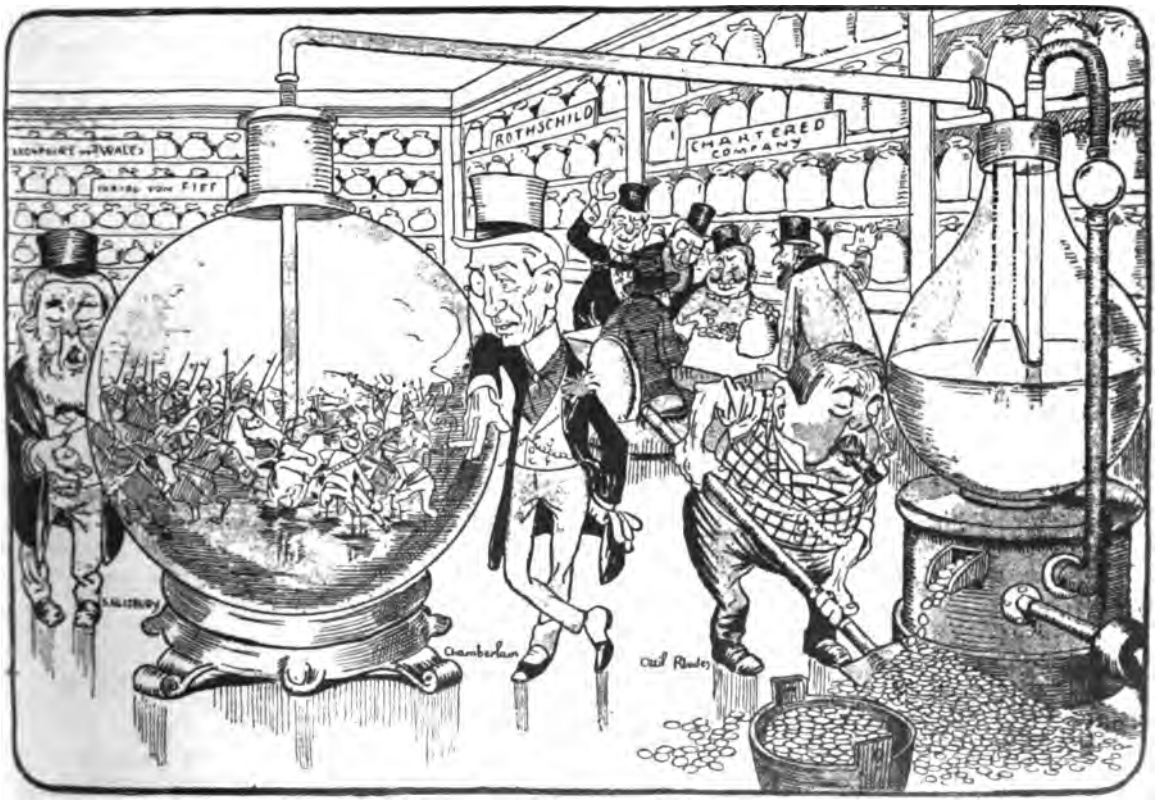


A BITTER PILL.

Doctors never like to take their own medicine—neither does Dr. Chamberlain.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



JOHN BULL AS HE IS IN REALITY AND AS HE SEES HIMSELF.—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR.

A new process for turning human blood into gold.—From *Wahre Jacob* (Munich).



ALI BABA RHODES: "Now I am in the midst of my treasures, but what would I not give to be out again!" From the *Amsterdammer*.



JOHN BULL'S NEW YEAR'S DAY.

THE POWERS: "Many happy returns of the day!"—From the *Amsterdammer*.

DWIGHT L. MOODY: A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS.

IF one were asked to name the commanding figures in the field of religious activity and theological thought who, during the century now ebbing to its close, have arisen in the English-speaking world, the list would contain at least sixteen names: F. D. Maurice, "the most mystical thinker of our century;" F. W. Robertson, who "of all preachers has most moved the mind and conscience of this generation;" Charles H. Spurgeon, Henry Drummond, James Martineau, A. M. Fairbairn, Cardinals Newman and Manning, Gen. William Booth, of the Salvation Army, among Britons; and Horace Bushnell, William E. Channing, Theodore Parker, Henry Ward Beecher, Phillips Brooks, Dwight L. Moody, and Francis E. Clark, founder of the Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor, among Americans. Of these Maurice, Robertson, Newman, Martineau, Fairbairn, Bushnell, and Channing have been preëminent as theologians, Newman, Martineau, and Parker as polemicists, Robertson and Bushnell as "preachers to preachers," Spurgeon, Beecher, Brooks, and Moody as preachers to the people, and Booth, Moody, and Clark as devisers and administrators of new forms of Christian activity. Manning and Drummond belong to a class of mediators, the one attempting the task of making the Church an arbiter in the strife of modern industry; the other acting as mediator between science and religion, and incidentally serving as confessor to intellectually perplexed Protestant souls—to more of these, probably, than any man of this century.



DWIGHT LYMAN MOODY.
(From a photo taken in Paris in 1883.)

Of these but three survive—Fairbairn, Booth, and Clark. The last save one to leave the world was Dwight L. Moody, one of the few truly great men who died during the year 1899. It is of him that this character sketch will treat.

Henry Drummond, a broad-church Presbyterian, "an aristocrat in taste, if with the mob in principle"—like F. W. Robertson, the friend of the intellectual and titled aristocracy of Scotland and England, educated at Edinburgh University and by much travel, a constant student of human character, and an expert in spiritual diagnosis, said of Mr. Moody, "He was the biggest human I ever met;" and he proved his loyalty to this conviction once by choosing the society of Mr. Moody rather than that of Oliver Wendell Holmes and Henry W. Longfellow, giving as his reason for this choice that "the world is not dying for poets so much as for preachers."

We may frankly admit that possibly Professor Drummond's great personal indebtedness to Mr. Moody may have weighed somewhat with him in forming his estimate, yet it remains a verdict that has to be reckoned with and faced squarely. Drummond's personal tastes and intellectual convictions were in so many ways antipodal to those of Mr. Moody that the appraisal still has weight, even after due discount is made for any elements of gratitude and affection that may have been in it.

If the wording of Professor Drummond's appraisal is carefully noted, it will be seen that it was just and discriminating. "The biggest human"—which he did say—is quite a different estimate from "the greatest man"—which he did not say. That which Drummond and every other

discriminating observer saw raised to the *n*th power in Mr. Moody was a profound solicitude for the betterment of his fellow-men. His heart and his will were greater than his reason or his constructive imagination. Yearning for souls, he put forth unremitting effort to win them through the declaration of what he deemed to be



Courtesy of *McClure's Magazine.*

MR. MOODY AT SEVENTEEN.

(At the time when he left the farm to go to Boston.)

the truth, and to state that truth couched in homely speech and in tones of pathetic and often dramatic power—such was his chief function in society.

This solicitude found expression in so many different ways during the years that intervened between his "birth of the spirit," as he called it, in Boston in 1856 and his death in the place of his birth, East Northfield, Mass., on December 22, 1899, that it is quite impossible to class him with any evangelist of any prior epoch of the Christian Church.

He had a ballast of common sense which kept him from emotional excesses such as Whitefield indulged in. He had an organizing executive power which led him early in his career to organize the work of the inquiry-room as no evangelist before him ever had done. This led later to the creation and equipment of three educational institutions, the establishment of systematic preaching and colportage among the inmates of our prisons, the maintenance of publishing establishments in Chicago and at Northfield from which issue inexpensive religious literature, and the use of the educational plant at Northfield each summer for the annual conferences of clergymen, college students, missionary volunteers, Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association workers. In short, as a discriminating critic has said. he "not only won battles, but organized the fruits of victory." To quote Rev. Dr. George C. Lorimer. he was the U. S. Grant or Wellington among Christian warriors; to quote Rev. F. B. Meyer, he was "the Von Moltke of the religious world in the United States." John McNeill also calls him "the Wellington of the evangelistic army;" and it is suggestive to know that Mr. Moody was an admirer of Napoleon, considered as an organizing mind.

Mr. Moody, viewed solely as an administrator, as an agent for the benefactions of men of wealth, as a transmuter of money into brick, stone, books, tracts, and educational parapher-



Courtesy of *McClure's Magazine.*

MR. MOODY AT TWENTY-SIX.

nalia, ranks as one of the great men of the century, independent of any estimate of his moral or spiritual significance. Scotland, Ireland, England, and the United States are dotted with Young Men's Christian Association buildings and Bible institutes of which he laid the foundations, metaphorically speaking, if not literally. As a salesman in a Chicago shoe store he sold more goods than any other clerk, and had he remained in the business he probably would have been at the head of a shoe manufacturing "trust" at the time of his death. Possessing this power, he won the confidence of a class of

men whom the ordinary traditional evangelist never had enlisted in Christian work, and for the last thirty years Mr. Moody had only to make his desires known to responsible men of wealth in the United States and Great Britain—men like John V. Farwell and the McCormicks in Chicago, John Wanamaker in Philadelphia, William E. Dodge in New York, and Lord Overtoun in Glasgow—and the funds have been forthcoming.

Realizing that the confidence inspired by his rare gifts as an administrator might not be granted in equal measure to those who should be called upon after his death to carry on the work he had begun, Mr. Moody during his recent years had been using all his powers of persuasion to induce men and women of wealth to provide an endowment for the schools at Northfield and at Mt. Hermon and for the Bible Institute in Chicago. He died before this task was accomplished, and now a joint appeal has gone forth from the trustees of the institutions asking that $3,000,000 be given with which to endow them. The sum of $125,000 to carry on the work had been raised annually by Mr. Moody. Should the public respond to the appeal which has gone forth in terms commensurate with the expectations and desires of the trustees, it would be a testimony of affection and respect such as no other layman in the history of the Church has ever received.*

Considerable of the revenue for the Bible Institute in Chicago and the Northfield schools has come from the large royalties received from the sale of the Moody and Sankey hymn-books, which Mr. Moody invariably refused to use for personal or family uses. The taint of selfishness, of growing well-to-do out of the profits of evangelistic work, is not one that clings to Mr. Moody's memory, as it will to that of some other contemporary evangelists. He had not "the facility to coin a fortune out of the exercise of his moral deficiencies." He leaves to his children a legacy of character and work to be done—and nothing more.



MRS. BETSEY MOODY.
(Mother of D. L. Moody.)



BIRTHPLACE OF MR. MOODY AT EAST NORTHFIELD, MASS.

Much of Mr. Moody's success in all that he undertook was due to his knowledge of men. In what may be called "spiritual diagnosis" he probably was not as skilled as Henry Drummond. He had no such haunting memory of early sin to guide him in diagnosis as we find recorded in bold outline in St. Augustine's "Confessions;" and it was a striking phenomenon that in his sermons and addresses his exhortations to sinners were seldom, if ever, coupled with references to sins of his youth. He had a deep sense of sin, but it was of sins of pride, ambition, and the like—spiritual sins rather than carnal sins. The trials and venial shortcomings of his youth, the kindness done to him by others when a homesick boy, the terrible results that had come to others through carnal sin, effects which he had witnessed, confessions which he had heard in the inquiry-room—all these were the woof that played

* The committee which will receive contributions made in response to this appeal includes William E. Dodge, James Talcott, Anson Phelps Stokes, Jr., Morris K. Jesup, D. Willis James, and John S. Kennedy, of New York; D. W. McWilliams and Ira D. Sankey, of Brooklyn; E. G. Keith, Cyrus McCormick, and Victor Lawson, of Chicago; John H. Converse and John Wanamaker, of Philadelphia; C. A. Hopkins, of Boston; and Francis White, of Baltimore.

in and out of the web of truth which he got from the Bible. But he was not given to detailed self-analysis either in public or private, and he has left no such record of his soul-life for posterity as New England's first great native-born revivalist, Jonathan Edwards, left. But Edwards was first of all a metaphysician. Mr. Moody's real inner self-life, according to Dr. George F. Pentecost, was as closed a book as was Drummond's, according to the testimony of Prof. George Adam Smith, Drummond's biographer.

Lacking this studied self-revelation that has made many an evangelist powerful, and also lacking that theoretical knowledge of human nature which comes from the study of secular history, the drama, or psychology, Mr. Moody nevertheless was profoundly versed in the ways of the human heart; and his skill in selecting the right helpers for special sorts of work to be done was comparable only with his power in reaching the hearts and stimulating the wills of the multitudes to whom he preached. There were hundreds of men with better voices than Mr. Sankey's voice—considered merely as a tone-producer; but Mr. Moody discovered the soul in the man who could make a second-class voice produce first-class spiritual results through its expressive and appealing use. Henry Drummond was only one of many young Edinburgh University men who in 1874 were swept into the evangelistic campaign which Messrs. Moody and Sankey carried on in Scotland. But Mr. Moody instantly recognized Drummond's innate fineness of soul and superiority, just as John Watson ("Ian Maclaren") had recognized it instantly years before, when he first saw Drummond on the playground at the Stirling school; and he set Drummond at work in places of spiritual authority and usefulness when he was but twenty-two years of age, with an effect upon Drummond's character and future career that probably saved him from being a mere scientist and made him a spiritual redeeming force in circles of society untouched by Mr. Moody, and among people undergoing intellectual storm and stress with which Mr. Moody was unable to sympathize and for which he could not prescribe.

This naturally suggests consideration of the question of Mr. Moody's limitations. From the time of his first floundering efforts to speak in the prayer-meeting of the Mt. Vernon Congregational Church in Boston just after his conversion down to the day of his death, no one was better aware than Mr. Moody that he was limited in his acquirements in what the world deems academic culture. This sort of culture President Eliot, of

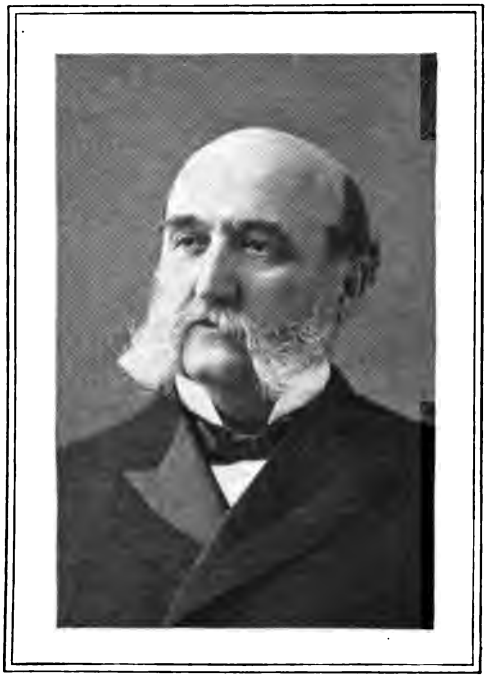


MR. MOODY'S LIBRARY IN HIS NORTHFIELD HOME.

Harvard, has defined as bearing fruit in "an open mind, trained to careful thinking, instructed in the methods of philosophic investigation, acquainted in a general way with the accumulated thought of past generations, and penetrated with humility." Of course Mr. Moody had attainments in spiritual culture, culture of the essential man, which no degree of academic culture by itself can give to one. Emerson said that "the foundation of culture, as of character, is at the last moral sentiment"—and of moral sentiment Mr. Moody had a vast deal. Of comparative religion, of the philosophy of religion, of the psychology of conversion as it is set forth empirically in the recently issued epoch-marking book of Professor Starbuck, of Leland Stanford University, entitled "The Psychology of Religion," of the effect produced upon the thought of his time by the writings of Darwin and Spencer, or of the meaning of such careers as those of Amiel or Romanes, Mr. Moody was practically ignorant.

There can be but little doubt that his ignorance on some matters was a blessing to the world, or at least that portion of it as untouched as himself by the disintegrating influence of the discoveries of the last fifty years. This would have been a sad world if all lives during that period had been as futile as was Amiel's because of his honest but despairing search for objective certitude and for the equilibrium of truth. Mr. Moody's grounds for religious certitude were subjective, and he willed passionately to get others to feel and see the truth as he felt and saw it.

If Mr. Moody's father had been a long-lived, prosperous Worcester manufacturer instead of a short-lived Northfield stone mason; if, as the son of such a father, he had been sent to the Worcester High School, then to Yale College and Yale Theological Seminary (these institutions are named only as types, not with any invidious distinction in mind) instead of having only a district-school education, and the Bible and humanity for his text-books, and the problem of self-support to face from the time he was seventeen,



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IRA D. SANKEY.

Mr. Moody might have known a great deal more than he ever knew about the history of Christian doctrine, the exact composition of the Pentateuch, and the relative influence of heredity and environment; and the Unitarian or Trinitarian Congregational denominations might have had another Theodore Parker or Henry Ward Beecher. For not even the deindividualizing process of our present educational machinery could have radically changed so vital a personality as Mr. Moody. But his life record would have been different and the range of his direct popular influence narrowed. The careers of Henry Drummond and Phillips Brooks prove that men can be both broad and deep, scholarly and evangelistic. Mr. Moody might have been another such had he gone to college and the seminary. If so, with his tremendous energy, utter abandonment to God's will, and great executive power, he would



GENERAL VIEW OF THE MT. HERMON SCHOOL BUILDINGS.



Talcott Library. Skinner Gymnasium. Stone Hall. Marquand Hall.

GROUP OF NORTHFIELD SEMINARY BUILDINGS.

have taken rank with such leaders as Luther and John Wesley.

That Mr. Moody realized his limitations in his saner, more normal moods cannot be doubted. When Mr. Gladstone met him and said to Mr. Moody, "I wish I had your body," Mr. Moody's reply was more creditable to his discernment and his innate courtesy than was Mr. Gladstone's remark to him. Mr. Moody replied: "I wish I had your head." In moral power, a desire to have righteousness done among men of their time, the two men were singularly alike, and met as equals. When Mr. Moody sent his sons to Yale University he decided as so many other fathers have done—namely, that his sons should have privileges which he missed in youth and from which lack he had suffered continually. When he founded the schools for girls at East Northfield and for boys at Mt. Hermon he recognized distinctly that there were scores of farmers' boys and girls in the adjacent territory who were shut out from high schools and who were too poor to go to the New England denominational or private academies, and who, therefore, unless he provided a way for them, might grow up to be as ignorant and illiterate as he was in youth. When he summoned the first gathering of delegates from Christian associations in the colleges and universities of America and Europe to Northfield, it was not only with the hope that the influence which he and his helpers might exert on the students would be beneficial to them, but also with the conviction that they, with their trained powers of thought and expression, might help him. There are few more beautiful pictures in the memories of those who have visited Northfield than those of Mr. Moody seen sitting humbly at the feet of young collegians like John R. Mott, Robert Speer, and L. D. Wishard.

Mr. Moody also had seasons when he willingly recognized that he had no right to speak with authority on the questions involved in the higher criticism of the Bible. Thus Mr. William E. Curtis, of the Chicago *Record*, reports a conversation with Mr. Moody during the Briggs heresy trial in which Mr. Moody said: "I'm not up to that sort of thing. You see, I never studied theology, and I'm precious glad I didn't. The single verse 'Come unto me all ye that labor and are heavy laden and I will give you rest' contains all the religion that I need, or any other man or woman."

But Mr. Moody had his seasons when he was not so humble, moments when he trespassed on the preserves of theologians, scholars, and administrators of institutions esteemed and venerable. At such times he caused many of his friends to grieve and harmed his reputation. Thus when he wrote of ministers "who are cutting up the Bible—denying Moses to-day and Isaiah to-morrow, and Daniel the next day and Jonah the next, they are doing the devil's work—

they are driving the young men of this generation into infidelity," he showed his limited knowledge both as to the motives of good men and as to the effect of their work upon the present generation. It was because he was so persistent and emphatic in criticism of this kind, and so pessimistic as to the condition of Boston's church and civic life during his last revival campaign in that city in 1897, that he was trenchantly rebuked by so good a friend as *Zion's Herald*, the Methodist journal of the city. This also was the reason why he was invited to attend a private conference with all the Congregational clergymen of Greater Boston, where he was given some brotherly admonition by grieved old-time friends and then admirers with a degree of frankness which was admirable.

When all this is said, it remains true that despite his limitations; despite the "defects of his qualities;" despite the fact that in his last years he identified himself somewhat exclusively with men chosen from the school of biblical interpreters who are literalists in the interpretation of Scripture, hence pre-millennialists; despite his lack of sympathy with the ever-enlarging school of Christian thought represented by advocates like Tolstoi, Kingsley, Ruskin, Herron, and Charles S. Sheldon, and those who put emphasis on the Gospel as a possible agent in redeeming society *en bloc*, as it were—despite all this, it remains true that Mr. Moody's value to the spiritual life of the time in which he lived transcends that of any other preacher of the Gospel, or, as Mr. George W. Cable, the writer of exquisite literature, puts it: "His speculations concerning things beyond this earth were not peculiarly his and were not the measure of his great worth. His value was his amazing gift for identifying the whole human side of his religion with the whole human side of his life, and for kindling other souls from the fires of his mighty devotion."



AUDITORIUM AT EAST NORTHFIELD.
(Seating capacity 2,500.)

It is doubtful whether any man ever faced and preached to so many people. Whitefield drew large crowds, but at infrequent intervals; Moody spoke to thousands night after night, week in and week out, and his last words as an evangelist were uttered in Kansas City to an audience of 15,000 people. His drawing power in 1899 was as great as in the 60s and 70s in communities where he was a new voice. Spurgeon filled the Metropolitan Tabernacle in London for a long series of years, and his audiences were cosmopolitan, but many of the congregation were habitual attendants. He never traveled as Moody did, nor reached such diverse congregations. In this peripatetic aspect of his work Mr. Moody had no rivals among the ancients save in St. Paul, and among moderns had none save in "Father Endeavor" Clark, of the Christian Endeavor Society, General Booth, of the Salvation Army, and the bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States, whose official duties take them about the world as do those of no other Protestant ecclesiastics.

In his themes Mr. Moody kept very close to life. "Sorrow for Sin—Repentance,"



BIBLE INSTITUTE, CHICAGO.
(Men's department.)



CHICAGO AVENUE CHURCH.
(Organized by Mr. Moody.)



BIBLE INSTITUTE, CHICAGO.
(Women's department.)



REV. C. I. SCOFIELD, D.D.
(Pastor Congregational Church, East Northfield.)



REV. R. A. TORREY.
(Superintendent Bible Institute, Chicago.)



REV. A. T. PIERSON, D.D.
(Editor *Missionary Review of the World.*)

SOME OF THE PROMINENT SPEAKERS AT THE NORTHFIELD CONVENTIONS.

"Forgiveness," "Restitution" were typical subjects. Few men were his equal in making scriptural biography vivid, realistic. His sermon on Daniel won thousands of young men to lives of Christian consecration. He could make the scene of Elijah on Carmel or Naaman the leper at the river live again before the eyes of the multitudes who hung on his words, and this without the aid of any such marvelous voice as Spurgeon had, or any such facial or bodily mobility as were at Whitefield's or J. B. Gough's command. It was done by the sheer force of pictorial language conveyed by a powerful but not musical voice burning with intense conviction. This language judged by any canons of criticism often rose, as Henry Drummond has said, near to the highest ranges of sublime eloquence, because so artless, so intense, so persuasive, and so perfectly adapted to secure the end desired. Judged by the standards of homiletical science as taught in the theological seminaries, his sermons doubtless were often defective. But judged by the test of adaptation of means to end, they were well-nigh perfect. They were great also for the same reason that Hamilton W. Mabie says Lyman Abbott's sermons are great—because they are "a continual disclosure of a beautiful spirit." They were effective, partially because they escaped the indictment David Harum brought against preachers in general. He said, it will be remembered: "It gen'ally seemed to me that if the preacher'd put all the' really was in it together he wouldn't need to have took only 'bout quarter the time; but what with scorin' fer a start an' laggin' on the back stretch, an' every now an' then breakin' to a standstill, I gen'ally wanted to come down out o' the stand before the race was over."

The wealth of quoted and assimilated thought found in the sermons of N. D. Hillis, of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, was lacking in Mr. Moody's sermons. The "carved ivories of speech," the stately rhetoric in the sermons of Dr. R. S. Storrs, Mr. Moody had not the will nor the skill to produce. As an expositor of Scripture he fell below Alexander M'Laren, of Manchester, and Joseph Parker, of London. Shrewd, pungent humor he did not hesitate to use, but it was not humor for humor's sake, as it so often seems to be with the famous Scotch evangelist John McNeill. Spurgeon's melodious voice he lacked, and, as well, Spurgeon's skill in coining homely aphorisms. Bold and searching as were his rebukes to hypocrites and those in high places who led men and women astray, his rebukes never had the acrid quality of Dr. Parkhurst's sermons, for as G. Campbell Morgan puts it, "his anger was always the outcome of tenderness." Finney knew more about systematic theology than Mr. Moody, cared more about it, and in his preaching said more about law and duty than Mr. Moody did. Moody preached the love of God and the privilege of sonship.

His themes were old and varied little from year to year, but his anecdotes and illustrations were ever new, and he was incessant in his search for fresh and apt ones. Of these his varied experience as a mission worker in the slums, as a participant in the Civil War, when he served as a sort of nurse and chaplain combined, and his constant intercourse with men and study of life



H. W. WEBB-PEPLOE.
(Prebendary, St. Paul's, London.)



REV. G. CAMPBELL MORGAN.
(Pastor New Court Congregational Church, London.)



REV. F. B. MEYER.
(Pastor Christ Church, Westminster, London.)

THREE OF MR. MOODY'S HELPERS FROM ENGLAND.

gave him a wealth of individual store. And in addition he had culled anecdotes from every source, either by reading or in conversation. Directness, aptness, sincerity, pathos, and love for humanity were the fundamental elements of his homiletic skill and his unparalleled success. It was an art, not a science, with him; and the highest form of art because so artless. If he lacked the imagination that enabled Milton to conceive "Paradise Lost" or Bunyan the "Pilgrim's Progress," he had an imagination which enabled him to make scriptural characters return to life, and in describing them he often—not always—used simple Saxon English as no other man of his day, save Spurgeon and Lincoln, has used it.

Mr. Moody preached to thousands who never saw him. The value of "printers' ink" was ever present in his thought. No public speaker ever lived, unless it were Wendell Phillips, who was so solicitous of the welfare and respect of the reporters of the daily press, or did so much in a proper way to get and keep on the right side of newspapers, and this without abating in any way his criticisms of what he believed to be some of the evils of journalism.

In planning for an evangelistic campaign in any city, one of his first instructions to the local committee was to prepare the way in the press, and after he had begun work he fostered with deliberate device every means of preaching to the larger multitude who, if they could not enter his meetings, might be won to read about them. This he did because he saw the force of the plan looking at it from the theoretical standpoint, and also because he had known so many people to testify that reports of his sermons delivered, say, in London, Boston, or Chicago, had been read by them in



INTERIOR VIEW OF THE NORTHFIELD AUDITORIUM.



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PAUL D. MOODY.



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WILLIAM R. MOODY.

THE TWO SONS OF THE LATE MR. MOODY.

remote country districts or on the frontiers of civilization, and that the reading had changed the tenor of their lives.

Mr. Moody's printed sermons probably come next to Spurgeon's in their total circulation, and the demand for them is perennial and universal. His Colportage Library was one of his later thoughts, and it already has listed nearly eighty titles of books by Mr. Moody, Spurgeon, F. B. Meyer, John McNeill, R. A. Torrey, Andrew Murray, and other evangelists. These little books are issued in English, German, Swedish, and Danish-Norwegian, and sell for a moderate sum. The Northfield *Echoes* carries to Christian workers throughout the world the stenographic reports of the addresses delivered at Northfield each summer. Mr. Moody did not pretend to be a writer himself, but he knew how to utilize men who could write, and he spared no effort to give the lie to Milton's saying: "For evil news rides post while good news baits." The new auditorium at Northfield has a telegraph office in it and a reporters' room with all the conveniences necessary for the rapid dissemination of news, and nothing about the entire establishment is more characteristic of the forethought of the man Moody.

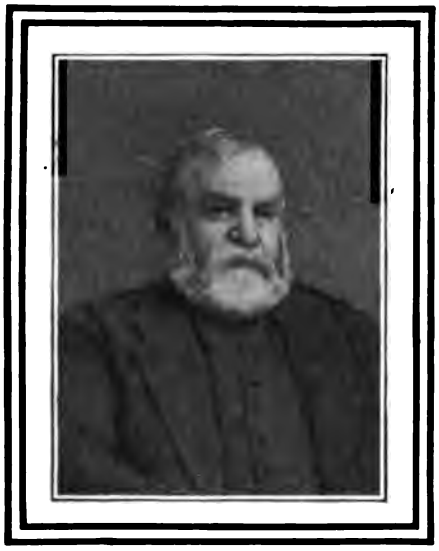
Of course no man could have lived the arduous life that Mr. Moody lived so many years without a physical constitution of phenomenal original strength. His ancestors were people of simple habits and out-of-door life. In his youth he labored out of doors himself, and to his latest day he never lost a legitimate opportunity to extol country life as the ideal human state. His muscles were large, his nerves like steel, and, like Mr. Gladstone, he always had the blessed power to sleep at any time in any place. Had not this been so he would have broken down long before he did, for the amount of physical energy expended by him during his life was abnormal. Abundant sleep and exemption from worry probably kept him whole. He solved problems so swiftly and intuitively that there was little wear and tear in that way. His word was so authoritative with the multitude and with his lieutenants that rebellion caused him but little worry. Besides, God was so real a special Providence for him in directing all that he did that he would have deemed it sinful to worry. Not even George Müller has lived a life of more perfect trust in God than Mr. Moody lived. He was wont to say that he had "prayed up" every building at Northfield and Mt. Hermon.

That his physical endowment and his vital temperament had much to do with conditioning not only his methods of work and his success, but also his views and his ideals of religion, no one can doubt who has studied the phenomena of religion from the scientific standpoint.

The massive lines of his sturdy figure were more like those of Spurgeon or Beecher than those of Phillips Brooks. Symmetrical he was not, nor graceful. A body that if he had lived aught but an industrious, Spartan, spiritual life would easily have become gross, never became so or even seemed so to one who had come near enough to him to gaze on his clean eye, ruddy skin, and healthy countenance. Emotion swept across his face and registered its verdict as transparently in his old age as it did when he was a child at his mother's knee. Brusque and peremptory as he seemed often, it was more in manner than in thought. F. B. Meyer says it was often a manner assumed to stave off adulation or make people care more for the truth than the messenger. Mr. Moody's eldest son bore testimony at his father's funeral that his father's quickness to ask forgiveness of his children for

hasty words spoken to them had, along with his other virtues, made the father a hero to his own children—which all prominent Christian teachers are not. Mr. Moody's chivalrous devotion to his mother, Mrs. Betsey Moody, made all who witnessed it believe that he cherished in his heart Emerson's saying to Carlyle: "The best son is not a good-enough son."

Here it may be proper to say that the biographer of Moody will find his family life and do-



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DWIGHT L. MOODY.

(From photo taken in 1868.)

mestic fate very unlike that of the great John Wesley, whom as an organizer he so much resembled. Mr. Moody and Miss Emma C. Revell, of Chicago, were married in 1862, and from that day on she was his sympathetic comrade. They first met in a mission Sunday-school, where she taught and where Mr. Moody was offered a class if he would gather it himself. The next Sunday he appeared with eighteen bareheaded, barefooted, ragged, dirty urchins.

The art of attaining means through indirection Mr. Moody never mastered. He always went straight to the mark, and having had his way so invariably during the early years of his campaigning as an evangelist, it became not only first, but second nature with him to decide every detail of administration, to formulate every plan of campaign. And such was his power over men and such their confidence in his sincerity of motive that seldom was his authority questioned. Men who in their own churches or cities were apt to give orders came to the Northfield conferences content to serve humbly in the ranks.

No estimate of Mr. Moody would be at all complete if it did not recognize the influence that he had in drawing Great Britain and the United States nearer together, and in bringing nearer essential unity among Protestant Christians in the United States and Great Britain. His two tours through Great Britain made the British feel that they owed something spiritually to an American. The many deputations from British universities to the Northfield student gatherings have caused not a few young Britons to visit the United States, and thus they have become better acquainted with our political and educational institutions. The many eminent English and Scotch clergymen, such men as Webb-Peploe, F. B. Meyer, G. Campbell Morgan, and George Adam Smith, whom Mr. Moody brought to this country to coöperate with him in his work in Chicago and Northfield also have usually gone home more intelligent and sympathetic friends of the United States. On the other hand, the many



MRS. D. L. MOODY.

American clergymen, missionaries, and college students who have sat at the feet of these foreign teachers or mingled with the foreign students have been made debtors to British folk in a way that they do not forget now that Great Britain is enduring trouble.

From the very first Mr. Moody in his evangelistic work has refused to labor under any denominational banner. He was born in a Unitarian family. He was converted in a Trinitarian Congregational church, and he died a member of a church of that denomination. But neither from his sermons, nor his books, nor his choice of helpers could any one infer that he cared an iota



MR. MOODY'S HOME AT EAST NORTHFIELD, MASS.
(With Marquand Hall and Stone Hall at the left.)

about any special denomination. He was elected a delegate to the recent International Congregational Council, but preferred to hold evangelistic meetings in New York City. His relations with Roman Catholics have always been cordial. Before he had been a Christian a year he had interviewed Bishop Duggan, of Chicago, and secured from him a promise that some youthful Catholics should be stopped from molesting Mr. Moody's humble mission ; and the two men had prayed for and with each other. In his evangelistic campaign in Ireland in 1874 he drew forth an interdict from Cardinal Cullen, to be sure, but it was because he was so winsome that Catholics were flocking to his meetings and being converted, not because he was directly attacking the Roman Church ; and the *Nation*, a Fenian paper, rebuked the *Freeman's Journal* for its condemnation of the movement, so impressed with the candor and sincerity of Mr. Moody were the editors of the *Nation*.

In Northfield also Mr. Moody was on the best of terms with the Roman Catholics. He gave the largest subscription toward building a new church for the flock, and later he presented an organ, and justified his action thus : "If they *are* Roman Catholics, it is better that they should be good ones than bad. It is surely better to have a Catholic church than none ; and as for the organ, if they are to have music in the church, it is better to have good music. Besides, they are my own townspeople. If I am ever to be of the best use to them, surely I must help them now." Later, when Mr. Moody let it be known to his intimates that he intended soon to build on a certain spot on the seminary grounds, he was surprised one day to find that his Roman Catholic fellow-townsmen had gone up to the hillside and hauled down enough stone for the foundations for the new buildings, without so much as asking his leave. Thus did comity beget comity.

As for Mr. Moody's important share in throwing down barriers between Protestant churches and pastors in Great Britain and this country, there can be little doubt of it. He always stipulated that the arrangements for his evangelistic or revival services should be strictly on a union basis. As a result, in Scotland, the "split P.s" among the Presbyterians found themselves working side by side with each other. In England low-church Anglicans and nonconformists worked side by side. In this country the same merging process went on. And as a matter of course men who found they could labor together in this way soon found they could labor together in other ways. The influence of the assemblies at Northfield also has tended to unify sects and throw down fences of partition.

Of course Mr. Moody's whole career was based

on his real conviction that all men needed to undergo the second birth, and that even after that event they were prone to grow cold or "fall from grace," to use a technical term. Hence he held that the Church needs reviving at intervals. For the great religious communions whose theory of the Christian life makes it either a normal process of growth or one of sacramental regeneration and perpetuation he had but little sympathy, and from them got little sympathy in return. He was an evangelist to the individual, had little use for priests or institutions, and believed thoroughly that God dealt immediately and individually with men. His chief temptation, as Prof. George Adam Smith, of the Free Church College, Glasgow, points out in a review of Mr. Moody's work in Scotland, to be found in his life of Henry Drummond, was "to ignore all religious experience which lay outside the definite theology of the movement, and in a stubborn refusal to recognize the manifest fruits of God's Spirit apart from the formulas and processes through which converts had arrived at the truth. And another form of this vice was the unwillingness to see in Scripture any facts save such as might be used to confirm a very narrow view of inspiration." But later in his career Mr. Moody recognized Christian character wherever he saw it, and his heart often made him accept the coöperation of men whom his theological opinions and ecclesiastical principles, if



SNAPSHOT OF MR. MOODY.
(Taken in May, 1899, while driving to Mt. Hermon.)

carried to their logical extreme, should have caused him to spurn. He did this often despite the protests of some of his lieutenants, who, if they could have had their way, would never have permitted Henry Drummond or George Adam Smith to speak at Northfield. His catholicity of



GENERAL VIEW OF NORTHFIELD SEMINARY BUILDINGS.
(From the west bank of the Connecticut River.)

spirit and sincerity, in turn, won for him the loyal coöperation of some men of the Anglican and Protestant Episcopal churches and the respect of those in other churches who believe in Christian nurture and who distrust revivals.

If Mr. Moody's life was remarkable for its faith in God and its hope of immortality, his manner of leaving the world was no less so. Stricken low with heart disease at Kansas City, he was taken to his home in Northfield. For a time it seemed as if he might recover sufficiently to act as an administrator, if not as an evangelist. But other bodily defects appeared, and on December 22, 1899, he died. Coming out of a sinking spell early that morning he said: "If this is death there is no valley. This is glorious. I have been within the gates and I saw the children. Earth is receding. Heaven is approaching. God is calling me." Later he gave parting instructions to his family respecting their life-work, declaring that he never had been ambitious to lay up money, but only to have strength enough to do what God called him to do. Then, when the physicians approached to give him stimulants and prolong life, Mr. Moody asked if they could do aught but alleviate distress, and when they replied that no permanent gain was to come from their act he said: "Then I think we will stop, for it is only prolonging the suffering of those who are dear to me." Thus his last volition was one of consideration for others, and with that he died.

The funeral was a joyous occasion, with nature aflame with light and his kindred lacking in all signs of mourning in dress or demeanor. Tried friends from near and far gathered. Some of them spoke tributes of affection, among them his eldest son. Youths from the Mt. Hermon school for boys bore the body to Round Top, and there it was laid in soil which even before his burial had become consecrated ground, so many have been the life-decisions made upon it by Christian workers. From this time on Round Top will be one of the most frequented grave sites in the world.

"How cautiously men sink into nameless graves, while now and then one forgets himself into immortality," said Wendell Phillips of Lovejoy, the anti-slavery martyr.

Moody "forgot himself into immortality."



"ROUND TOP," WHERE MR. MOODY IS BURIED.



PANORAMA OF BERLIN.

A FRENCH VIEW OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

BY PIERRE DE COUBERTIN.

IT may be taken for granted that many Americans will at first have doubts whether a French view of the German empire ought to be trusted. People usually agree as to the necessary unfairness of mind of any Frenchman who undertakes to visit the lands beyond his lost provinces and tell what he has seen and heard over there. Yet, when I come to think of it, the reverse seems quite as true. If Germany has often been abused by third-class pamphlet or newspaper writers for thirty years, on the other hand many distinguished French authors have published books in which they display, with regard to their imperial neighbors, not only a fine sense of equity, but true sympathy and, in some cases, an admiration that, in my opinion, has gone too far. Success always proves impressive on Frenchmen, the more so when it is achieved at their own expense; for they then feel eager to find out by what means their rivals have succeeded, in order to make use of such means in trying to surpass them in turn. This, of course, they fail to do, being bad imitators; but they nevertheless try to work in that direction. Another illustration of the same feeling may be given. I doubt whether in any other country the modern colonial methods of the British ever were so often praised and their superiority so frankly acknowledged even by those who seem more strongly prejudiced against England. Thus it is that, strong and persevering as it was, the desire for retaliation did not, as a rule, make French judgments of Germany unjust or bitter.

I must confess, however, that my point of view is somewhat different from that of most of my countrymen. The German empire does not interest me as a possible example for any other nation, but in itself, as a completed work, the result of many and many years of hard trials and enduring patience. How one can claim that were it not for two great men—Bismarck and Moltke—and for two great victories—Sadowa and Sedan—history might have turned another way, I completely fail to understand. The historical character of the work is above any possible discussion. Circumstances of the past show clearly enough why the Germans should have remained so long a scattered and powerless people, but not one single reason could be found to explain how, in modern times, they could have been prevented from uniting into one big flock. This was to happen either by a peaceful vote, as

the Frankfort Parliament tried to do it in 1848, or through the cheering of a victorious army, as was the case in 1870. I feel that if I had been born a German I would have willingly devoted all my strength to the cause of German unity; and while such a feeling helps one toward a fairer appreciation of foreign patriotism, I do not think it can, in the slightest degree, injure one's own patriotism.

THE GERMAN CAPITAL.

Americans who have visited the German cities and gone at all into society are well acquainted



EQUESTRIAN STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

with the questions a German likes to ask a foreign visitor as soon as he thinks he can do it without hurting "decorum." He cares to know what you think of Berlin, of the Emperor, of the socialists, of Bismarck. I suppose Berlin comes first because of its growing elegance and its claim to pomp and refinement—a long-wished-for improvement—for Germany, while rather practical in her undertakings, has constantly nursed the hope of becoming a refined country; and Friedrich the Great himself, who cared above all for good soldiers and knew how to use them, was too good a friend of Voltaire not to feel the same. So to take Paris was not enough for his descendants; they tried to carry back with them a little Parisianism. Well, I don't think they have succeeded so far! Parisianism cannot live out of Paris. But why should they endeavor to Parisianize Berlin? London is a refined city, and so is Rome, and so is New York, and they differ from Paris as completely as possible. Berlin will perhaps reach in the future some original form of refinement, but as much has been done already to improve and adorn the city, Friedrich the Great can rejoice in his grave. The noblest of Berlin's features is unquestionably the Thiergarten, and it will remain so, provided architects and artists leave room for the gardener's work. They are at present erecting so many white marble memorials in honor of all sorts of unknown heroes of the past that the time may come when there may be in the Thiergarten as many stones as trees. At one end of it stands the new Reichstag's palace, a huge square building, the outside of which is rather displeasing to look at, while the inside consists of a splendid series of halls, rooms, libraries, and lobbies, most richly and tastefully decorated.

Close to the Reichstag opens the famous "Unter den Linden" avenue that leads to the Lustgarten Platz, where the Emperor's palace and the cathedral, both of Roman style, face one another. Beyond is old Berlin, and on the right are the new quarters where, owing to the electric cars running through the streets and the number of wires on the tops of the houses, I more than once thought myself in some western American city. "Unter den Linden" is usually considered as the center of Berlin life. Now, is there anything that can be called by such a name? Berlin's life is a busy one, no doubt; much money is earned and spent there every day; many books and magazines are printed; many committee meetings are held; there are clubs and theaters, concerts and lectures. Yet people don't mingle; a kind of stiffness prevails in the leading social circles, and life is cut up as in bits. Berlin's inexperience as a capital cannot account for that. The cause is to be found in the persistency of Prussian monarchical habits. Everybody in public service, civil or military, is ordered to a seat, and has to remain there until he is called to another. The state looks like a chessboard; society is somewhat similar. Do you go to court or do you not? It makes all the difference, since if you don't go you are not likely to see much of those who go. Some are not expected ever to be admitted (the Jews, for instance), however rich and influential they may be. Others can look forward to being admitted when they have been raised high enough in the hierarchy of officers. Now, living in Berlin has become very expensive for the higher classes, because the taxes on the owners of large houses have risen to a percentage unknown elsewhere in

Europe. The Jews, who are many in number—as many, I believe, as in the whole of France—and very wealthy, have by degrees driven the nobility out of their old homes or have erected costly mansions where they entertain their friends and feast among themselves. Thus the court is on one side and the money on the other, with a ditch between them. Then Berlin's extension and prosperity have given birth to a *petite bourgeoisie*, not the less interesting by any means, which increases rapidly, but lives apart from the two other sets. Of course, such partition work exists in every city, but nowhere else so complete and imperious. How, under such unfavorable circumstances, could Berlin life grow as free, easy, and stimulating as life at Rome, Paris, or London?

THE GERMAN EMPEROR.

I wonder what the Emperor thinks of these matters when from his windows in the palace he looks on what is going on "Unter den Linden"? It is hardly probable that such a state of things should have escaped his quick and indefatigable mind. Nothing escapes him, great or small. He wants to know how the Empress will be dressed on the coming gala evening, and if the Berlin schoolboys enjoy the rowing club he has started and built for them on the Spree River. He draws up with his own hand, for his minister's use, tables showing how the fleets of the great European powers compare with one another; and he writes down the holy sentences he means to comment on before the crew the next Sunday he will spend on his yacht. In past times such a tendency has often existed. History reports various cases of sovereigns and statesmen who had the habit of looking into every corner and interfering when their interference would have been the least expected—for which they were usually considered at fault. Nothing of the kind happens to William II. What would cast unpopularity on the head of any other man in his position seems to make him all the more fascinating. The secret of this happy result lies in the Emperor's fine sincerity and straightforwardness. He is clever, certainly, and sometimes very skillful in his management of men; but in several circumstances he has acted rather awkwardly. My impression is that calculation is much rarer with him than people usually think. Only his accession to the throne had long been dreaded in Europe on the ground that he was thought to be a very passionate, impetuous, and warlike crown prince. As he has proved hitherto a thoughtful, assiduous, and peace-seeking emperor, it is not astonishing that he should be deemed a calculating man.

But he is not, and the contrast itself between what he is to-day and what people anticipated he would be stands as an argument on behalf of his sincerity. A calculating man takes great care



UNTER DEN LINDEN.

not to show any inconsistency: the German Emperor feels no anxiety of that sort. He means that none of his rights shall be lessened and that none of his duties shall be forsaken. He is satisfied with protecting his rights against encroach-



EMPEROR WILLIAM II.
(From his latest portrait.)

ment and fulfilling his duties loyally and zealously. The imperial rights are many, but it is a question whether the duties are not even more in number. At any rate, their character is extremely different. When he is leaning on his rights William II. looks like a figure of the past. "We Hohenzollerns," he said once, "we hold our power from God himself, and to God alone we are answerable for the way we use it." One might think these words had been spoken three centuries ago. But it is doubtful whether any of the Emperor's ancestors believed as firmly as he does in the theory of divine right. On the other hand, none of them ever undertook to face his daily task in so democratic a way. William, in many respects, bears himself more like an elected president than like an hereditary sovereign. From morning till night he is on duty and does not allow his *bon plaisir* to rule in anything. Thus he combines the most modern and the most old-style sides of leadership, and he does it so earnestly, with so much sincerity, that those even who consider any kind of Cæsarism unreasonable and dangerous are bound to pay homage to this noble-minded Cæsar.

THE WORK OF BISMARCK.

As I was pushing across the complicated wheelwork of the imperial administration in order to complete my inquiry, I noticed here and there that the Emperor's interference was not only beneficial, but proved indispensable when it ought to have been, if not prejudicial, at least useless. This led me to reconsider the life and work of young Germany's great man, Prince Bismarck. His work is twofold: he achieved German unity and organized the empire. Although he displayed much genius in the first half of his career, there is no doubt that Germany might have done without him. Things would have gone on more slowly—more safely, also, for at one time Bismarck seems to have acted rather imprudently and to have been very near endangering Prussia's fate—but finally Germany would have reached its unity all the same. Anyhow, Bismarck during that period proved so daring a statesman that his audacity won for him public admiration, compensating his lack of scruples. The second half of his career is by no means a wonderful one. All his prestige is not enough to make up for the two enormous mistakes he committed in going to war against the Roman Catholics, first, and then against the socialists, meeting with a complete rout on both occasions. But he was at least credited with having designed, constructed, and set in motion the imperial machinery. That he proved an able engineer now seems doubtful. When the German empire was established, General Grant, in the famous telegrams he sent to Versailles—which France did not soon forget or forgive—alluded somewhat naïvely to the federal character of the new government. Now, suppose the District of Columbia is given back to Maryland, Washington is no longer a capital, and the title and powers of President of the United States are transferred to the governor of the State of New York: would there be any true federalism in America? Ger-

many's case seems pretty similar. There is no empire. Prussia predominates, and her king rules under the name of emperor. This is why the engine needs so much oil and supervision. In Bismarck's hands it threatened often to stop or break; and if the three emperors, William I., Friedrich III., and William II., had not helped to run it, the worst might have happened. But all three were careful and attentive. They have done more for the solidity of their throne—if not for the glory of their house—than Bismarck himself. William I. was a very great man; he had a strong will and knew how to act against it—the rarest of human qualities. Little has been said of Friedrich III. because his reign was so short; but the fortitude he displayed in his terrible sufferings and the beautiful "rescript" he wrote on his accession are enough to show what kind of an emperor he meant to be. His son I have already praised. Indeed, Germany, too ill-treated by the Hapsburgs, is fortunate with the Hohenzollerns; and what is known of the present Crown Prince's education and accomplishments seems most encouraging.



THE IMPERIAL PALACE, BERLIN.

Whether Bismarck was ambitious for himself or not is another question, which one cannot easily decide. In organizing the empire he made room for an extremely powerful chancellor, in fact the center of the whole system; and certainly he did it with the idea that he would himself be the chancellor and remain in his chair for many years, until old age came. At the same time, any one who sums up all the occasions to grow rich or secure privileges and endowments which Bismarck has met with and readily given up will deem that he acted most disinterestedly. Further inquiry and the publication of private letters and state papers may throw more light on this debatable subject. At any rate, Bismarck's ambition was not of a low and vulgar kind.

THE SOCIALISTS.

The socialists were Bismarck's worst foes. His struggle with Roman Catholicism was a purely political affair. Although personally opposed to Roman Catholic doctrines, he was too much of a skeptic in many ways to indulge in any kind of religious intolerance. When, therefore, he found that he had made a mistake, he moved backward, and without much hesitation or regret managed to make peace with the Pope. He never had to face the necessity of making peace with the socialists, for he was dismissed at the very moment when the international conference for the workingmen's benefit met at Berlin, and was succeeded by that honest, generous, and too-soon-forgotten Caprivi. But if such a thing had been required from him by his imperial master he would certainly have refused to yield. Socialism had become his *bête noire*. The Emperor has since had the same feeling—at least it seems so if one refers to the celebrated picture several copies of which were painted under his guidance and sent as presents to the president of the French republic and the European sovereigns.* It showed on a hill France, Germany, Russia, and England, standing figures in shining armors, preparing to fight an awful monster, a sort of a yellow Buddha sitting on the darkest of clouds. The scene meant that Europe was in a great danger of being soon overturned by the Chinese and stormed by the socialists. Thanks to the Japanese, China has ceased to be a nightmare. She looks mighty, but we know that she is weak. The socialist party is far from weak; only its members, while they aim at the

* This picture was reproduced in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for January, 1896.

destruction of society, are doing their best to heal it up. Through their powerful efforts society is undergoing wholesome changes, the first result of which will be to preserve social order from a violent pulling down. I believe this to be true of every country, but it is more true of Germany than of any other country. German socialists are faithful not only to their fatherland, but even to the Emperor. Their enthusiasm for Marx's doctrines comes chiefly from the fact that, unable to follow most of his reasonings, they are deceived by his dazzling scientific pathos. At the same time the German mind is naturally led to prophetism. Marx is a prophet up to date. Theology and Utopia are thus the two great supporters of the socialistic agitation in Germany. As to practical consequences, the only ones I can foresee are progress in the way of democracy and a slow but peaceful settlement of social struggling, provided, of course, that the imperial government will not at any moment shed oil on the fire, and by declaring roughly against the socialists turn them into determined and irritable enemies.

DANGER AHEAD!

This leads me to express my views about Germany's future; they are somewhat different from other people's views. I cannot make out why the fact that Austria is dying does not strike everybody. The Emperor Francis Joseph has no heir worthy of him, and if even he had one, who could keep much longer united in one bundle so many different nations each wanting to go its own way and to steer the others? The going to pieces of the Austrian dominion is as unavoidable as the progress of electricity. Supposing it survives the Emperor, the present state of things cannot last for more than a few years after he dies. It is easy then to foretell what will happen, at least with the German-speaking provinces —they will apply to Berlin for admission into the German empire. William II. and his ministers may object to that. How could they prevent it? Quite a number of Americans objected also, many years ago, to the admission of Texas into their Union. Texas was admitted, nevertheless. No great power is free to maintain her present border when there is beyond that border a smaller state that seeks to be absorbed. Now, the danger of annexation is as great for Germany to-day as it was for the United States when the slave question was raging. There is also a German North and a German South, the former under the yoke of Protestant Prussia, the latter influenced by the Roman Catholic Bavarians. At present the North is much stronger than the South, but the annexation of the Austrian provinces will make the South almost as big and powerful as the North. It means, then, a considerable change, a mere reversing of the present equilibrium in political Germany, and it seems improbable that this may happen without disturbances.

BRITISH RIVALRY AND FRENCH RANCOR.

I suppose I shall not be allowed to drop the subject without a few words on the imperial government's probable attitude toward England and France during the coming period. There is a growing feeling in Europe that Germany is rapidly becoming equal to England in the commercial race, and that she may even pass her in the long run. This feeling I call a groundless one; first, because the British communities all round the world have already secured such an enormous advance that so long as they keep the pace it is utterly impossible to overtake them; and, secondly, because the British methods of education are superior by ten to one to the German methods. *Civium vires, civitatis vis* is a maxim which I like to quote. I doubt whether it ever was as true as it is nowadays. Well, the Anglo-Saxon *civis* is by far a stronger, a better-trained, a more complete man than the German *civis*. Germany turns out learned men and excellent soldiers, but her citizenship is second rate. Science or military training are not enough to make a normal man; something else is needed, which England and America are provided with and which Germany does not possess. The Anglo-Saxon will alone do his part of the national work, for he knows how to do it. He does not want to be constantly looked after and told what his country is in need of. The average German, as the average Frenchman, awaits orders. He does not like to move without being shown the right way, and the right way in his case is always that which the government suggests. I admit that Germany has improved wonderfully as a wealthy nation, and that the commercial fate that lies before her seems rather beautiful. The annexation of the Austrian provinces will enable her to reach the Adriatic and thus have one opening on the South Seas. She is likely thus to secure the second rank in the world; but either England and America must undergo a complete revolution or Germany will not be able, for many years to come, to gain upon them more than a few yards.

As for France, the question is entirely different; and few outside of France consider it as it ought to be considered. William II. has more than once shown great courtesy toward the French republic, and it would be a mistake to claim that these courtesies have not been valued by

Frenchmen. Indeed, the Emperor is perhaps more popular in France at the present moment than in any other country outside of Germany. Ten years ago his visit on board a French man-of-war, even in so distant and neutral a seaport as is Norwegian Bergen, would have made France very nervous. This year, with the exception of a few jingoes, everybody approved of the courteous telegrams exchanged by the Emperor and President Loubet, the former very warm in the expression of his sympathy, the latter more reserved and anxious to preserve his country's dignity while thanking for the homage paid to her.



THE NEW REICHSTAG BUILDING.

This outlines a situation which, although comparatively recent, has already had important consequences. In the conflict between Japan and China, France, Russia, and Germany have acted as a friendly trio, and there is no doubt that other occasions will arise in which they will do the same. Each time they find they have interests in common the three governments are sure to combine their efforts. But a permanent alliance means something more. It means that between those who form the alliance no *malentendu* exists, and that they agree at least on the questions that are of interest to both. This is not the case with the French and the Germans. The Germans claim that Alsace and Lorraine, having in the past been German lands, have remained so; that annexation to France was forced upon them; and that their inhabitants were quite willing to reenter the German *Bund*. The French claim exactly the reverse. Now, to any man who investigates carefully and loyally the matter of contest everything becomes clear. It is true that Alsace and Lorraine have been part of Germany for several centuries. It is somewhat doubtful that annexation to France was entirely forced upon them; but there is not one single word of truth in the assertion that their inhabitants, even those who speak German, were willing to secede from France. After thirty years Germany yet feels unable to revoke the exceptional *régime* which she has imposed on the two French provinces. Would it be so if these provinces had welcomed the coming of the Germans?

Now, it is very childish on the part of the French to believe that the German Emperor can give up Alsace and Lorraine if he chooses. This he cannot do; but it is no less childish on the part of the Germans to believe that the French may give up their claims and accept as historical a claim which, in their opinion, is nothing more than *le droit du plus fort*. Mind that there is no reason why war should break out again. Peaceful is Germany and peaceful is France. But although they bow to each other very politely when they meet, it is impossible for them to become intimate friends so long as the question that divides them has not been settled.

GEN. HENRY W. LAWTON: A SKETCH OF HIS LONG SERVICE.

BY GEN. O. O. HOWARD.



GEN. HENRY W. LAWTON.

HENRY W. LAWTON was born in Ohio, the native State of Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, McPherson, and a host of other heroes. Lawton was but eighteen years of age, working on a farm near the Indiana border, when the Civil War began. The Ninth Indiana was raised in the vicinity of Fort Wayne. A company (E) of that regiment was organized upon the very first call for volunteers in the neighborhood where young Lawton was at work. He enlisted at once (April 16, 1861) and was chosen first sergeant of the company. This was a "three months" regiment, but was speedily called to West Virginia for considerable active work during its short term.

Lawton was mustered out with his regiment on July 29, 1861. Twenty-two days after that [illegible] for leadership, gave him a first lieutenant's commission in the Thirtieth Indiana, just then being raised. In a little over a month—on October 11, 1861—we find this regiment crossing the Ohio at Louisville *en route* to the front. It joined what was called the Army of the Ohio, then gathering about Camp Nelson, Kentucky.

One who knew Lawton well when a non-commissioned officer says that he was six feet three inches tall, weighed over two hundred pounds, and was the more noticeable in the lines because he always led his men in active engagement. This was his habit, begun when a sergeant and kept up throughout his long career.

The Thirtieth, like so many other Indiana regiments, found fields of action not far from home. It would be interesting to follow Lawton and his regiment from battlefield to battlefield, with all its varied experiences, from 1861 to its last contest at Nashville, Tenn., where Lawton was a captain and in command.

At Shiloh they formed part of Don Carlos Buel's force and suffered severe loss. Their colonel, Bass, was early disabled by wounds, but their lieutenant-colonel, Joseph B. Dodge, ably assisted by Major Hurd, took his place. McCook writes: "All three of these officers deserve the thanks of their State and country. . . . The contest along their whole line was terrible." Lawton's regiment lost in this battle 18 killed and 109, including 7 officers, wounded, with 2 missing—129 all told, the largest regimental loss in his division. The colonel died of his wounds.

Again being embraced in the Army of the Cumberland, in Kirk's brigade under Rosecrans, the Thirtieth Indiana during the autumn of 1862 participated in dangerous reconnoissances, trying skirmishes, and combats about Nashville. Its severest work was at the battle of Stone River. That was on December 31, 1862, and January 2, 1863. Lawton's men were in the hottest part of that bloody field. Twenty-nine of the regiment were killed and over 100 wounded.

By the record we trace Lawton and his comrades from Stone River to Chickamauga, where two of his fellow-lieutenants, Phelps and Eberly, were killed. After this Lawton was under Gen. George H. Thomas and went through more than

twenty battles up to September 20, 1864, when the original regiment, its term of service having expired, was mustered out. But the brave recruits were consolidated into seven companies as a battalion, later to be increased from another regiment. Captain Lawton naturally remained with them, and his regiment continued to be called the Thirtieth Indiana.

The medal of honor was given to Lawton by Congress for distinguished gallantry in leading a charge of skirmishers against the enemy's rifle-pits, taking them with their occupants and stubbornly and successfully resisting two determined attacks of the enemy to retake the works. This was in front of Atlanta, Ga., on August 3, 1864, while Lawton was serving as captain of Company A, Thirtieth Indiana Volunteer Infantry, and as brigade officer of the day.

In his report of the battle of Nashville Lawton's brigade commander, Gen. W. Grose, himself one of our ablest soldiers, said: "Captain Lawton, with his officers and men, has my grateful thanks for willing obedience to orders, brave and efficient execution of every duty upon the battlefield and during the campaign."

Speaking of the previous battle of Franklin, Grose had written: "The Thirtieth Indiana, most of whom were new recruits, under Captain Lawton, commanding the regiment, stood by the colors to the man and fought well."

Lawton in that terrific conflict, severer than Nashville, was under the direct observation of his general. His own report of the action (November 30, 1864) was brief and manly: "My position was in the front line. . . . Skirmishing had already begun on the left and was now commencing in our front." (Just here, his men being new levies, he first had them make good intrenchments and then took them back a few paces for drill. He was hardly there when the near and increasing firing hurried them back.) "By the time I formed behind the works the pickets were driven in by a charge from the enemy." The pickets soon got under cover, when Lawton opened upon the advancing foe, and quickly enough, by sharp and continuous discharges, Lawton and his troops cleared his entire front. Then again the pickets ran out and held their ground. After naming his killed and wounded Lawton's report thus closed: "The conduct of both officers and men was good without exception, and they have my warmest thanks for the promptness with which they did their part."

For all this Lawton was made a lieutenant-colonel of volunteers on February 10, 1865, and on March 13 following came the crowning brevet of colonel for gallant and meritorious services during the war. To have attained so much at twenty-two years of age, starting from the ranks, was no small accomplishment.

After muster-out Lawton remained a civilian for eight months. Then, with hearty recommendations from all his senior commanders, Lawton obtained a commission in the regular army—a lieutenancy in the Forty-first Infantry. Two years later, on reorganization, he went to the Twenty-fourth Infantry, where he remained until January 1, 1871, at which time he passed to the Fourth United States Cavalry. Lawton, being always trusted, from time to time had regimental staff appointments, reaching the rank of captain in the regular army on March 20, 1879.

When I took command of the Pacific Military Division Lawton was serving in Arizona, which was a part of that division. He had been under Crook as department commander and was now under Miles, whose command included Arizona and New Mexico. A few glimpses of what Lawton did I find in my war report of 1886. Geronimo and his band of Apaches were committing depredations, now in the United States and now in Mexico, and being separated into small parties easily eluded the troops and carried on their work of murder and outrage. An effective command under Captain Lawton, Fourth Cavalry, was organized for a long pursuit. Then in the report follows an account of other efforts besides Lawton's made against the Indians with more or less of success. Captain Lawton's command, with energy and persistency, kept on the trail of the Indians and eventually located them in the mountains near a battlefield where the Mexicans had previously fought with them Lawton finally surprised the hostiles many miles south of the Mexican boundary. He defeated them, capturing 19 horses and all their property and supplies.

At last, worried out by Lawton's untiring pursuit, Natches, the son of Cochise, and Geronimo surrendered all the numerous Apache Indians who had been long on the war-path, a pest and terror to the border Territories. For this work I gave Captain Lawton special mention and credit, referring to the tireless energy with which he had prosecuted his difficult campaign to a successful completion.

Alfred F. Sims, a citizen of Arizona, a soldier with him in this campaign, says happily: "The work of Lawton in the Apache campaign will go down in our history as one of the greatest achievements of Indian warfare. . . . It was his untiring energy and ceaseless vigilance that put down the uprising. To his men a kinder officer never lived, and the one thing that made him so popular was that he would never send any one to a place where he would not go himself."

Just before I was brought to the East in 1888 to command the Eastern Department Lawton had preceded me. He had received a deserved promotion in the staff—*i.e.*, major and assistant inspector-general—to be raised, on February 12, 1889, to a lieutenant-colonelcy.

Faithfully serving the Government from that time on in inspecting the troops and posts of the army, he was just in the position and just the man for the President to select for a brigadier-general of volunteers in the war with Spain. Shafter gave him a division in the new Fifth Corps. His was the first to disembark at Daiquiri, Cuba, and he became conspicuous in the campaign from the start, particularly at the combat of La Guasimas. On the next front he was sent away to take El Caney, commanding the column of attack. He accomplished that heroically, a work more tedious and more difficult than at first supposed. Then with his remaining tired men, after caring for his sick and wounded, he made the famous night march of at least six miles by a rough, circuitous route to help Wheeler protect Shafter's exposed flank and strengthen the tumultuous charge up the San Juan slopes. History gives all this in detail, as also the subsequent successful work of Lawton's command on the extreme right of Shafter's lines.

One of the pen-pictures of Lawton made during that eventful contest gives some idea of the man. Bonsal, a faithful writer, getting as near as he could to the prospective engagement, says: "Accompanied by the brigade commanders of his division, General Lawton rode over the battle ground, and from the crest of the ridge reconnoitered the Spanish position. . . . Lawton talked long and earnestly. Then turning around he jumped into his saddle and said: 'And now, gentlemen, I have shown you all that I know about the Spanish position, and have told you as far as I know what the commanding general proposes that we should do.' . . . Lawton, the commander of the division, is the very type and ideal of a *beau sabreur* [cavalry leader], if ever there was one; tall and broad-shouldered, deep of chest and lean about the loins. He sits his horse so well it seems a pity he should ever leave the saddle. His face is tanned by the Arizona suns, and every feature reveals the tenacity of purpose of the man."

Lawton, Wheeler, and Miley were the American commissioners selected for the capitulation at Santiago de Cuba. That generous letter concerning the Spanish General Toral and his soldiers, in which Lawton heartily joined, has done the commissioners world-wide honor. Lawton, like his colleagues, Wheeler and Miley (who lately gave up his precious life at Manila), was always as generous and tender-hearted as he was brave and resolute.

Leaving now without a touch the remainder of his work in Cuba, his return to the United States and speedy expedition to the Indians of the West, and then his month's journey with his soldiers and his little family from San Francisco to Manila, his vigorous operations southward just after his arrival, and then his marvelous campaign, sweeping up the railroad and the rivers, beating every body of insurgents that he met and clearing the whole country, valleys and mountains, mountain passes and jungles, of the wily and wary foe amid untold difficulties, dangers, and hardships, we will glance but for a moment at the closing scene of this heroic life.

He left Manila after his return from the north for San Mateo. He and his soldiers had a most difficult night journey of fifteen miles; scarcely a road, a country broken and rough; one of the severest storms of that stormy region; on rugged soil, either muddy or rocky every step of the way; yet, like everything undertaken by Lawton, this journey at daybreak came to a successful termination. This is the story which follows: The enemy was before them some 500 strong. The Filipinos were intrenched and protected by a small river in front of them. Our troops were organized and advancing within three or four hundred yards of the insurgents. Lawton had his men who were not in motion fairly well protected while he and his staff officers reconnoitered. With his large form and lightish coat, the instant he rose above an embankment he became conspicuous, and the Filipinos fired at him rapidly. His officers begged him to be careful. How like Lawton his reply:

"I must see what is going on in the firing line."

He started to do this. He had gone some twenty paces, when he met his two aids returning. They had no time to report. They suddenly saw him clinch his hands and turn pale.

"What is the matter, general?" said one.

"I am shot through the lungs," was the reply.

Then, without another word, he fell upon his face, while the blood poured from his mouth. In a few moments his brave soul had taken its flight.

Col. Guy Howard, my son, who was stricken at Arayât forty-eight days before his general at San Mateo, loved General Lawton, and often praised him without stint, particularly in his private letters, not only for his uniform friendliness to his staff, but for the largeness of his plans and the clearness of his conceptions. I have felt the more keenly his death—a death so like that of my son, his chief quartermaster.

FIELD MARSHAL LORD ROBERTS.

A SKETCH OF THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE BRITISH FORCES IN SOUTH AFRICA.



LORD ROBERTS LEAVING SOUTHAMPTON FOR THE CAPE.

LORD ROBERTS, the new commander-in-chief of the British army in South Africa, like all the other great British generals, is an Irishman. Lord Kitchener, who accompanies him, although not an Irishman, was born in Ireland. Lord Wolseley, the commander-in-chief, is also Irish, and General Buller, the late commander-in-chief in South Africa, is Irish born and bred. Lord Roberts was summoned to the command of the troops in South Africa from commanding the British forces in Ireland. His vacant post has been filled by the Duke of Connaught, who is the only one of the Queen's children who is connected with Ireland by ties of birth. Lord Roberts is sixty-seven years of age, and hardly expected to be called once more to the field of battle. When he returned from India and published his book of reminiscences he regarded himself as having seen the end of active service; but he still is hale and strong, and when General Buller met with his disaster on the bank of the Tugela, the government instinctively turned to the gray-haired general who twenty years before had converted a disastrous campaign in Afghanistan into a brilliant success.

THE CALL TO DUTY.

The call of duty came to the old general at a very trying moment. Not twenty-four hours before he received a summons of the government to proceed to South Africa in order to retrieve the waning fortunes of the empire he heard casually in the club from a member who was reading the telegrams from the seat of war that his only son was among the killed. One of the most remarkable and significant illustrations of the impossibility of carrying on modern war under the old rules was the loss of ten guns by the British force. The horses were shot down by the deadly hail from the Mauser bullets and the guns were left for a time deserted. Lieutenant Roberts volunteered to head a forlorn hope to bring up a fresh team of horses and fetch the guns from beneath the hail-storm of shot. It was a gallant enterprise, but doomed to certain and inevitable failure. No artillery horses can live for five minutes under the pelting hail of a magazine rifle, and the horses fell in heaps, and with them fell Lieutenant Roberts. He fell like a soldier in fair fight, and so far we have not heard any of the criminal talk which has so often disfigured English newspapers about avenging his death.

Lord Roberts left his country with a profound feeling of depression. An old soldier, although he had never campaigned in South Africa, he is much too intelligent and well informed not to know that the enterprise to which he is putting his hand is one in which it is impossible to achieve any real success. It is possible that under the circumstances he would not have been selected but for the fact that unless he had been sent out it would have been impossible to have superseded General Buller by Lord Kitchener. By sending Lord Roberts as commander-in chief, with Lord

Kitchener as chief of the staff, all these delicate questions of precedence were avoided. It is expected that Lord Kitchener will be the real director of the campaign, although Lord Roberts will always be much more than a titular figure-head.

A SOLDIER FIRST AND ALWAYS.

Lord Roberts is a soldier as Brindley was a maker of canals. When Brindley was asked what rivers were made for, he replied: "To feed canals." So politicians, statesmen, and sovereigns, the migration of races, the development of military ambitions—all these turbid forces which govern the destinies of peoples appear to the soldier, whether he is in a cocked hat or in the plain regimentals of the rank and file, as important chiefly in so far as they culminate in fighting. It is his business to fight, and like the apostle he says: "This one thing I do." This conception of energy and supreme devotion to professional duty may not impress us as representing the highest type of human evolution, but it is certainly quite different from the point of view of the ordinary citizen—so different that in reading Lord Roberts' story we are continually reminded that he is practically a denizen of another world. We do not feel this in relation to many soldiers. General Gordon, for instance, although a brilliant officer, devoted to the army, never sank the man in the soldier, but always remained philanthropist, statesman, humorist, and religious genius beneath his regimentals. It would be unkind to say that Lord Roberts is a soldier and nothing else, but he is certainly saturated through and through with the atmosphere of the camp. He has breathed it all his life. It is his world. He is even more of a Tommy Atkins than Tommy Atkins himself, who is of short service, whereas Lord Roberts has put in nearly fifty years of service in the army. His book, "Forty-one Years in India," is frequently quoted in this sketch.

A GRASS ORPHAN.

Lord Roberts was born at Cawnpore, India, in 1832, and when a mere child was sent home to England to be educated. There he remained until 1852, when he returned to India to make the acquaintance of his own father; for one of the worst elements of Anglo-Indian service is the separation of father and child. Gen. Sir Abraham Roberts was in his sixty-ninth year before he really made the acquaintance of his own son. "I left India an infant," says Lord Roberts, "and I had no recollection of him until I was twelve years of age, at which time he came home to live. Even then I saw very little of him, as I was at school during the greater part of his sojourn in England, and thus we met at Peshawar almost as strangers." When he returned he was supernumerary second lieutenant and his father major-general in command of the Peshawar division. The father and son were only together for one year, when his father's health broke down and they parted once more.

FIRST DAYS IN INDIA.

When Lord Roberts landed in India at the age of twenty he had a somewhat dreary initiation into the conditions of military service in India. For the first few months his sole duty was to study in the laboratory with the native field battery at Dum-Dum, his only recreation being an occasional week at Fort William, where his duty was to superintend the firing of salutes. The place was a pest-hole, with the adjutant birds as the only scavengers and the death-rate over 10 per cent. per annum. Although Lord Roberts adds in a foot-note, as an illustration of the improvements effected by sanitation in India, that the annual rate of mortality among English troops in India was in the first fifty-seven years of this century 69 per 1,000, since 1882 it has never risen to more than 17 per 1,000, or less than one-quarter what it used to be. He was very homesick, and the first four months dragged heavily. At the end of that time he was summoned to join his father at Peshawar.

THE FASCINATION OF UNIFORM.

While on his journey up country he determined to leave no stone unturned to join the Bengal horse artillery, largely, it would seem, because of the exceeding picturesqueness of their uniform. They had the same jacket as the royal horse artillery, but instead of the busby they had a brass helmet covered in front with leopard skin, surmounted by a long red plume, with white buckskin breeches and long boots, completing a uniform which was "one of the most picturesque and effective I have ever seen on a parade-ground." Roberts fell in love with them at first sight, and when he came upon them again at Umballa he became more than ever enamored with the idea of belonging to so splendid a service.

After he arrived at his father's headquarters he spent a year with the old soldier, gathering from him an invaluable store of reminiscences as to his experience during the first Afghan War, in which Sir Abraham Roberts had commanded a brigade and had established an intimate friendship with the Dost Mahomed, then Ameer.

THE CHARM OF A FRONTIER CAMP.

In November, 1854, he was posted to a troop of horse artillery at Peshawar, where, fever not-



FIELD MARSHAL LORD ROBERTS, V.C.
(Commander-in-chief in South Africa.)

withstanding, he was very glad to stay. "Life on the frontier in those days had a great charm for most young men. There was always something of interest going on. Military expeditions were constantly taking place or being speculated upon, and one lived in hope of being among those chosen for active service." The mess also was good. His troop were a magnificent body of men, nearly all Irishmen, most of whom could have lifted him up with one hand, for Lord Roberts, like Napoleon and many another famous general, is anything but a giant. His captain, however, who made up for what Roberts lacked in avoirdupois, weighed 240 pounds.

"IT'S DOGGED AS DOES IT."

Renewed attacks of fever drove him to Kashmir for a second time But when set up again he went through his riding-school course and began to dream of a staff command. To his immense delight he was in the early part of 1856 appointed to officiate in place of Lumsden, the deputy assistant quartermaster-general, who was told off to serve in Kashmir. He lost the place, however, owing to his not having passed in Hindoostanee. It was then in May, and in July the half-yearly examination came on. He forthwith engaged the best teacher he could find in Peshawar, shut himself up, and studied Indian literature from morning to night. He passed his examination.

In the autumn of 1856, serving in camp under Brigadier Cotton, he gave the first indication of that geographical instinct which afterward stood him in good stead by leading his column across the country in the dark. The bump of locality is indeed almost the most valuable bump a soldier can have. In the same autumn he showed that he could ride as well as he could guide, for in one day, between 7 o'clock in the morning and 7 o'clock in the evening, he rode 100 miles from Chamkanie to Rawal Pindi.

THE INDIAN MUTINY.

The story as told by Lord Roberts occupies about four hundred pages of his book and abounds with vivid pen-pictures of the leading actors in the great combat between the Sepoys and their masters. The storm burst with hardly a warning, when there were not more than 15,000 British soldiers in the Punjab available for duty, against whom there were 60,000 natives, armed with the best weapons which our arsenals could furnish and trained in all the arts of war by British officers. Fortunately there were three young men at Peshawar who realized the peril of the situation and possessed both energy and determination to cope with the defeats. They were Edwardes, who was thirty-seven, General Nicholson, who was thirty-five, and Neville Chamberlain, who was thirty-seven. Chamberlain was the commandant of the frontier force. He was placed at the head of a movable column charged with the duty of moving to every point where open mutiny required to be put down by force.

HOW ROBERTS WENT INTO IT.

Roberts' feelings may be imagined when, to his infinite delight and astonishment, Chamberlain offered him the appointment of staff officer. "The most wonderful piece of good fortune that could have come to me. My most sanguine hopes seemed to be more than realized. I returned home in a not unpleasant frame of mind, for though the crisis was a grave one, the outlook gloomy, and the end doubtful, the excitement was great." There we have the joy of the fight, the thrill of battle, the fun of the thing, once more dominant in the mind of the young officer, who, on the eve of a struggle that shook the British empire, was so carried away by his own delight at the prospect of taking a leading part in the fighting that all gloomy thoughts of imperial peril disappeared.

A HAIRBREADTH ESCAPE.

It was in one of the fights before Delhi that Roberts received his first wound. The English had been dislodging the enemy from a position before the Delhi Gate, and having accomplished their task were retiring. He was helping to keep the horses quiet while his men were limbering up their guns, when he suddenly felt a tremendous blow on his back, which made him faint and sick. He managed, however, to stick to his horse until he got back to the camp, when he found that he had been hit close to the spine by a bullet which would probably have killed him but for the fact that a leather pouch for caps, usually worn in front, had slipped round to the back and saved his life by intercepting the bullet. It was a month, however, before he could again mount a horse or put on a sword-belt.

Roberts was all through the adventurous story of the Lucknow relief column. He was present when the troops were surprised before Agra. He visited the scene of the massacre at Cawnpore and then set out to relieve Lucknow. When they reached the neighborhood of Lucknow Roberts received his first important commission. He was charged with the conducting of a force to the Dilkusha, which is the King's hunting-box, on the outskirts of the city. Roberts describes with much spirit a little expedition in which he was charged with the bringing up of

small-arms ammunition from the rear, his geographical sense again standing him in good stead. He had to lead two squadrons and 150 camels in the dead darkness past the lines of the enemy and bring the camels back loaded with ammunition. He succeeded in doing so. He seems always to have been lucky, although, no doubt, his good luck was in most cases due to good management.

THE RELIEF OF LUCKNOW.

The strain upon officers and men in the relief of Lucknow must have been something frightful. Lord Roberts mentions that at one time he was dead beat, having been sixty hours continuously in the saddle, excepting when he laid down for a short nap on the night of the 14th, and yet, he says, he never was better in his life.

After the relief of Lucknow and the extrication of its beleaguered garrison they turned their attention to the Gwalior contingent, which, after some hard fighting, they dispersed.

HOW HE WON THE VICTORIA CROSS.

Lord Roberts is very modest in the account of his own exploits. Here is the story of how he earned his Victoria Cross. It was at an engagement on the banks of the Kali Nadi at Khudaganj. They had dispersed the enemy and were pursuing the fugitives, when the order was given to wheel to the right and form up on the road:

> Before, however, this movement could be carried out we overtook a batch of mutineers, who faced about and fired direct into the squadron at close quarters. I saw Younghusband fall, but I could not go to his assistance, as at that moment one of his sowars was in dire peril from a Sepoy who was attacking him with his fixed bayonet, and had I not helped the man and disposed of his opponent he must have been killed. The next moment I descried in the distance two Sepoys making off with a standard, which I determined must be captured, so I rode after the rebels and overtook them, and while wrenching the staff out of the hands of one of them, whom I cut down, the other put his musket close to my body and fired; fortunately for me it missed fire, and I carried off the standard.

He adds: "For these two acts I was awarded the Victoria Cross."

Lord Roberts continued to act against the mutineers until the end of March, when, after the fall of Lucknow, it was evident that the subjugation of the country would be a mere matter of time. His health broke down and he was ordered to England. There was then 96,000 British soldiers in India, besides a large force of reliable native troops, but as there was a good deal of fighting to be done, it went sorely against his grain to leave India. Ill-health, however, has a habit of emphasizing its demands by death, so on April 1, 1858, Lord Roberts handed over his post as deputy assistant quartermaster-general to Lord Wolseley and sailed for home on May 4. Thus terminated the first eventful chapter in the life of the future commander-in-chief of the Indian army.

When young Roberts came home he was, of course, quite a hero in his own circle and was very warmly welcomed by his parents, both of whom were still enjoying health and strength.



FIELD MARSHAL LORD ROBERTS.

(From his latest photograph.)

His father, indeed, lived to be made G.C.B. in his ninetieth year, and there is no saying but that he might have lived for another decade had it not been that on returning from Windsor, where he had been to receive his decoration, he caught a cold, from which he never rallied.

A FATE NAMED NORA.

This, however, is anticipating the future by sixteen years. When Lord Roberts reached home he tells us how he found his fate in the shape of Miss Nora Bews, a young lady living near his father's place in Waterford. A few months later she promised to marry him, and he adds naïvely: "The greater part of my life was therefore spent in Ireland." With Lady Roberts a new element entered into his life, which leaves its impress upon almost every chapter. There is, indeed, something very beautiful about



LORD AND LADY ROBERTS, WITH THEIR ONLY SON (KILLED ON THE TUGELA) AND ONE OF THEIR DAUGHTERS.

the whole of Lord Roberts' references to his family relations, whether by blood or by marriage.

Grim old bachelors will indulge in sardonic and cynical grins as in reading the second volume of Lord Roberts' book they continually stumble upon Lady Roberts. It is evident that the writer is fully convinced of the fact that Lady Roberts was not only as important and interesting to him as any of the great statesmen and soldiers with whom he was associated, but that her doings and sayings will be quite as interesting to the great public which reads his autobiography. Henceforth the wife's ailments, the wife's visits, the wife's confinements are chronicled as piously as the launching of military expeditions and the fighting of pitched battles. We gather from this that he was singularly fortunate in the choice of a helpmeet. Lady Roberts certainly appears to have rejoiced in subordinating her own comfort and convenience to her husband's military duties. To her, this in its way was as great a sacrifice to the cause of the empire as the wounds which her husband endured in the field.

"OUR FIRST GREAT SORROW."

Their first-born, a little girl, arrived on March 10, 1860, and for twelve months the young mother and father lived in the enjoyment of parentage in the midst of what he describes as new and delightful experiences for the wife amid the mountains of Simla. Again and again he pauses in his narrative to describe the brilliance of the autumn tints on the foliage of mountain forests, while the scarlet festoons of the Himalayan vine stood out in brilliant contrast to the dark green and solemn deodar. His wife's health suffered severely; but the poor little baby died within a week of her first birthday, which was "our first great sorrow," says her father.

SUNSTROKE.

The following year his wife took seriously ill on the march, and he had to remain behind three weeks on the camp-ground until she recovered to be carried to Lahore. He rode by the side of the doolie on a camel. His own health suffered in 1863 from a sunstroke at Allahabad. It happened quite in the coolest part of the year, but it took him a long time to get over. It was all owing to his cocked hat, which Sir Hugh Rose preferred his staff to wear rather than the more serviceable helmet. For months he never lost a pain in his head, and for many years he was very susceptible to the evil influences of the sun's rays.

HIS INDIAN RECORD.

In the second volume of his book General Roberts tells with his usual modesty and frankness the story of his campaign. When he was placed at the head of the Kurum Valley expeditionary column, upon which the brunt of the fight lay, he had never before enjoyed the responsibility of an independent command. He had, however, been well tried and well tested in subordinate capacities in everything that was going, from the time he landed in India down to the outbreak of the Afghan War. He had a narrow escape for his life in the Umbeyla campaign. He went through the Lushai expedition, and he had charge of the transport from India in connection with the Abyssinian campaign. It is evident, although he makes no such claim for himself, that the deftness and dispatch with which he put the business through, whatever it was with which he was charged, impressed all those under whose orders he served. A man full of energy and resource, in the prime of life, as brave as he was lucky, and as indomitable when prostrated by sickness as when in vigorous health, it is no wonder that employments heaped themselves upon him long before his years warranted his acceptance of positions of such responsibility. But although he was constantly kept busy hurrying hither and thither both in India and out, he had no experience of independent command until Lord Lytton's Afghan War. Immediately before it broke out he was preparing to undertake the duties of a new frontier

commissionership of Scinde which was then to be created, but as soon as war was decided upon with Afghanistan the authorities at once appointed "Bobs" to command one of the columns.

HIS FIRST AFGHAN VICTORY.

Nothing could have been more successful than the way he handled the force intrusted to him. The Afghans occupied an almost impregnable position at Peiwar Kotal. The hill on which they had established a vastly superior force, both in number and in artillery, than that which was under the command of General Roberts, would have effectually barred the approach to Cabul had not a mountain path been discovered on the left, along which General Roberts led the bulk of his force in person while the feint of an attack was made in front. The movement was brilliantly successful. The Afghans were surprised sleeping behind their earthworks, and the decisive advantage was gained which very shortly afterward was converted into a signal victory.

The Ameer having departed, the peace of Gandamak was patched up with Yakub Khan, who for some troubled months played the part of Ameer, disliked by his own subjects and distrusted—not without cause—by his British supporters.

THE BATTLE OF CHARASIA.

General Roberts recorded his opinion frankly at the time that the peace would not last, because the Afghans had not had a sufficiently severe beating, and events were soon to justify his warnings. General Cavagnari and his staff were massacred in Cabul, and on Lord Roberts was thrown at a moment's notice the responsibility of avenging his death and reëstablishing British prestige in Afghanistan. An expeditionary force was hastily put together, and placing himself at their head, General Roberts led them over the Shutar Garden Pass almost to the gates of Cabul. He gives an interesting and somewhat amusing account of the way in which he was embarrassed by the presence within the camp of the puppet Ameer, who, while professing to be a friend and ally of the British Government, was suspected, probably not without reason, of having, if not planned, then certainly connived at the rising of which poor Cavagnari was the victim. It was at Charasia, before Cabul, that the decisive battle was fought which broke the spirit of the Afghans and enabled General Roberts to enter Cabul at the head of his victorious troops.

THE ENERGY AND POPULARITY OF "BOBS."

It may be noted as an example of Lord Roberts' inexhaustible energy that in the winter of 1870 he went through a course of electric telegraphy. During the Umbeyla campaign all the telegraph clerks had been laid up with fever, and he could therefore neither send nor receive messages. He determined he would never be left in that plight again, and therefore qualified as a telegraph operator.

Various little glimpses which we obtain in these pages of incidents in the campaign remind us of the enthusiastic loyalty which this simple, straightforward Englishman was able to inspire in the hearts of the natives who served him. In the fight at Peiwar Kotal he recalls with feelings of gratitude and admiration the devotion of his orderlies, of whom he had six—two Sikhs, two Gourkhas, and two Pathans. Whenever he went into action they always kept close around him, determined that no shot should reach him if they could prevent it.

THE RISING OF TRIBES.

When General Roberts occupied Cabul his difficulties were but beginning. He had to devise some kind of government, and Yakub Khan, the late Ameer, insisted upon abdicating. While discussing those problems the British garrison was confronted with a rising of the tribes which compelled it to hold on by its eyelids and fight for its life.

The great rising of the tribes under Mohammed Jan exposed General Roberts to imminent danger of extinction. Had he not wisely decided to occupy the Sherpur cantonments instead of dividing his force by an attempt to occupy Cabul itself, the issue might have been very different. As it was, there were moments of intense anxiety. General Roberts had a very narrow escape from being cut off with a small body of troops, which experienced almost the only reverse British arms had to endure under his generalship. Immediately after that the whole country arose around them, and Sherpur and one station in the pass alone remained in the hands of the British. The city of Cabul joined the tribesmen, and at one time Sherpur stood like an island in the midst of a surging sea of 100,000 armed natives inspired with the passion of patriotism and religion. The issue, however, after the first was never seriously in doubt, and when the great combined attack of the infuriated multitude on the walls of Sherpur had been beaten back, the great confederacy broke up, the tide of tribal war ebbing as rapidly as it rose.

THE DISASTER AT MAIWAND.

General Roberts continued to hold his own at Cabul until Sir Donald Stewart, fighting his way northward from Kandahar, meeting and beating the Afghans at Ahmed Khel, arrived in Cabul

and took over the command, almost at the same moment that Mr. Gladstone succeeded Lord Beaconsfield as head of the English Government. There seemed good hopes now of getting Abdur Rahman installed as Ameer in Cabul, when a great disaster overtook the British arms in southern Afghanistan. General Burrows, in command of a British force of 2,500 men, was totally defeated by Ayub Khan at Maiwand, losing very nearly one-half of his whole force. The survivors shut themselves up behind the impregnable walls of Kandahar, while Ayub, exulting in the easy victory which he had gained over the hated infidel, was recognized as lord of all the territory outside the range of the cannon on the city walls.

THE RELIEF OF KANDAHAR.

This defeat led to the last great exploit with which General Roberts' name will be forever associated. Instead of relieving the garrison at Kandahar from Quetta, General Stewart and Lord Roberts decided to march a relieving force from Cabul to Kandahar, a distance of 300 miles, by the same road along which General Stewart had fought his way northward. The story of that expedition is told very concisely by General Roberts. It consisted of almost exactly 10,000 men of all ranks, with 18 guns; of these nearly 2,500 were British and 7,000 native. Besides the troops there were 8,000 camp followers, 1,500 Afghan and 1,200 Indian ponies, 4,500 mules, 1,100 donkeys, and 180 camels. Each man carried 70 rounds of ammunition and had 130 in reserve. Every man was a veteran, and all, native and British alike, were animated by enthusiastic devotion to their general who had so often led them to victory.

THE DEFEAT OF AYUB KHAN.

Food and fuel supply were the chief difficulties in the way of carrying this force of 18,000 men and 11,000 animals across the country. Fortunately, however, all difficulties were overcome, and the force, which started from Cabul on August 9, reached Kelat on the 23d, having made a continuous march of 225 miles in fourteen days and 136 miles from Ghazni in eight days. He had only lost 1 British soldier, 8 natives, and 11 camp followers. The march from Kelat to Kandahar was taken with more leisure; the garrison was safe and there was no reason for excessive haste. Unfortunately, four days before entering the city General Roberts was knocked up with fever, and being unable to sit on his horse had to be carried in a doolie.

On arriving at Kandahar he found the garrison totally demoralized. The day after his arrival General Roberts took out his whole force, fell upon Ayub Khan front and rear, and after somewhat stiff fighting Ayub Khan's force was shattered into hopeless ruin. Our loss was 3 British officers killed and 11 wounded, while the killed and wounded altogether, natives and British, did not amount to 250. Ayub's camp was captured and all his cannon, while he himself fled toward Herat. With that occasion the Afghan War came to an end. General Roberts was made a G. C. B. and appointed commander-in-chief of the Madras army. His health was much impaired by his fever, and he had to return to India invalided.

LORD ROBERTS AND HIS TROOPS.

One of the best passages in his book is that in which he describes his leave-taking from the army which he had led so well and which had supported him so splendidly. "It was with a great feeling of sadness" he said "Good-by" to the men who had done so much for him. He looked upon them, he said, native and British alike, "as valued friends;" and well he might, for never had a commander been better served.

THE QUEEN'S LETTER.

After this General Roberts did much good work in India, reorganizing the army and arranging for the defense of the northwestern frontier. As a result he received from his sovereign one of those innumerable letters by which her majesty has known so well how to reward the services and acknowledge the loyalty of those who have served her in the field. In October, 1880, he returned to England, but before starting the Viceroy summoned him to Simla, where this pleasant surprise awaited him. Lord Roberts says: "Lord Ripon received me most kindy, and, to my great pride and pleasure, delivered to me a letter from the Queen-Empress, written by her majesty's own hand, which conveyed in the most gracious terms the Queen's satisfaction at the manner in which the service intrusted to me had been performed, thanks to 'the brave officers and men under my command,' sorrow 'for those of her gallant soldiers who fell for Queen and country,' and anxiety for the wounded."

Lord Roberts is a quiet, keen, cool observer—something of a statesman as well as a soldier. This is shown by the chapter in his book in which he sums up the lessons of the mutiny—a valuable state paper, worthy to be had in remembrance by all those who were charged with the administration of the Indian empire.

THE PERILOUS POSITION OF ENGLAND.

BY W. T. STEAD.

TWO years ago I made a somewhat audacious attempt to forecast the probable course of events as respects British public affairs. Reading that survey to-day, I am almost appalled at the accuracy with which I foreshadowed everything that has now befallen us. In a few plain-spoken paragraphs I set out as clearly and as precisely as I could what I thought would happen. I pointed to the collapse of the Liberal party, the break-down of the army, and the danger to industrial supremacy involved in the competition of Germany and America. We stand nearer to each of those perils to-day, and their existence is no longer denied even by the greatest of optimists. But I need not insist upon the first and third dangers, although the condition of the Liberal party at this moment is even more hopeless than it was in 1898. I will only quote what I said about the army. Pointing out the changes that had taken place in the world, I wrote:

If we are to retain and maintain our position in the world, we must promptly and decisively readjust our policy to the altered conditions of the new times. The most obvious fact of the political situation abroad is that while the empire stands in a position of splendid isolation, our military system has broken down. It has never been readjusted to the expansion, territorial and otherwise, which has taken place. It is admittedly inadequate to our needs, almost as inadequate as was the navy before 1884. If there is not strenuous national endeavor to provide remedies by constant and strenuous action, the historian of the future will have to summarize the causes of the decline and fall of the British empire in three pregnant words—suicide from imbecility.

DISARMED ALBION.

These anticipations were derided as jeremiads; but who is there who does not recognize that I understated rather than overstated the danger of the case? What is the position in which we stand to-day? Is it not infinitely worse than the gloomiest pessimist would have dreamed of predicting two years ago? We are still in a condition of isolation as complete as we were in 1898; but instead of having strengthened our army we have practically destroyed it. For the whole of the present year the British army is practically as useless for the defense of our shores as if every available man were locked up with General White in Ladysmith.

South Africa, indeed, has become a huge Ladysmith, in which our troops and all our generals are practically prisoners of war, and that at a time when the feeling against us on the continent has risen to a height hitherto without parallel. Nor is it only the regular army that has been interned in South Africa. We are busy, amid infinite ululations of self-satisfied conceit, in pulling to pieces with both hands the only two remaining forces which we have to guard our shores against a foreign invasion. The militia, already 20,000 below its nominal strength, is being depleted to provide garrisons for our Mediterranean fortresses, while the backbone is being taken out of all the most efficient corps of volunteers by summoning their most active members to volunteer for service in Africa. Ten thousand yeomanry are being scraped together in order that the last remnant of a regular mounted force may be taken away from England, while we are so completely denuded of artillery that we are even removing the 4.7-inch guns from our coast fortifications in order to strengthen our artillery in Africa. In view of the continental situation it is a clear case of imperial *felo-de-se*. The empire, stripped of its armor, has its hands tied behind its back and its bare throat exposed to the keen knife of its bitterest enemies.

A PROPHECY OF DOOM.

Mr. Frederic Harrison, speaking on the subject of the peril which we are confronting with such a light heart, remarked:

Our imperialists had been living in a fool's paradise, mistaking vast possessions for strength, vast claims for practical possessions, and self-interest for solid rights. If those people would persist, in blind defiance of facts, in regarding the assertion of realities as mere wind and disregarding the remonstrances of the civilized world against the arrogant assertion of paramount rights, we might indeed see a catastrophe such as had never befallen these islands since the present dynasty succeeded to that of the Stuarts.

Unless there is an immediate reaction on the part of the sober and serious citizens, this catastrophe very shortly may not be spoken of as a mere possibility. It may overwhelm us before midsummer.

LONDON IN PERIL.

Hitherto our imperial defense has had a very slender margin of security; but for the last twenty years the principle has been recognized by both parties, on the advice of the responsible

military authorities, that it is absolutely necessary for the safety of the empire to make military provision against a sudden predatory raid on London. Parliament has accepted this policy and has repeatedly voted sums—inadequate, perhaps, but nevertheless sufficient to affirm the principle—for providing a series of fortified stations and military depots which would encircle London with a rough-and-ready system of defenses should an army be landed on our shores. Although Lord Wolseley is said to have remarked that if the French once landed 100,000 men on our south coast it would be impossible to prevent them reaching London, it was calculated that the difficulty of transporting 100,000 men across the channel before our fleet could interfere with the operation would be sufficient to secure us against the danger of the arrival of so large a force. But if, with our regular army at home, we could not protect London against a French army of 100,000, it is a mere rule-of-three proposition that with all our troops locked up in South Africa we are in a worse position to defend the capital against a raid of 50,000 men. It is this danger we are blindly and recklessly incurring.

A POSSIBLE FORAY FROM FRANCE.

In discussing this question I do not go one single step beyond the position which has been taken up by all competent military authorities and successive administrations. It is regarded as an axiom that the channel fleet cannot be permanently stationed in the channel without fatally impairing the mobility of our navy, which is half its strength. If the channel fleet were lured away to the Mediterranean, the French have ample transport to convey 50,000 men with adequate artillery across the channel in twenty-four hours. Further, it does not require military authorities to teach the ordinary man in the street that a compact field force of 50,000 men, with a large park of quick-firing guns, would simply make mince-meat of any force that we could put against it that was not provided with artillery. If even the Boers can best us with guns, dare we venture to believe that we can hold our own against the French? What would happen would be that every available man of our broken-up militia and our decapitated volunteers would be hurried to the front to defend as best they could the hills to the south of London. According to the plans of the War Office, they ought to find there depots adequately provided with trenching tools, guns, and all the material for defending the capital. In reality they will find none of such things. The result is that from the military point of view it is almost as certain as a proposition in Euclid that if such a force were once landed it would make its way to London. Supposing that it could reach Woolwich and be in possession of the arsenal for only a single day, a far more deadly blow would be struck against the efficiency of the empire than if they had captured an army in the field or destroyed the channel fleet. For Woolwich is our only arsenal, and its destruction would strike us in our most vulnerable point.

OUR ONLY ARSENAL.

This suggestion as to Woolwich arsenal being the objective of an invading force, which would be sacrificed without hesitation in order to attain so great an end, is no new idea. Marshal von Wrangel, the father of the Prussian army, always used to say that if ever England found itself at war with Germany, the first intimation which the English would have that they were at war with Germany would be to read in the morning newspapers, side by side with the declaration of war at midnight at Berlin, the news that Woolwich arsenal was in flames.

The way in which the German general proposed to effect this end differed considerably from the predatory raid which we are contemplating from France; but that was only due to the fact that the German seaports do not lie so convenient for preparing the descent of a raid as the French ports in the channel. The essential point was that Marshal von Wrangel contemplated a crushing blow at Woolwich as the opening move in a war against England, and that to attain that end he did not in the least hesitate at sacrificing all the troops which would be necessary to achieve so coveted an object. Besides, the sacrifice would only mean that they would be taken prisoners of war, and would return home safe when the war was at an end.

WHAT ABOUT THE FLEET?

Those who refuse to listen to any warning reply that we can rely upon the fleet. I am not in the least disposed to minimize the value of the fleet. If it had not been for the rebuilding of the fleet our position at present would be even more critical than it is. What our supreme navy can do is not to guarantee us against a predatory raid, but to render abortive any scheme for the conquest of England by making it impossible for the invading army to maintain its communications with its base in France or to provide for its safe retreat.

According to the familiar saying of Moltke, the German staff had a hundred excellent plans for landing an army in England, but he had never been able to discover one for getting it out

of the country after it had been landed; and that is true so long as our fleet is supreme on the seas. But the danger which the Duke of Devonshire, the Marquis of Lansdowne, and Mr. Stanhope (former secretary of war), as well as the heads of the War Office, for the last twenty years have agreed in regarding as a possibility against which due precaution should be taken, is the sudden descent upon our coast of a mobile force, strong in artillery, which would make a rush for London, knowing perfectly well that after it had destroyed the arsenal and wrought such havoc as it could in the capital, every man of the force would be taken prisoner. It is a superior Jameson's raid we have to fear, against which we have taken no adequate precautions.

THE CHANCES OF A WAR WITH FRANCE.

The French, it is airily said, would never risk the loss of their fleet, even although they were lured to destruction by the bait of a helpless London. Those who say so forget one or two things. First, that the French are quite as capable of under-estimating the fighting force of the British fleet as our sapient authorities, journalistic and otherwise, were of under-estimating the fighting force of the Boers. Secondly, that if the French were convinced that their fleet could not face ours in the open sea, they would shut it up in their fortified harbors, which, in the absence of any adequate military force, we could not possibly attack.

A third point which people seem to forget is that France is quite as capable as ourselves of going mad. Every one admits that if Lord Kitchener had not acted with immense tact in his dealings with Major Marchand, a single shot fired at Fashoda would have precipitated war in Europe, no matter how unprepared the French were for that eventuality. It is easy to see how another complication arising, let us say, out of the Newfoundland fisheries or some incident in Delagoa Bay might precipitate war, sorely against the better judgment of all the sane and sober people in France. In such a case the French have made no secret of their belief that a descent such as we have suggested would be their most effective weapon of offense against us.

THE GERMAN CHALLENGE TO NAVAL SUPREMACY.

It is precisely on this question of the fleet that I am filled with the gravest alarm, and that not without cause. Two years ago, in surveying the possible dangers of the future, I alluded to the determination of Germany to strengthen her fleet, but I did not venture to believe that it would enter into the head of the German Emperor deliberately to challenge the naval supremacy of Great Britain. That I regarded as unassailable. It was certainly not challenged by the naval programme which the Emperor had just introduced as the corollary of the seizure of Kiao-Chau.

But alas! how changed is the situation today! We have, as the new year's message of the German Emperor, a declaration which rings throughout the world that as his grandfather made the German army supreme on land, it is his determination to create an equally supreme navy. This speech, following as it does the debate upon the naval programme introduced by Herr von Bülow for doubling the German navy in the next twenty years, is a plain and unmistakable intimation that Germany intends to challenge our dominion on the seas. The German Emperor is quite enough of an Englishman to realize that in sea power lies the secret of empire, and as he is determined to have a colonial empire, he is equally determined not to hold that empire by sufferance of Great Britain. Therefore the moment he returned from his visit to Windsor and Sandringham he launched his new naval programme, which was frankly declared in the Reichstag to be aimed directly at England.

It will be accepted by the representatives of the German people on the wave of anti-British feeling roused by our war in South Africa. How intense that feeling is at the present moment may be imagined from the fact that the *Koelnische Zeitung*, which deprecates the unbridled expression of hostility to England, can only bring itself to say that "until the proposal to double the strength of the fleet has been carried out the conflict with England must be carefully avoided." In other words, the fleet is to be doubled in order that that conflict can be sought and Germany installed in the place of England as mistress of the seas.

WHAT THE FRENCH ARE THINKING.

This is serious enough, but for the immediate moment it is less serious than deductions which the Chauvinists of France are drawing from our reverses in the Transvaal as to the possibility of successfully challenging English naval supremacy. In the new number of the *Nouvelle Revue* there occurs a very significant passage in the *chronique* for the month which confirms our worst misgivings on this subject. The writer, like every other European observer, regards the present war as undertaken by Mr. Chamberlain as the catspaw of the financiers. "These people," says the writer, "have let loose the war not with a light heart, but with a single eye to the operations on the stock exchange. To that end they have endangered their country and exposed the

empire to infinite damage in the estimation of mankind."

The writer then proceeds to say that judging from what has happened to the English army, it is impossible to avoid the question, Is it not possible that the English navy put to the test might prove equally worthless? Without doubt it is more numerous, but so was the English army in the Transvaal. Even in this campaign the marine artillery have given many proofs of their extreme weakness. This French writer continues:

The officers are reared upon traditions which are not worth as much as ours, and when it comes to the question of the number of the *personnel* the effectives of our fleet are twice as numerous as those of Great Britain. In brief, it may be assumed that French patriotism, excited and raised above itself, like that of the Boers, would have chances of victory as good as the Boers in the Transvaal have had upon land. This I believe sincerely, and I am convinced of it more and more by everything that I know and by all that I read.

CASSANDRA'S JUSTIFICATION.

If such a conviction as this gains possession of the excitable French mind, we do not need to go further back than the history of the last three months to see that there would not be more than the thickness of a piece of tissue paper between us and a war with France if any incident arose which kindled popular passion on either side of the channel. I loathe and detest having to repeat this warning note in the hearing of my countrymen; but while the ears of our rulers are so deaf that they will not hear and their eyes so blind that they will not see or understand the handwriting on the wall, what is to be done but to continue to repeat, in season and out of season, the unheeded warnings, the justice of which is being verified day by day? Nay, have not the results in South Africa far exceeded the very worst the greatest alarmists ever ventured to foreshadow as a possible consequence of our national crime? Nemesis has us by the heel indeed when in one single week three of our best generals, with the flower of the British army under their command, have had to retreat with heavy loss after three pitched battles with the peasants of the Dutch republics.

THE DEFEATS OF GATACRE AND METHUEN.

The defeat of General Gatacre at Stormberg, where under guidance of a chance policeman he marched his troops into an impossible position, from which they only emerged with the loss of nearly 1,000 men, 600 of whom went as prisoners to Pretoria, was ascribed by him to ill-luck, but by the Boers to the manifest finger of God. Lord Methuen, after having in three successive engagements dislodged the Boers from the positions which they had taken up to retard his advance on Kimberley, delivered what he hoped would be a final assault on the Dutch trenches at Magersfontein. After spending Sunday in cannonading the Boer positions he launched his men in the early dawn on Monday against the lines of the enemy. The Highland Brigade, marching in close ranks in quarter column, pressed eagerly to the point where they expected to deliver their attack.

Suddenly the Boer trenches, concealed by foliage, blazed with fire. A continuous storm of bullets swept across the plain, and in one minute 650 of the Highlanders under General Wauchope lay dead or dying on the veldt. General Wauchope himself was killed, and in that fatal moment the issue of the battle was decided. Repeated attempts were made to retrieve the fortune of the day, but without success. When the sun set Lord Methuen, who had lost about 1,000 men, fell back upon his position on the Modder River.

BULLER'S REVERSE.

The humiliating reverse at Stormberg and the decisive check at Magersfontein only intensified the longing of the war party to hear good news from Buller. That general, instead of carrying out his original plan of campaign of massing an overwhelming force in Cape Colony and marching directly to the heart of the republics, had been induced, possibly for political reasons, to split up his command and to undertake personally the relief of Ladysmith. As he advanced the Boers fell back to the Tugela, which, according to General Buller, ought to have been the most advanced position which we should have attempted to hold in Natal.

Everybody believed in Buller. He was experienced in African warfare. He knew and did not underestimate his enemy. Only sixteen miles from the Tugela was a garrison which it was hoped would not fail to attack the Boers in the rear when Buller was engaging them in front. In order to whet anticipation of victory a report was circulated that Ladysmith had been relieved and thousands of Boers made prisoners.

Such were the foolish delusions with which the British public lulled itself to sleep on the night of Friday, the 17th. The turn of the tide, it was believed, had come, and a brilliant and decisive victory on the Tugela would efface all the painful memories of the defeats of Gatacre and Methuen. When we opened our eyes on Saturday morning we knew the facts. General Buller had made his long-threatened attack, and had failed more completely than either Gatacre or Methuen. He

had chosen his own time and his own place. He had under his command all the men and all the guns which he considered necessary, and he flung them at the Dutch position, only to recoil broken and spent like a wave which has hurled itself against the rocks which guard our native land. He had lost over 1,000 men and 11 guns. He made absolutely no impression upon the Boer position, which remained impervious and impregnable after as before his assault.

NEMESIS!

Since the French started for Berlin to find themselves at Sedan, no nation has ever gone into a war with such braggart confidence to experience so cruel a disillusion. And the worst of it was that in their secret hearts even the most passionate advocates of the war could not altogether silence the still, small voice which told us that it served us right.

But having entered upon a course of wrong-doing and committed themselves to a wanton, unnecessary, and criminal war, it was not to be expected that our rulers, with their aiders and abettors in the press and in the so-called opposition, would consent to accept even such a series of defeats as the condemnation of that tribunal to whose verdict Mr. Chamberlain so confidently appealed. Instead of repenting, confessing their sins, and attempting to make reparation for their wrong-doing, they merely determined to struggle forward more madly than ever in their appointed course.

More troops were ordered to be sent out. The colonies were summoned to send additional reënforcements; 10,000 yeomanry cavalry were to be raised at home and dispatched in hot haste. Our last reserves were called out. Further drafts were made upon the militia, and worst of all an appeal was made to 60 volunteer rifle corps to raise each 6 officers and 110 men to volunteer for service in South Africa, where they would be attached to the regiments in the field.

Then by way of emphasizing the fact that all our previous preparations had been mistaken and that we had erred in every respect, even in the choice of officers, Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener were dispatched to take over the direction of the whole business. These measures were hailed with acclamation as indicating our unalterable resolve to "put the thing through."

A COMPETENT WITNESS.

Meanwhile the news from the seat of war gave no encouragement to the belief that Lord Roberts and Lord Methuen would find their task materially improved by the addition of the yeomanry, volunteers, and colonial contingents. By rare good fortune there happens to be among the innumerable Englishmen in South Africa one who has an eye to see and a pen to write, who has access to the columns of the London press. Mr. Winston Churchill is an officer in the army who has seen service both on the northwest frontier of India and in Lord Kitchener's campaign, which he has described so admirably in his book, "The River War." Mr. Churchill was captured by the Boers when the disaster occurred to the armored train near Estcourt. He was taken prisoner to Pretoria, whence after a time he made his escape and rejoined the British forces. He had, therefore, unequaled opportunities of knowing how things stand in the Transvaal. Now what is it he says?

BRITON VERSUS BOER—VERDICT.

He says that, as might be expected, the burden of the war rests heavy on the Boers, that they are suffering particularly from the loss of horses, but that their losses in men have been comparatively slight. He does not consider that, including all those who are down from disease, they have lost more than 2,000 men since the war began. We have lost 7,000, not including those who are down with disease, and whose numbers are never estimated. He tells us, further, that in his estimation one Boer fighting in his own country in his own way is a match for from three to five British soldiers—an estimate which is not very far below the standard which the Boers themselves have always maintained was correct.

The net result of three months' fighting, therefore, has been to verify, in the opinion of this shrewd and experienced observer, the estimate of the superiority of the Boer to the Briton, which was hitherto regarded as the supreme instance of the ignorant insolence of our foes. Further, Mr. Churchill thinks that we shall need 250,000 men before we can "put the thing through," an estimate which may be commended to those persons who are quite sure we shall muddle through somehow, although it would probably tax their wit to explain where the extra 100,000 are to come from or how they are to be fed, and what transport is to be employed when we get them to South Africa.

WHAT MEN THEY ARE, THESE BOERS!

Mr. Churchill's letter describing his experiences after his capture by the Boers raises him at once to the highest rank in his profession. Nothing that Forbes or Russell ever wrote was better than his description of the first night which he spent in the Boer camp. He was immensely surprised by the discovery that the

Boers treated him with the utmost humanity, for as he says: "I had read much of the literature of this land of lies, and fully expected every hardship and indignity." "Land of lies" is good. If the devil be the father of lies, he would certainly find himself in the heart of his family in South Africa. But here, at last, is one man who can speak the truth, and this is what he tells us:

What men they were, these Boers! I thought of them as I had seen them in the morning riding forward through the rain—thousands of independent riflemen, thinking for themselves, possessed of beautiful weapons, led with skill, living as they rode without commissariat or transport or ammunition column, moving like the wind, and supported by iron constitutions and a stern, hard Old Testament God who should surely smite the Amalekites hip and thigh. And then, above the rain-storm that beat loudly on the corrugated iron, I heard the sound of a chant. The Boers were singing their evening psalm, and the menacing notes—more full of indignant war than love and mercy—struck a chill into my heart, so that I thought after all that the war was unjust, that the Boers were better men than we, that Heaven was against us, that Ladysmith, Mafeking, and Kimberley would fall, that the Estcourt garrison would perish, that foreign powers would intervene, that we should lose South Africa, and that that would be the beginning of the end. So for the time I despaired of the empire; nor was it till the morning sun—all the brighter after the rain-storms, all the warmer after the chills—struck in through the windows that things reassumed their true colors and proportions.

Nous verrons! But unless we repent I should back Mr. Churchill's evening meditations against his morning reflections.

THE DANGER AT DELAGOA BAY.

It may be taken for granted that we shall not beat the Boers by fighting. All than we can hope to do is to wear them out by sheer starvation, and in order to do this it is certain that there will be a continually increasing demand for the closing of the Boers' back door at Delagoa Bay. This, however, is much easier said than done, and it is quite possible that the attempt to close it without violating international law may raise questions which will bring the European powers into the field. Already we have seized a German East African steamer, the *Bundesrath*, as it was approaching Delagoa Bay, and have carried it off to Durban, because it had on board three German officers and twenty men in khaki uniform, who, the captors believed, were going to join the Boers.

The Germans are of course very irate as to this seizure of a vessel under the German flag, and it is difficult for us, in view of the protests which we raised against the captured Confederate envoys on board the *Trent*, not to sympathize largely with the German protest. Some very nice questions of international law will be raised before we succeed in excluding either volunteers or breadstuffs from the Portuguese port. In the case of breadstuffs we can only prevent their importation by abandoning one of our most cherished principles—namely, that breadstuffs were not to be seized when intended for the consumption of the civil population. But so great is the frenzy of the moment that our government seems capable of abandoning every principle in order to strengthen infinitesimally the force with which it strikes the heart of the Transvaal.

AN OPPOSITION THAT DARE NOT OPPOSE.

While our empire is staggering with drunken steps down the steep and bloody path which leads to the abyss, the voice of protest at home is almost silenced. Sir William Harcourt is dumb, Mr. Morley makes no sound, Mr. Courtney is as silent as the rest. Those Liberals who do speak, like Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. Asquith, affirm as strongly as any members of the administration the necessity of "putting the thing through."

A small remnant alone keeps up with courage and resolution the demand that the war should be brought to a close at once by a prompt confession of our sins and an offer to make compensation. Mr. Silas Hocking has taken the initiative in summoning a conference of those who are against the war; but at present, although there is a widespread sentiment among the dumb classes of the community in favor of stopping the war, it is not to be expected that Mr. Hocking's conference or the efforts of his allies will in any way interfere with the efforts which the government is making to prosecute the war. Already the children of Ananias and Sapphira are declaring that the responsibility for the war and for its consequent disasters rests upon the head of those who protested against the enterprise upon which Mr. Chamberlain entered with such a light heart. We encouraged the Boers, it is said, to believe that England would not fight.

As a matter of fact, it cannot be too frequently repeated that if we had only had more courage and confidence, and been able to assure the Boers that we were strong enough to keep Mr. Chamberlain within the bounds of reason, there would have been no ultimatum and there would have been no war. It was only when those of us who protested against the war had to regretfully inform President Krüger that there existed no group or party in England strong enough to prevent Mr. Chamberlain making war if he once decided upon it, that the Boers gave up all hope of a pacific settlement and launched the ultimatum which began the war.

THE SEQUEL—UNIVERSAL CONSCRIPTION.

So far from the efforts of those who protested against the war being directed to weakening the armed strength of Great Britain, it is much more likely that its influence will be thrown in exactly the opposite direction. It is not those of us who are derided as idiots, as peace-at-any-price men, who under-estimate the need of placing our empire in an adequate posture of defense. What we say is that the war in South Africa should be stopped because it is initially unjust, and that as a nation we ought to be strong enough to be just and fear not. And, further, we see that if we are not strong enough to dare to be just, the sooner we make ourselves so the better; and in view of the situation in which the criminal recklessness of our ministers has involved us, it will be suicide not to take immediate measures to at least safeguard our capital from the danger of a sudden deadly foray.

It seems but too likely that compulsory military service in some form or another will be the inevitable sequel to this unhappy war, and all that we can hope for is to see to it that the principle of compulsion is applied on a Swiss rather than a German basis. It cannot be too distinctly declared once for all that we who object to the war have done nothing whatever to limit the purchase of a single gun or the raising of a single soldier. On the contrary, it has been from our camp that there has been constantly heard a warning voice as to the need for greater preparations than those which ministers undertook and which at this moment they are willing to put in hand.

A WARNING PRECEDENT.

One word more on this subject. It is true that nearly all Parliamentary leaders on both sides are hopelessly and irrevocably committed to the prosecution of this war. It is therefore assumed by some that nothing possibly can happen which would render a pacific settlement possible. Those who say so forget what happened in France in 1871. The men of the Third Republic differed endlessly among themselves; but one thing they agreed upon, and that was in making a clean sweep of the whole imperialist crew who were in any way responsible for the war. It is by no means beyond the range of an ordinary imagination to see how a combination of foreign war and domestic revolution would make as clean a sweep of the present governing classes in England as the men of the Fourth September made of the Bonapartists in France

We have had humiliation after humiliation, but it would not seem that the proud spirit of our jingoes is yet sufficiently abased to induce them to tolerate any suggestion that we should in a day of national humiliation give expression to our sorrow for the sins which have brought upon us as a natural retribution the miseries which we are at present enduring. Among the innumerable letters which have been written on the subject of the proposed day of humiliation, none sounds so true a note and touches so directly the core of the question as that written by Sir Edward Clarke, who deprecates a day of humiliation on the ground that it would only provoke a mischievous and most unseemly controversy:

The mere suggestion has produced a correspondence in which those who minister in Christ's Church have repudiated their Master's plainest teaching, and laymen scoff at the idea of the divine government of the world. A day so set apart would be kept as a holiday, and pulpits would be used, as they are being used every Sunday, to inflame the pride and passion of our people and to dull and sear their consciences. So far as any Christian spirit is left in the Church it can find expression in the prayers of the Liturgy better than in occasional prayers in which much less of that spirit is to be found.

How far any Christian spirit is left in the Church is a moot question on which Sir Edward Clarke, like a wise man, refrains from expressing a decided opinion.

FAMINE-STRICKEN INDIA.

While we are wasting the resources of our people in waging a wanton war in South Africa the cry of famine-stricken India falls upon deaf ears. According to the latest information, the scarcity of food extends over an area twice as large as France and affects a population of over 50,000,000. More than one-half of these are British subjects. At present 2,000,000 are kept from absolutely dying of starvation by the weekly dole of the Indian Government; but the number is said to be increasing at the rate of 250,000 a week.

The White Man's Burden becomes tangible and visible to us when we have to raise £350,000 a month to "fill full the mouth of famine." According to competent local authorities, the famine is even greater than that which called forth the charity of England three years ago. Mansion House funds, however, are not available for famine-stricken India to-day. We are too busily engaged in creating a famine in South Africa to have any money to spare for our unfortunate fellow-subjects in India.

THE TREASURY AND THE MONEY MARKET.

BY CHARLES A. CONANT.

ABOUNDING prosperity among the American people is almost as serious an embarrassment to the finances of the Government as a period of business depression. The Treasury is threatened with as much trouble during the coming summer and autumn in getting rid of surplus revenue as it was a few years ago in finding the means for meeting a deficit. The mere piling up of surplus money from the pro ceeds of taxation would in itself excite criticism, but conditions are made worse by the effect upon the money market. The money received for taxes goes into the Treasury, and if it is not paid out again for the current expenses of the Government it is withdrawn from the use of the business community. It is this fact which brings the operations of the Treasury into such close relations with the business world and makes a large surplus a serious threat to merchants and bankers as well as a subject of direct interest to the taxpayer. The present condition of the Treasury grows in some degree out of the preparations made for the Spanish war. These preparations proved, by the early termination of the war, to be somewhat more than sufficient, but the money thus collected has been constantly increased of late by the receipts from other sources, which are due in large measure to the activity of business.

At about the time when expenditures began for the war, at the close of February, 1898, the cash balance of the Treasury was $225,564,204. The proceeds of the Dingley revenue law had at that time just begun to meet the ordinary expenses of the Government upon a peace basis. The proceeds of the issue of 3-per-cent. bonds by Secretary Gage added about $199,000,000 to the resources of the Treasury. The war revenue act, passed on June 14, 1898, authorized taxes which have apparently provided about $110,000,000 per year, or $165,000,000 from July 1, 1898, to December 31, 1899. Here were extraordinary resources of $364,000,000 which would have swelled the cash balance to $589,000,000 if they had been turned into the Treasury on February 28, 1898. The expenditure for the Spanish war and the maintenance of garrisons in the conquered territories, up to the close of the last fiscal year on June 30, 1899, was estimated in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for September, 1898,* at from $250,000,000 to $281,000,000. The actual excess of war and navy expenditures from March 1, 1898, to June 30, 1899, over the figures for corresponding peaceful months in 1897 and 1898, was $260,405,983. The amount was probably swelled by the operations in the Philippines above what it would otherwise have been, but does not include the $20,000,000 paid to Spain as an equivalent for the assumption by Spain of the bonded indebtedness of those islands. The six months from July 1 to December 31, 1899, showed an excess of expenditures for the War and Navy Departments of $55,600,000 over the same months of 1897. The entire expenditures on account of the war, therefore, including the payment for the Philippines, amounted on December 31 last to about $336,000,000. This would have absorbed all but $28,000,000 of the funds raised for the special purposes of the war and have left the cash balance at about $253,000,000. These figures seem to indicate that Secretary Gage did not greatly overestimate the possible expense of the contest and that Congress did not add too largely to the resources of the Treasury by the war revenue legislation.

The element which has upset these calculations and accumulated a Treasury balance of $283,595,453 on December 31, 1899, is the remarkable prosperity of the country, which has swelled the revenue under the old laws. This balance, although $58,000,000 larger than that on February 1, 1898, does not represent the entire amount of money received beyond the ordinary needs of the Treasury. The balance is only the net result of the constant accumulation of money and of several measures taken by Mr. Gage to keep the amount under control. What the balance would have been if no such measures had been taken is compactly put in the following table:

Cash balance December 31, 1899	$283,593,453
Redemption 4 and 5 per cent. bonds	21,771,867
Anticipations of interest	6,000,000
Total	$311,365,320

* Article by the present writer on "The Cost and Finances of the Spanish War," REVIEW OF REVIEWS, Vol. XVIII., p. 317.

How Secretary Gage kept the balance under control and averted a panic at several critical stages during the autumn forms an interesting chapter of financial history, which has heretofore been presented only in fragments. There have been periods in the business history of the country when the withdrawal of large sums from the money market produced no injurious effect. Several causes combined, however, during last year to make this influence extremely dangerous, not only to speculation on the stock exchanges, but to the general business of the country. These causes may be described generally as the large demand for capital and the demand for currency. The demand for capital has been felt on every European money market as the result of railroad construction in Asia and Africa and great industrial enterprises in Russia and China, and has raised the discount rate for money at every European bank. Such influences inevitably react upon the New York market, and their power has been shown by considerable exports of gold in the face of an apparently enormous balance due our merchants and bankers by those of Europe. The demand for currency is one of the phases of the demand for capital which has been rendered peculiarly acute in the United States by the currency and banking laws. There has been practically no means of increasing the currency, except by the production and importation of gold, since the repeal of the silver purchase law in 1893, while there has been a great demand for an increase, growing out of the enlarged volume of business.

The Treasury was reduced in the autumn of 1898 to a point where it was impossible to continue exchanges of small notes for gold, and the quantity of such notes on hand, even including silver certificates, was reduced on December 30, 1898, to $21,738,227. Secretary Gage early appreciated the fact that a convulsion might occur in the money market, reaching even to hampering the movement of the crops, if everything possible was not done to return to the use of the people the money taken from them by taxation. This money would have followed a regular current into the Treasury and out again if receipts had no more than equaled expenditures. It was the accumulating surplus of receipts which gave trouble and which it was necessary to find some means of restoring to active use. A series of well-considered measures followed each other from time to time, with the result of avoiding what otherwise might have proved a dangerous congestion of funds in the Treasury and a convulsion in the market. These measures may be set forth under the following heads:

I.—THE ISSUE OF GOLD CERTIFICATES.

The issue of certificates by the Treasury upon the deposit of gold was suspended by Secretary Carlisle in the autumn of 1893, under a law which directed that "the Secretary of the Treasury shall suspend the issue of such gold certificates whenever the amount of gold coin and gold bullion in the Treasury reserved for the redemption of the United States notes falls below $100,000,000." There was some doubt whether there was any authority to resume the issuance of certificates after it was once suspended, and Secretary Gage refused to issue them up to August last. When he observed, however, the intensity of the pressure for paper currency, he decided, under authority of an opinion from the Attorney-General, to resume the issuance of certificates. The result was to cause large deposits of gold in the Treasury by bankers in order to obtain certificates. The total gold holdings of the Treasury increased from $277,848,322 on August 1 to $317,446,960 on September 1. and the outstanding gold certificates increased from $32,593,789 to $68,688,989. The certificates were eagerly sought in exchange for gold all through the autumn and winter, until the amount outstanding on January 2, 1900, reached $161,122,797. The amount of gold in the Treasury on the latter date was $398,032,027, or about $120,000,000 more than on August 1.

The issue of gold certificates did not increase the quantity of money in the country. It aided, however, in relieving the pressure upon the money market, because it permitted the transformation of gold coin, a form of currency to which the people were little accustomed, into the convenient form of paper notes. That these notes were much desired in the smallest denominations was indicated by the fact that gold certificates for $20, the lowest denomination allowed by law, amounted on December 31, 1899, to $53,906,764, which was more than three times the highest point attained by this denomination in any previous year.

II.—THE ANTICIPATION OF INTEREST.

The second device adopted by Secretary Gage to prevent the congestion of money in the Treasury and its withdrawal from use was to pay interest on the public debt in advance of its becoming due. This would be a bad speculation for a business man, because he keeps his surplus funds in investments which afford some return; but in the case of the Government nothing would be gained by holding on to money which was lying idle in the Treasury in excess of any legitimate demand for expenditure or for the maintenance of the national credit. Paying it out put it back into the hands of the people for use and

afforded some degree of relief to everybody by the favorable influence exerted upon the money market. Such payments are authorized by Section 3699 of the Revised Statutes. It has been a frequent practice under all administrations to anticipate interest by a few weeks, and Secretary Windom did this to a large amount during the money pinch of 1890. He prepaid interest in September, 1890, amounting to $12,009,951. The first large anticipation of interest last autumn was authorized in the latter part of October, when the amount paid out was $4,363,244. This was only a drop in the bucket, however, in view of the rapid accumulation of the Treasury surplus. Assistant Secretary Vanderlip, therefore, on October 10, after consultations with Secretary Gage, who was in the West, and with Treasurer Roberts, announced that interest up to June 30, 1900, would be paid upon any of the bonds of the Government upon application of the holder, subject to a rebate at the rate of two-tenths of 1 per cent. a month. The acceptances of this offer were not rapid, owing apparently to the fact that the owners of bonds were in only a few cases the people who were most pressed for money. The offer expired on December 31, 1899. The face value of the bonds presented for interest up to that time was $97,404,470—a little less than 10 per cent. of the bonded debt—upon which the interest paid was $2,229,191 and the rebate to the Treasury was $21,107.

A still further step was taken in December, when a panic was threatened by some heavy failures in Boston and New York, by the anticipation of the interest due in January on the 4-per-cent. bonds, where this interest had not already been paid under the previous offer of the Treasury. The amount of these bonds outstanding on December 31 was $545,366.550, upon which the full interest would have been $5,453,665, but a small portion of this had already been paid under rebate.

III.—THE PURCHASE OF BONDS.

The anticipation of interest turned money into the market at several critical junctures, but could not in the nature of the case reduce permanently the surplus in the Treasury. The December payment, for instance, placed some $5,000,000 at the disposal of the market in advance of its becoming due in January, but with the close of the latter month the Treasury is just where it would have been if the payments had been made at the regular time. The most effective measure for reducing the surplus, so that the money will not come back, is the purchase of the public debt. Only a trifling amount of this debt could be redeemed by Secretary Gage at par, because the bonds were not due and payable. It was necessary, therefore, to pay a premium in order to persuade the holders of the bonds to surrender them to the Government. Secretary Gage decided somewhat suddenly on November 15 to offer to buy 5-per-cent. bonds maturing in 1904 and 4-per-cent. bonds maturing in 1907, and to pay the price of 111 for the 5-per-cent. bonds and 112.75 for the 4-per-cent. bonds. Even this offer was not accepted so promptly and generally as would have been the case if the owners of the bonds had been those who were most seriously pressed for money. The bonds purchased by the Government up to December 1 were about $18,000,000. The offer remained open until December 23, but even then the whole amount sold to the Government was less than the $25,000,000 which Secretary Gage had offered to purchase. The total face value of the bonds bought was $19,300,650, of which $14,310,350 were 4-per-cent. bonds and $4,990,300 were 5-per-cents. The amount paid, including interest and premiums, was $21,771,867.

The gold standard bill, now pending in Congress, provides for refunding most of the existing bonded debt into 2-per-cent. gold bonds. These bonds run for thirty years, but this will not prevent the reduction of the debt from year to year, because, as pointed out by Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island, in opening the debate, a 2-per-cent. bond can be purchased by the Government or its agents at any time in the open market at its par value or for a small premium.

IV.—THE DEPOSIT OF PUBLIC MONEY IN THE BANKS.

One other measure was taken by Secretary Gage which will probably contribute for a time to relieve the money market more than any of the others. It is substantially the same policy which was adopted by Secretary Fairchild in 1888, when public money paid for internal revenue taxes was allowed to remain on deposit in national banks instead of being transferred without delay to the custody of the Treasury. There is specific authority of law for making such deposits, and the effect is to materially increase the money at the disposal of the public. Placing the money in the banks is in effect placing it at the disposal of the public, for it increases the power of the banks to accommodate business men by making loans and meeting the calls of depositors for currency. The Government is protected by the deposit in the Treasury of United States bonds of at least the full face value of the money left in the banks.

Secretary Gage on December 18, 1899, announced that he would accept offers of bonds from the banks for the purpose of securing de-

posits of public money to the aggregate amount of $30,000,000 to $40,000,000. Offers of bonds began to reach the Treasury in large amounts the next day, one of the first of importance coming from the City National Bank of New York. This bank, which recently raised its capital to $10,000,000 and has the largest deposits of any bank in the United States, offered $4,000,000 in bonds. Other offers within the next ten days brought up the amount of bonds offered to about $18,000,000. The City National Bank was designated to receive the deposits as they were collected by internal revenue collectors and to transfer them at once to the other banks which had pledged bonds as security. It was the intention to make the distribution as nearly as possible in proportion to the amounts of bonds deposited, but not in smaller amount than lots of $50,000. Later offers of bonds brought up the total amount offered by the middle of January to nearly $30,000,000. The Treasury is not authorized to transfer funds directly to the banks, so that it was necessary to await the gradual accumulation of internal revenue receipts before the deposits were increased in proportion to the bonds deposited. The deposits of public money in national banks on December 18, 1899, when Secretary Gage decided upon his policy of increasing them, were $82,133,255. They rose soon after January 15, 1900, above $100,000,000. The relief afforded to the money market was not quite equal to the difference between these two amounts, because a surplus of receipts in the meantime swelled the cash balance in the Treasury.

Thus by the adoption of several financial devices sanctioned by law Secretary Gage was able to add over $50,000,000 to the resources which would otherwise have been at the disposal of the money market if all public money not required for ordinary expenditures had been allowed to pile up in the Treasury. He will have to adopt similar devices next autumn if the activity of business remains unchecked and existing revenue laws are not changed. He may be forced to adopt such devices even at some expense to the Government in the payment of large premiums for bonds. The only certain escape from the embarrassment resulting from the excess of Treasury receipts is the reduction of taxation. Whether this policy will be adopted by Congress depends upon the rapidity with which the surplus increases during the next few months. The American fiscal system differs in several respects from that of European governments. The system of taxation depends very much upon business conditions. There is no adjustable tax, like the English income tax, of which the rate can be changed from year to year, without disturbance to business, to meet the indications of an excess or deficiency in the public revenues. Every European government, moreover, conducts its fiscal operations through the principal bank of the country rather than by what is called in this country "the independent Treasury system." A surplus in a European treasury simply means that the amount to the credit of the treasury in the leading bank of issue is larger than usual. The money, however, remains at the disposal of the bank for loans and is not withdrawn from the use of the money market.

Some serious political problems would be involved in the change of the American system. President Jackson was the first conspicuous advocate of the sub-Treasury system, which he preferred because of his distrust of the political motives of the Bank of the United States. The system has recently been subjected to much criticism, but could not be abolished or seriously modified without becoming an important political issue. Some relief of the money market might be obtained, independently of the Treasury operations, by giving an increased power of note issue to the national banks. This also is a question of the broadest character, which could not be solved without a political contest. The remaining measure for changing existing conditions is the reduction of taxation. This, in its turn, is a proposition of the most serious character, which might reopen the tariff debate and invite the discussion of the war taxes and the merits of an income tax. Many of these issues are likely to come before the people in the near future as the result of the rapid accumulation of money in the Treasury, but it is as yet too early to determine just which issue will first be raised or what shape the discussion of it will take.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

SIR REDVERS BULLER.

ACCORDING to the character study of Sir Redvers Buller by Edmund Gosse in the January number of the *North American Review*, the South African campaigner has many interests in life besides those pertaining to the soldier's profession. "With the exception of Lord Wolseley, not one of our great living soldiers has so much to interest him outside his military work as Sir Redvers Buller has."

This typical soldier springs, it seems, from an unmilitary family, and the life that he really enjoys, next to his rough campaigning, is that of the English country squire.

"He is untiring in his efforts to improve his land and he does not disdain to be the chief citizen of his little ancient borough of Crediton. He takes an astonishing interest in the affairs of the town. He is chairman of its school board, one of the twelve governors of its church, and administrator of most of its local charities. When he was extremely busy as adjutant-general of the British army he always made time to go down west to important town meetings. In consequence he is regarded with great respect and affection in Crediton, while his popularity is unbounded. It is based on his reputation for sympathy and justice, on the long experience of his straightforwardness. The townspeople know that he will never promise to do more than he can perform, and they realize that he is one of themselves, that he thoroughly understands them. Crediton is almost comically proud of Sir Redvers. A mild old man loitering about the church porch the other day was asked if the squire was a favorite. 'A favorite here? Well, all I can tell you is that if any fellow were to say a word in Crediton against the general, we should rise like one man and knock him down.'"

INTELLECTUAL INTERESTS.

Edmund Gosse observes that General Buller's attitude toward learning and scholarship is one of "instinctive respect." He is a good judge of literature. For poetry he has no special aptitude, but in prose his tastes are definite. The essays of Bacon and Lamb are his habitual traveling companions.

"An interesting feature of Sir Redvers Buller's attitude to literature is his special interest in the expression of the individual character of the author. One would suppose that he would read entirely for the matter, but I have been surprised to notice that it always seems to be the manner that attracts him. Among the moderns he has, I think, three prime favorites, Ruskin, Matthew Arnold, and George Meredith, and in each he is particularly observant of the style. The penchant of Sir Redvers for Ruskin is so marked as to be quite a feature of his mental life. He was induced to read 'Modern Painters' when he was very young, and he has preserved a lively enthusiasm for this author. The only trace of anything like bibliomania to be met with in Sir Redvers Buller's library is the care with which he has brought together a rather large collection of the early editions of Ruskin. He is not a great novel-reader, and I have heard him say that he always begins at the end. He is not, as one might suppose, attracted by hairbreadth adventures and a boisterous plot, but he prefers delicate ingenuities of psychology and a scrupulous style. He has even a certain weakness for sentiment in a story."

IN SOCIAL RELATIONS.

Sir Redvers Buller has been called a "silent, saturnine man," but when he is in company that he likes this description does not seem to apply at all.

"The physical endurance of Sir Redvers is proverbial. As I write these words he is on the point of entering his sixty-first year, yet in mind and body alike he has all the elasticity of youth. No one would dream of calling him an elderly man. This youthfulness of spirit makes him a pleasant companion; and friends much younger in years are encouraged to be natural in his presence. I think that the discordant accounts of Sir Redvers Buller's behavior in the society of men—some representing him as bluff and taciturn, others as singularly genial and open in speech—may be accounted for by a simple formula. He has a fellow-feeling with and will come out to and meet half way any man who is interested in doing definite things. He does not demand tastes similar to his own, but he must have reality of some sort. If he fails to find it he is silent and perhaps harsh. He is really—for all his character as a 'martinet'—very indulgent; I have heard him contradict people, but never snub them. Young men who have the advantage of his company in the country, in hunting or shooting with him, always find him geniality itself. And he has another very human side. He feels the infection of youth. He will enter heart and soul into a party of young people, marshal their entertainments for them, and even

take a world of pains in coaching them for private theatricals. On these occasions he seems to have no other aim in life; he becomes the most juvenile of the juvenile."

Both in and out of the army General Buller has awakened what Edmund Gosse calls "an almost superstitious confidence."

It was Mr. Gladstone who once exclaimed: "Joshua! Joshua! Why, Joshua couldn't hold a candle to Redvers Buller as a leader of men!"

BRITISH MILITARY EXPERTS ON THE WAR.

MAJ. ARTHUR GRIFFITHS contributes to the January *Fortnightly Review* an article on "The Conduct of the War," in which he maintains that British reverses are due to the persistent refusal of the British Government to believe in the nearness of a breach with the Transvaal. The War Office, he said. had all the facts as to numbers, weapons, and war material; but the military side of the department was subordinated to the political side. Lord Wolseley urged as far back as last July that an army corps should be sent to the Cape, but not even preparations were proceeded with; with the result that when the war broke out England was unready, and the true considerations of military tactics were overruled by political considerations.

Major Griffiths speaks, for instance, of the "official subordination of military to political considerations in Natal." "Baden-Powell, alone of our military leaders, has distinguished himself." As for General Gatacre, he refers to his "madcap escapade at Stormberg," and declares that his reverse cannot be forgiven. It was inexcusable on every ground and conducted in direct defiance of the rules of war. He violated sound principles, neglected the commonest precautions, and his committing his force to the guidance of a policeman through blind, broken country, in the dead of night, was a matter of the clearest ineptitude and incapacity. Of General White Major Griffiths says: "He committed a grave error in allowing himself to be shut up in Ladysmith. He ought to have drawn behind the Tugela and waited for reënforcements. The investment of Ladysmith has upset the original plan of campaign and rendered it impossible for General Buller to control all his subordinates from a central position." He is not less ill-pleased with Lord Methuen. He does not understand why, after the battle of Modder Bridge, he halted for a fortnight in complete inactivity. Nor does he admire the tactics pursued at Magersfontein. As to Buller's action at the Tugela, he thinks that the officer responsible for the "bold advance of the artillery without preliminary reconnoissance is the officer responsible for the loss of the battle."

The moral of the whole thing, according to Maj. Arthur Griffiths, is that a searching inquiry must be made into the whole work of the War Office, and that after all the reports and minutes prepared by the military advisers of the government have been examined, the result cannot fail to vindicate the reputation of the military side of the department at the cost of Lord Lansdowne and the civilians.

"Blackwood" Censures.

In *Blackwood's Magazine* the writer of the article on "The War Operations in South Africa" is hardly less severe in his condemnation of England's action. The article is of some length and is illustrated with maps. He deplores that "each hardly fought victory won by our men was not followed by the absolute rout and surrender of the beaten foe." This he attributes to the fact that cavalry and horse artillery were in too small proportion to the other arms, to the nature of the country, and to the "treacherous and dastardly tricks by which the Boers contrived to escape scot free." Among the lessons of Lord Methuen's battles seem to be that artillery is the arm of the future, and he admits regretfully that the farmers of the Transvaal have put forth guns before which England's have had to take second place. Speaking of the battle of Magersfontein, the writer in *Blackwood* is very sarcastic. He says that tailors have invented a cap on the German model for the British staff. It would seem as if they had also invented the head that wears the cap. Scouts have been conspicuous by their absence. Regimental officers have won the day, but they will not win another. They have done what they were told to do by gentlemen who wore caps on a German model. Of General Gatacre's mishap at Stormberg he speaks somewhat bitterly, saying that he attempted the impossible on an empty stomach with the aid of a policeman. The moral of the whole thing is, he says, that "the Boers have invented a new system of warfare, and we have been trying to beat them with our old system. The Boer can move ten miles an hour to our two. He is a very good shot with his rifle, and lives in a country where nature has built a fortress at every mile. We want more artillery and more cavalry. General Buller tried the sledge-hammer style with a vengeance. The result did not justify his preference for frontal attack." He concludes his article by intimating that in his opinion British reverses are largely to be attributed to the forgetfulness of officers that the limit of physical endurance on the part of their men can easily be overpassed. When

the men in the ranks are deprived of sleep, food, and drink, and are then set to fight, faint and wearied, under a broiling sun, with an invisible foe, it is not very surprising that they should come to grief.

A Discredited Prophet.

The military expert who writes in the *Contemporary Review* takes a more cheerful view of the situation than most of his fellows. He has to admit, however, at the beginning that his last forecast of the war was utterly wrong. He believed that Sir Redvers Buller would be victorious in Natal and Lord Methuen would have relieved Kimberley. But although his prophecies have been falsified, he sees no reason why he should not go on prophesying in the same cheerful, optimistic vein. His paper is a somewhat bitter criticism of the strategy of the generals who have divided their forces where they ought to have massed them, and omitted all consideration of what the Boers might do in drawing up their own plan of campaign. He thinks that the use of army corps was a mistake. It would have been far better to have confined ourselves to divisions only. He also harps upon the need for more mounted infantry. The original plan of campaign was wrong and the organization of the British forces unsuitable. He estimates the loss of the Boers, including those who have died of disease, at not far short of 6,000. He thinks that General Buller is strong enough to relieve Ladysmith if he gets a few more guns. He would recall Gatacre and French from the north of Cape Colony, and then the combined forces, with the assistance of Sir Charles Warren's division, could overwhelm Cronje and relieve Kimberley.

"A CAPITALISTS' WAR."

MR. J. A. HOBSON, the special correspondent of the Manchester *Guardian* in South Africa, contributes to the *Contemporary Review* an interesting article entitled "Capitalism and Imperialism in South Africa." It is a thoughtful, somewhat philosophic paper, which looks at the South African question as merely one feature of a not insignificant political development of our time—that is, the growth of the power of the foreign investor in small, decadent, or new countries. To such an extent has this developed of late years that the practical moral of Mr. Hobson's paper would be that only a great power can afford to allow its resources to be developed by foreign capital, otherwise it may as well make up its mind to sacrifice its independence. For where the foreign investor puts his money the foreign immigrant follows, and then as an aggrieved citizen he demands that the armed forces of his country should be used for the purpose of securing him his rights; which being interpreted mean the right to govern the country in which he has settled. South Africa, says Mr. Hobson, offers the most conspicuous and striking instance of the operation of this new force in international affairs. He takes the view of Mr. Rhodes which is common among those who regard his career from the outside and who know nothing of the man and the real drift of his ideas.

DIAMOND DIPLOMACY.

In Mr. Hobson's belief, Mr. Rhodes came into politics in order to promote the interests of the diamond industry of which he is the head. One permanent result of his political activity has been that although Kimberley yields diamonds of the value of £4,000,000 per annum, the mines pay no rates and diamonds are still free of taxation. Mr. Hobson regards the illicit diamond-buying law, the compound system, and the employment of convict labor in the mines as illustrations of the way in which Mr. Rhodes has utilized his political power to serve his financial necessities. He does not assert that Mr. Rhodes has been exclusively or even chiefly moved by purely financial considerations, but he points out that two facts stand out clearly: first, that he and his confederates have systematically used politics to assist their business interests; secondly, that in politics they have adopted imperialism as a last resort.

IMPERIALISM A BLIND.

Mr. Hobson, by way of proving the last statement, quotes from a speech delivered by Mr. Rhodes in 1884 when the Bechuanaland question was being discussed, in which he repeatedly deprecated the introduction of the imperial factor into Bechuanaland, and indicated with remarkable emphasis that the interference of the imperial government might lead to a repetition of those unfortunate occurrences which they had had in connection with the Transvaal. It is melancholy to read that speech to-day and see how clearly Mr. Rhodes recognized in those days the necessity for acting together with the Transvaal, and how he warned his fellow-members that they would bitterly regret pursuing a policy which led them into antagonism with the Boers. And in view of possible developments in the future it is well to remember that Mr. Rhodes said: "First and foremost they should remove the imperial factor from the situation. He believed that if they did not, there was on the border of the Transvaal great danger for South Africa."

THE TRANSVAAL GOLD RING.

Passing from Mr. Rhodes to the Eckstein group which controls the gold mines of Johannesburg, Mr. Hobson has little difficulty in showing that the real motive which led these gentlemen to take up the franchise question was simply and solely a desire to increase their dividends. As Mr. Fitzpatrick stated in 1896: "If you want the real grievances they are the Netherlands Railway concession, the dynamite monopoly, the liquor traffic, and native labor, which altogether constitute an unwarrantable burden upon an industry of 2,500,000 annually." We all know that Mr. John Hays Hammond has held out prospects to the shareholders of the Consolidated Goldfields Company of an increased dividend from the mines of the Rand, which he first estimated at £4,800,000 a year. Labor is to be cheapened, middlemen dispensed with, the Kimberley compound system introduced, and the unfortunate Uitlander working classes passed under a harrow which would lead them to remember with unavailing regret that milder *régime* of the Boers.

THE CONSPIRACY DETECTED BY THE BOERS.

In explaining the action of the Transvaal Government, he attributes it entirely to the fact that they realized clearly the nature of the capitalist conspiracy with which they were confronted. Modern imperialism seemed to them in a large measure resolvable into capitalistic or profit seeking interests. The driving forces of aggressive imperialism are the organized influences of certain professional and commercial classes which have certain definite economic advantages to gain by assuming a pseudo-patriotic cloak. The power of the financier, or as they would say on the continent, the Jew—although in South Africa he is only seven-eighths Jew—is exercised directly upon the politician or indirectly through the press upon public opinion, and this domination of the Jew, or rather capitalist, is perhaps the most serious problem in public life to-day. Mr. Chamberlain is but a tool of the generals of finance in South Africa. The apparent spontaneity of imperialism is a mere illusion. Its forces obey the stimulus and direction of financial masters. Mr. Hobson concludes his paper by an apposite quotation from Sir Thomas More:

"Everywhere do I perceive a certain conspiracy of rich men seeking their private advantage under the name and pretext of the commonweal."

Russian Opinion on the War.

The Russian reviews are so belated in their notices of current events that their comments on the military side of the war are of little interest now. The *Vyestnik Yevropui* for December has an article on "The War in South Africa," written before the recent defeats, in which the author thinks there is no question of the ultimate triumph of the British. The most remarkable revelation produced by the war has been the extraordinary methods of the English press, which was generally reputed to be the soberest in Europe. "In the serious London papers," says the writer, "we see with amazement the same extravagances and absurdities, the same frivolity and bellicose nonsense as in the journalism of France. Every little skirmish has been magnified into a 'great battle' and has been made the subject of magniloquent patriotic vaporings." A day after the disaster of Nicholson's Nek President Krüger, who was merely to be "taught manners," had turned into a Hannibal and a Bonaparte put together.

The *Russkaya Muisl* prints President Steyn's proclamation, but beyond an expression of regret over the tragic elements of the struggle it makes no comment.

ENGLAND'S DOOMED CABINET.

THE general dissatisfaction which is felt in England concerning the conduct of the South African War finds expression in the *National Review*. It contains two articles, one by the editor in the "Episodes of the Month," the other by a writer who signs himself "Carltonensis." Both intimate with refreshing frankness their conviction that the cabinet as at present constituted is doomed. The editor says:

"The cabinet is growing stale. It is not felt to be sufficiently strenuous to cope with a great crisis. It stands in need both of new blood and young blood. Several of Lord Salisbury's colleagues would be consulting public wishes and public interests in making a graceful retirement. Many of them have had a splendid innings for no apparent reason except that they are *personæ gratissimæ* to the tapers and tadpoles on the strength of reputed services to the party. The time has come, however, to think of the British empire, and the first thought that suggests itself is that it is high time that men who know something of the empire and take a serious interest in its fortunes should be summoned to share in its counsels. Again, it does not seem reasonable that all our younger politicians should be allowed to grow old before they obtain admittance to the cabinet."

His contributor enters more into detail. Among the cabinet ministers who might be shed without loss he mentions Mr. Ritchie, Mr. Akers-Douglas, and Mr. Chaplin. He also suggests

that Lord Lansdowne should be replaced by Lord Wolseley and Mr. Goschen by an admiral:

"A further strengthening of the ministry might be achieved by introducing one or two men like, for instance, Sir George Goldie, the founder of Nigeria, or Lord Cromer, if he cares to quit his Egyptian satrapy, or Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff, the great engineer to whom Egypt owes her modern system of irrigation."

THE CHIEF "JONAH."

But even when all this is said and done "Carltonensis" is not content. A more eminent head must fall, and that head is no other than Mr. Chamberlain. He points out that whichever alternative is adopted as the true theory of the situation, Mr. Chamberlain stands condemned. The first view, which he thinks is held by the majority, especially of the Conservatives, is that while the situation in the Transvaal called for pressure, it did not call for war:

"The Krüger government was incompetent and probably corrupt, and the Uitlanders had good ground to demand an improvement in their position. But though they were entitled to sympathy and to all the moral assistance that the imperial government could give them, we had no right to compel a state to which we had granted autonomy to alter its internal constitution to suit our own idea of expediency and justice. On this construction of the matter Mr. Chamberlain's speeches and diplomatic threats were unwarrantable provocations, to which, unhappily, the Transvaal Government responded only too readily."

THE INEXORABLE DILEMMA.

On this theory Mr. Chamberlain should go, because he brought about the war, which might have been avoided. The other theory is that the war was inevitable, and was so from the first, because the Boers wished for it; but as "Carltonensis" points out, on this hypothesis Mr. Chamberlain must be condemned even more severely than on the other:

"According to this view war was inevitable from the first, since President Krüger and President Steyn and many of the Cape Afrikanders had entered into a deliberate conspiracy to overthrow the British position in Africa by force of arms. So far from fearing hostilities, Mr. Krüger was seeking them. He and his people were longing for an opportunity to attack the English and drive them into the sea, and only awaiting a decent excuse to begin. If this is the correct explanation, how fatal to Mr. Chamberlain and his supporters! What ineptitude could be worse than that of providing these ambitious republican plotters with the very occasion they sought? What fatality deeper than that of beginning a wrangle over the franchise with a government firmly bent on precipitating a quarrel as soon as it suited its own convenience to fire a shot? We are told that Mr. Chamberlain did not know that this was the Boer temper and policy. But—assuming the present explanation to be correct—he ought to have known. It was his particular business to know. That is one of the things which he is there to know. We are blaming our generals in the field for carelessness in reconnoitering the position of the enemy before advancing to attack. But what is to be said of Mr. Chamberlain's tactics? It is a colossal example of 'inefficient scouting.'"

A Formidable Minority.

Sir Wemyss Reid, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* upon the state of public opinion in relation to the war, says:

"I gather that everywhere, alike in town and in country, the overwhelming majority stands by the executive in the struggle in which the nation is now engaged. But there is still a minority, not strong in numbers, but unquestionably strong in pertinacity and resolution, that looks upon the war with abhorrence, and that maintains just as stoutly as Mr. Bright did in the Crimean days that it is a war which ought never to have been begun. While all but a handful of the Conservative party and a large majority of the Liberals have agreed to sink controversial questions while the storm of battle rages in South Africa, a resolute minority, composed chiefly, though not exclusively, of Liberals and Radicals, maintains its opposition to the whole policy of the government with a tenacity almost as remarkable as that which our soldiers displayed when they scaled the heights of Dundee or refused to be denied in their dash upon the Boer position on the Modder. For the present this minority is powerless. But it will make itself heard in the not distant future, and the fortunes of one at least of the great political parties will be affected by the efforts that it will make."

The Three Scapegoats.

The *Humanitarian* for January thus sums up the situation into which England has been "misled by guides:"

"The present hour, when the nation is in the throes of a life-and-death struggle, is not the time to do or say anything to further embarrass the government, but three members of it must be held directly responsible for the present state of affairs. One is Mr. Chamberlain, whose blundering diplomacy brought on the war when England was unprepared to meet it; the other

Lord Lansdowne, whose incapable management of the War Office recalls the worst days of the Crimea; the third Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who refused in the beginning to grant the necessary supplies. We sincerely trust that when the day of reckoning comes these three men will be brought strictly to account. The ambition of one and the ineptitude of the other and the parsimony of the third are responsible for the loss of hundreds of gallant lives."

ENGLAND IN EGYPT.

"ENGLAND'S Free Hand on the Nile" is the subject of an article in *Frank Leslie's* for January by Mr. G. W. Steevens, the newspaper correspondent and author. In two graphic paragraphs Mr. Steevens compresses the whole history of Britain's eighteen years' occupation of Egypt:

"Nations, like individuals, have their streaks of good luck and of bad. For several years after 1882 England, in Egypt, could do nothing right. The ambiguous position which she had taken in that country, leaving it neither universally dependent nor really free, hampered her diplomacy and tarnished her good faith. It offered a perpetual weak point of which her opponents on any question could take occasion to embarrass her; and in Egypt itself it rendered any efforts toward reform and progress at the same time irritating and ineffective. England refused to command and Egypt refused to take advice. The country was bankrupt, besides was comatose. Cholera fell upon the land and demonstrated with merciless cogency the utter incapacity of its administration. The Mahdi arose in the Soudan and demonstrated as mercilessly the hopeless disorganization of its army. British help illuminated the gloom with a few flashes of barren glory, until the lonely death of Gordon left it covered with a deeper and a permanent pall of shame. France bullied and insulted and England sat meek. Her interventions, conceived in the honestest intentions toward civilization and Egypt herself, seemed only to have complicated bad policy by bad faith and multiplied bad luck by bad judgment.

"On a period of three years of futility and failure followed more than a dozen of comparative obscurity. Egypt was still by way of being a weak joint in England's armor with a live wound beneath it; but during this period the world at large heard little of the Nile Valley and cared less. Then suddenly, at the end of 1898, Egypt pushed in the world again and everything was utterly changed. With the international status of an undischarged bankrupt, she was found to be almost embarrassingly solvent. Her people were more prosperous than they had been in a history of nine thousand years, and there was a continual demand for capital to develop her resources. She was entering, on the strength of her own credit, upon a project to tame and regulate the Nile that would have stopped the most pyramidal of the Pharaohs. The Soudan had been conquered in a series of campaigns which for economy, efficiency, and precision have never been excelled in history. And France, the unrelaxing opponent of half a generation, had withdrawn from the best position the long duel had ever afforded her, and had signed a convention resigning all pretension to the Nile Valley forever. As England could do nothing right in 1883, so in 1898 she could do nothing wrong. The game was played—she had won every trick."

THE FUTURE OF THE SOUDAN.

While it is true that the Khalifa was destroyed as a serious power in the battle of Omdurman (at the time when Mr. Steevens was writing his death had not been reported), it still remains for the British to establish actual dominion over an area of roadless and generally waterless country stretching about 700 miles from east to west and 500 from north to south.

"Of the provinces west of the Nile, no soldier of the Egyptian Government has reset foot in the westernmost, Dafur. Kordofan, between it and the White Nile, still harbors the Khalifa. Attempts have been made to push into the Bahr-el-Ghazal and up the White Nile to the equatorial lakes, but they have not been successful. The *sudd*, or floating vegetation, has effectually impeded the gunboats, and becomes more and more difficult as the river falls. A down-river expedition from Uganda has so far been baffled by the same difficulty.

"On the other hand, the country east of the Nile has been fairly covered up to the frontier of Abyssinia. The River Sobat and its tributaries have been explored for a distance of nearly 300 miles and a fortified port, the southernmost in the Soudan, established at Nassar, over 250 miles by water beyond Fashoda. The Blue Nile and its tributaries are commanded to the head of navigation. The 'island,' or country between the White and Blue Niles—the best cotton land in the Soudan—is pacified. Gedarif is being connected with Kassala and the Red Sea coast by telegraph. As soon as possible a railroad will probaby be constructed from Khartum, along the Blue Nile, by Abu Haraz, Gedarif, and Kassala to Suakim. Gedarif is the granary of the Soudan; grain there can be bought doubly as cheap

as at Kassala and eight times as cheap as at Omdurman. Better communication between the capital and its bread supply is the first necessity of the situation.

"The remaining section of the Soudan—the Nile banks from Wady Halfa to Khartum—is the one where most progress can naturally be looked for. It is the longest conquered and the easiest to communicate with. But what a country! South of Khartum rain falls freely in summer—here hardly ever. Red-hot rocks and white-hot sand, eye-searing glare, coarse, sapless grass, mimosa thorn, wooden-fruited dompalms, empty bladders of Dead Sea fruit, white ants and scorpions, tangle-haired, herring-gutted, half-human men. Yet everywhere there is a bad and a not quite so bad. There is nearly always a lip of soil along the river bank, and that soil, irrigated by water-wheels, will support men. The water-wheels have been broken and burned, it is true. The men have been speared, the women taken for concubines, and the babies flung into the river. But the experience at Dongola, now restored to Egypt for three years, encourages the hope that the country will fill up sooner than you would think. Fugitives sprang up from everywhere to claim their derelict lands in Dongola province; soon water-wheels creaked again and the green corn embroidered the river. Dongola went far to supply the Khartum army with grain. But even if the country fills up more quickly than there is any right to expect, it must still remain for years half peopled, half desert.

"Within a matter of weeks after these lines are read the railroad should have reached Khartum and the Soudan should be open to trade. But where there is little to bring out of a country there will be little to be taken in. There is ebony and other good timber on the Blue Nile; there are also gum, ivory, and ostrich feathers to be had, but not in any great quantity. The chief impediment to trade will probably be the difficulty of bringing up bulky goods like fabrics, for the railroad is blocked with stores and materials for the dam at Assuan and the rebuilding of Khartum.

"Briefly, there is no place for heroics about the reopened Soudan. Khartum is being slowly transformed from a collection of old ruined mud huts to a collection of new, stable ones. The governor's palace will be as palatial as an Italian rural hotel. The Gordon College will be an elementary school for little boys between seven and fourteen. The provincial governments are soldiers in their shirt-sleeves, the law courts the same as the provincial governments. It all has to be made out of nothing. The Soudan has no element of a country—not even population. It is a scraped tablet; and only the broadest and plainest lines of social life can as yet be drawn upon it. But those will be drawn with a firm touch. Security is the first requisite. As the new generation grows it will find the paths already marked out for it."



From *Frank Leslie's Popular Monthly.*

THE KHALIFA.

(Killed in battle with the Anglo-Egyptian troops under Colonel Wingate, November 24, 1899, 170 miles south of Omdurman.)

The Death of the Khalifa.

In an article entitled "The Last of the Dervishes," in the *National Review* for January, Maj. F. I. Maxse, of the Coldstream Guards, describes the fall of the Khalifa, in November last. His account of the charge of the Dervishes, led by the Khalifa and his Emirs, follows:

"Our infantry fixed bayonets and opened with volleys at 400 yards. The twelve-pounders and Maxims were hard at it; but in spite of this continuous fire, on came the Khalifa at the head of his men. Though firing incessantly, their aim was fortunately high, and the bullets whistled for the most part harmlessly over our heads. Nothing could live within the zone of our concentrated fire, yet some among them actually charged to within 250 yards of us, and died facing their enemy.

"In this charge the Khalifa and most of the Emirs met their death, while at the same time the Ninth Soudanese, together with two Maxims and a dismounted party of the camel corps, were

repelling an attack on our left flank, which had developed some strength. Discipline and steady volleys had decided the fate of the day, and fighting came to an end at 6 A.M. It had been hot while it lasted, but our casualty list was a trifling one, owing chiefly to our good position well in rear of the crest of open rising ground.

"About a couple of hundred Dervishes lay dead around us, and their wounded must have numbered over 500. Meanwhile the remainder, having heard of the Khalifa's death, gave up the fight and retired to their women in the camp.

"Seeing that no further resistance was being



From the *Illustrated London News.*

THE KHALIFA'S LAST STAND.

offered, but not yet aware of the fall of the Khalifa, we advanced with every precaution toward the *dem.* We were met by a deputation of the enemy, who, throwing down their rifles, asked for quarter for the whole force, and this was, of course, readily granted. From them we heard of the Khalifa's death, and his body was soon identified and placed under a guard. One of the wounded Emirs lying by his side told me that early in the engagement the Khalifa was grazed by a bullet in the hand, but so determined was he to carry out the attack that he concealed the wound by drawing his sleeve over it to prevent his followers being discouraged. He went forward into the thick of the fight, where he fell, struck by the splinter of a shrapnel in the mouth and by a rifle bullet in the chest. The body lay 330 yards from our firing line. By his side the chief Emirs, including Ahmed Fedil, lay dead or wounded. His son, Osman Sheik el Din, had been wounded in the arm early in the day, and we found him on a bed among his harem in the camp, whither he had been brought by his personal followers, who were evidently devoted to him."

Colonel Wingate took as prisoners 3,000 fighting men, 5,000 women, and 1,000 children, and seized 1,100 head of cattle, donkeys, sheep, goats, and camels, together with a quantity of rifles and ammunition.

GENERAL WOOD IN CUBA.

IN the February *McClure's* Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, in his character sketch of General Wood, gives the best account of that fine officer and his work that we have yet seen. General Wood came from southeastern Massachusetts and had for his first ambition a longing to be a sailor, which drove him into recklessly venturesome voyages down the coast. After the death of his father, in August, 1880, Leonard Wood entered the Harvard Medical School, tutored his way through with the aid of a scholarship, and began to practice medicine in Boston under anything but brilliant auspices at the age of twenty-four. In 1885 his adventurous spirit got the better of him, and he suddenly packed his satchel and, without telling any of his friends, went to New York and took the examination for admission as a surgeon in the army. He was passed second in a class of 59, and held a contract position until he was commissioned, on January 5, 1886.

General Wood's campaign against Geronimo and the Apaches have been fully given to the public since he became known to all Americans as the colonel of the Rough Riders in the summer of 1898. He was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers on July 8, 1898, and eleven days later became governor of the city of Santiago. Mr. Baker says that General Wood was one of the few men who were as vigorous physically at the end of that terrible tropical campaign as at the beginning. How successful the former army surgeon's government of Santiago has been every one knows. Mr. Baker says his administration was a curious admixture of old town-meeting republicanism with absolute autocracy. He never used his authority for the sake of using it, but when the time came when it was absolutely necessary there was no mistaking the propriety of obedience. Mr. Baker gives some testimony as to what the people of Santiago themselves thought of General Wood as a governor. When he left for his first visit to the United States last spring, "all Santiago came down to see him off and cheered him lustily. They presented him with a diploma of regard, a beautiful handwork scroll written in Spanish—'The people of the city of Santiago de Cuba to Gen. Leonard Wood. The greatest of your successes is to have won the confidence and esteem of a people in trouble.'"

HOW GENERAL WOOD LIVED AT SANTIAGO.

Mr. Baker gives the following account of General Wood's home in Santiago and of General Wood himself:

"General Wood's home is at The Guao, the country seat formerly occupied by the British consul, Ramsden. It is a large and airy, though

unpretentious, building with a tall thatched roof. The view from amid the tropical verdure of the grounds in front across the bay of Santiago and to the magnificent blue mountains beyond is one to be long remembered. It was here that Mrs. Wood and her two boys, one seven and one a baby two years of age, spent last winter. Since then General Wood has had with him Maj. J. E. Runcie, his legal adviser and friend, and part of the time Lieutenant Hanna, of his personal staff. He lives very simply, usually riding into town, a distance of a mile, with a single orderly. He is out early in the morning, and often reaches the palace at 8 o'clock, and that after having visited the jail or the market or some one of half a dozen hospitals and homes in which he takes especial interest. His office is in a little bare room at the back of the palace, facing San Tomas Street. Over him two American flags are draped. Two huge paintings of Spanish subjects linger to represent a *régime* that is past, and a portrait of Governor Roosevelt represents the new. It is typical of the rule of the Spaniards that these old paintings, together with all the others in the palace, were once beautifully framed in gilt and gold; but some covetous official, needing the money, disposed of the frames and left the bare canvases to ornament the walls. Swinging shutters lead into General Wood's office, and more than once I saw wan-looking Cuban women pushing through them with their children. Wood surrounds himself with Cubans and trusts them absolutely—perhaps that is why they all trust him. His private secretary, through whom go all his official dispatches and reports, is a Cuban who was once secretary to General Gomez, and many of the clerks in the palace are Cubans. He gives, also, great credit for his successes to his staff, and especially to Lieut. E. C. Brooks and Lieut. M. E. Hanna, who have been with him from the first.

"Personally General Wood gives the impression of being a large man, although he lacks at least an inch of being six feet tall. He is what an athlete would call 'well put up'—powerful of shoulders and arms, with a large head and short neck. He stoops slightly and steps with a long, swift stride, rolling somewhat, seamanlike, in his walk. His face is one of great strength—large-featured, calm, studious, and now lean and bronzed from serving in the tropics. He rarely smiles, and ordinarily has very little to say, and that in a low, even voice; and yet, when in the mood, he tells a story with great spirit and with a certain fine directness. He enjoys keenly a quiet social gathering, but a function in which he must appear as the guest of honor is an undisguised terror to him. He dresses always, whether in khaki or in army blue, with trim neatness, and he makes a strikingly powerful figure in the saddle.

"At thirty-nine General Wood is in the prime of a vigorous manhood and at the beginning of a notable career. If he remains in the army—and his ambitions are all military—he has twenty-five years of active service still before him. His countrymen may rest assured that whatever may be the task to which he is assigned, whether the governorship of a foreign people or the command of a great army, that task will be performed with the fidelity and distinction becoming a tried American soldier."

As has been told in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS and elsewhere, General Wood is now the governor of the entire island.

THE RAILROAD AS AN EDUCATOR OF THE PEOPLE.

IN the February *Harper's* Mr. Theodore Dreiser has a very well-put and discerning account of what the railroads in the West are doing in the way of educating the people along the lines of their systems. Mr. Dreiser tells us that in the West, where the idea originated, the general freight agent of the road is an official of educational importance. He and his hundred assistants are constantly instructing and educating the people in the knowledge that makes for prosperity. He has under him an agricultural agent, with assistants, a poultry agent, a superintendent of dairies, a land inspector, a traveling commercial agent, buyers, salesmen, etc.

EDUCATING THE FARMERS AND MERCHANTS.

"Through this department the railroads are doing a remarkably broad educational work—not only of inspecting the land, but of educating the farmers and merchants and helping them to become wiser and more successful. They give lectures on soil nutrition and vegetable-growing, explain conditions and trade shipments, teach poultry-raising and cattle-feeding, organize creameries for the manufacture of cheese and butter, and explain new business methods to merchants who are slow and ignorant in the matter of conducting their affairs. On two roads there is a poultry department, which buys for cash of all farmers along the route, running poultry-cars, which are scheduled for certain stations on certain days, with cash buyers in charge. On three other roads there are traveling agents who go over the line three times a year, stop at every station, and visit every merchant in the town and every farmer of merchant proclivities in the country. These men make plain the attitude of the railroad toward the citizen, inquire after the state of his

business, ask him what his difficulties are, and what, if anything, can be done to stregthen and improve his situation. Lastly, there is a department of sales agents under the general freight agent, which, by individuals, represents the road in the great cities. These latter study the markets, look after incoming shipments, and work for the interests of the merchants and farmers along the line of the road by finding a market for their product. The reward for the road for all this is nothing more than an increased freight and passenger traffic which flows from and to a successful community.

THE SPREAD OF THE IDEA.

"It has been seven years since the first of the roads to adopt the new policy began to reach out and study the social condition of its public, but since then the idea has spread rapidly, until today there is scarcely a road west of Chicago and St. Louis that is not doing more or less educational work among its public. The original movement was dictated by the fact that along great stretches of the line of one road were vacant tracts of land which were excellent for farming purposes, but which were somehow generally ignored. The road decided to make this region profitable to itself by calling attention to its merits and inducing farmers and merchants to settle there. The aid of the United States Department of Agriculture was called in. The ground was tested and its specific qualities advertised. After that educational pamphlets were prepared and agents of the road sent into various populous sections of the country to induce individuals to come and take up residence there. At the same time it was decided that it would be of little use to induce settlement and then leave the settlers to get along as best they could, so a policy of instruction and assistance was inaugurated. The road undertook to organize enterprises which should utilize the natural resources and production of the country and put ready money into the hands of the farmers. As a result, it found that it would need to discover markets for the goods manufactured, or it would lose much of the advantage of its labor, and thus came about the present policy, which is nothing if not broad. Its success has stimulated imitation to such an extent that nearly all roads have some one of the many features of the first road in operation, and several have all of them."

Mr. Dreiser explains how this educational work goes on and gives some remarkable figures as a result of it. For instance, the general freight agent will have an opinion that the land about Denison, Texas, is good for tomato-raising and that there is a good market for tomatoes. He calls his horticultural agent and discusses with him how they can induce the farmers down there to go into the tomato business, and teach them how to profitably produce that vegetable.

"The horticultural agent immediately takes the reports concerning the land about Denison and sends an agent into the country. Meetings of the farmers are called and the nature of the land and the profit of tomato-growing explained.

"'Now,' says the horticultural agent, 'you gentlemen are raising wheat on your land and getting, say, 60 cents a bushel if the market is fair. If not you get less or hold your wheat and wait for your money. Now, this land about here has been tested, not only by the State, but by the United States Agricultural Department, and it is found that it is much better adapted to the growing of tomatoes. It will do a great deal better planted in tomatoes than it will in wheat. Besides, our agents in other places inform us that tomatoes, such as you can raise here early in the season, will command $1 a crate. Allowing for the freightage and the cost of the packing-cases, which we will secure for you at the lowest possible rates, you still have 40 cents on the crate. An acre of this ground will yield, say, 120 crates at 40 cents. Figure for yourselves, gentlemen. Only remember the railroad guarantees you your market. You are not, as in the case of wheat, competing with a million other growers in your own country. You have something out of which you should make 15 per cent. more on the acre easily.'

"The result of such lectures and conferences is that with the aid and advice of the agent the whole region is turned to tomato-growing. The general freight department keeps track of the progress of the crop. Through its representatives in the large and medium-sized cities it finds out where a number of car-loads of tomatoes will command a high market rate. The local agent confers with the wholesale produce merchants and contracts with them to deliver so many crates at a given time. The result is that the crop of the section is readily marketed and the region about Denison improved. The farmers, having slightly more ready money, indulge in farm or personal improvements, with the result that the whole district about Denison is enlivened and trade increased. The railroad profits in every way, not only by the new supplies that are shipped in to meet an aroused demand, but by the travel of the man who has a few cents more to expend on car-fare in looking after his interests or visiting his friends.

"The above is no hypothetical case, but an actual recorded occurrence. The region affected

was that which lies sixty miles east and west of Trinity, Texas."

Mr. Dreiser also explains the methods by which the railroads help through their local agents to find a market for the farmer's goods and the best market, making in fact for him, through their telephone communications, direct bargains for specific goods.

THE NEW TRADE ALLIANCE IN ENGLAND.

IN the January *Forum* Mr. E. J. Smith, the founder of the new alliance between workingmen and employers which is attracting so much attention in England, outlines the principles of that movement.

Speaking of his own qualifications and experience Mr. Smith says :

"I have been an apprentice, a journeyman mechanic, a foreman, traveler, manager, employer, and a director of companies. Unless my experience has been entirely wasted, I have looked at the question from all points of view. The scheme was introduced by myself in my own trade. As a manufacturer I wished to make money, but could not under the circumstances then existing. As an employer of labor, having been a laborer myself, I wished to benefit all connected with my work."

Mr. Smith was a manufacturer of metallic bedsteads. Keen competition had killed profits in this trade. The workmen had a union which was far more efficient than their employers' association. As a representative employer Mr. Smith undertook to devise a scheme which should guarantee reasonable profits. The result was the organization of the trade alliance, which aims to secure fair profits, to pay fair wages, and to give to buyers all they can justly claim. Its two cardinal principles are (1) selling from the well-ascertained cost of production and (2) coöperating with the work people in securing a fair profit.

MUTUAL CONFIDENCE.

The premises of Mr. Smith's argument would be regarded by many as socialism. He declares that the manufacturers have no more right to determine the wages of their work people than the work people have to determine their employers' profits. He contends for the right of each side to conclude for itself so long as no mutual confidence exists. But he says :

"The system I plead for establishes this mutual confidence. It does not bring about a uniform wage, for this is a curse to workmen. In fact, my system does not interfere with wages, except in cases where personal consultation has failed, and by such adjustments as may come from friendly interchange of opinions on the wages and conciliation board. It does not aim at the destruction of trades unions. It simply uses their power for proper purposes. It not only admits the right of workmen to combine ; it sanctions the principle by imitation. It carries trades unionism into the ranks of employers ; then it unites the two unions for the good of each. Taking it for granted that each side in the past has done the best for itself, it takes wages as they are and profits, or the want of them, just as they are found. It then fixes the profits at a fair level and adds to wages, as a separate item, a bonus or bonuses upon wages ; each bonus being a percentage of such additional profit on a scale which in England is accepted as a fair proportion. An alliance is formed between the two unions or associations, and the two interests are made so far identical that each must be affected by the other. A wages and conciliation board is formed of an equal number on each side. Its decisions, or the decisions of its arbitrator, must be accepted loyally, or the alliance, with all that belongs to it, is at an end.

"No board has yet been broken up, and no alliance has been dissolved in any case where it has been properly formed and has represented fairly both employers and employed. No arbitrator has yet been called in ; and every settlement—there have been hundreds—has been accepted amicably by all concerned. Two trades have been compelled to lay the alliance aside for the present, because they were too eager and had not completed the alliance with their work people. An alliance can be formed at any time ; but no advantage can be taken of it until it has done its work by bringing the large majority of employers and work people into the compact."

CONDITIONS OF THE ALLIANCE.

The terms of this alliance are that, in return for the advantages given, neither side will countenance any maker or workman who is not included in the agreement.

"No workman will assist a manufacturer to sell below the regulation prices, and no manufacturer will employ a workman who is not a member of his union and loyal to the terms of alliance. It is not at first considered necessary that each manufacturer shall become a member of his association. Time is often given for thought and observation ; but he must at least enter into an agreement as to his selling prices, and when charged with underselling he must consent to be investigated. This generally ends in his becoming a full member of the association.

"There are several conditions attaching to the alliance which must be mentioned :

"1. The work people have a guarantee that existing wages shall never be reduced so long as the alliance lasts.

"2. Wages for new articles introduced after its formation may be settled on each works, but either side can call upon the board to fix them.

"3. The first bonus is also a fixture, as selling prices will not be reduced below the first level.

"4. Any further bonus can only be paid on any increased actual profit. Any change in selling prices caused by advance in the prices of material, and not carried beyond, is exempt from further bonus.

"5. All bonuses after the first are subject to a sliding scale whenever real profits are increased or decreased.

"6. No strike or lockout is permitted unless in defense of the alliance. Then it is supported by both sides and the expenses are divided.

"7. In the event of any dispute to be referred to the board, workmen must accept employers' conditions and prices under protest. They cannot leave their employment or be discharged on account of the dispute, but the settlement must be retroactive, so that no injustice may be done.

"8. Each employer retains full control over his own works upon all matters but those pertaining to wages and bonus and conditions of labor. Workmen can be discharged for any other reason, and are themselves free to change their employment whenever they wish to do so.

"9. The workmen's union must supply a sufficient number of good work people, and the board decides as to the necessity or otherwise of bringing new men into the trade.

"10. No restriction is placed upon any one wishing to come into the trade so long as he agrees to sell on the lines laid down by the association and to comply with the rules that govern competitors."

It appears from Mr. Smith's account that the alliance movement has been on the whole successful. At present it controls about $250,000,000 of capital and numbers among its adherents 500 employers and 30,000 work people, chiefly in the furniture trades.

HOW THE CONSUMER IS BENEFITED.

Mr. Smith puts the advantages to the consumer from the alliance as follows:

"1. The consumer has never yet had the protection of a selling price based on the cost of production ascertained by the wisdom and experience of a whole trade. Under this system he is sure to get it.

"2. Under a trust or monopoly of any kind capital alone decides what he shall pay. Under this system the poorest class of consumer, the workman, has a voice in determining the price at which articles shall be sold to himself—and others.

"3. Should unjust selling prices drive away trade, the bonus on wages paid to work people will not compensate them for loss of time caused by slackness of trade. They will therefore not consent to unjust selling prices, although these may bring them larger bonuses. Their consent is necessary under the terms of alliance.

"4. Under this system no restriction is placed upon any one wishing to enter a trade, excepting that of not selling goods without the right proportion of profit on the cost of production. The result is that the consumer has no impediment in the way of making the goods for himself should he care to do so."

THE "DARKEST ENGLAND" SCHEME.

IN the *Sunday Strand* General Booth writes a very copiously illustrated article under the title, "What Has Come of the Darkest England Scheme?" The general is on the whole fairly well satisfied with the result. The public has subscribed altogether for his scheme about $1,300,000.

He insists very strongly upon the fact that he has used this money not in charitable relief, but as a means of securing a return of labor or of proportional payment from the people benefited. He has by this means been able to do as much with £260,000 as he could have done with £2,000,000 if there had been no return demanded. Money expended upon charitable objects ought in the main to tend to reproductive effort. And yet one of the difficulties in raising funds has arisen through that very ability of obtaining self-support. Not merely is he pleased with the actual results which he has accomplished, but he is inclined to think that the indirect results are even greater:

"It is a debated point with the intelligent admirers of the scheme and the careful observers of its progress whether the benefits bestowed on the wretched classes for whom it was originated have been greater within than without our borders. The copyists of our plan have been legion, both at home and abroad, in church and state. The representatives of the different governments specially charged with the responsibility for the outcast classes have been gradually coming to appreciate the principles and methods involved in the scheme, and to show willingness to coöperate in giving it a chance. They have done this in two ways: (1) In attempting similar tasks themselves; (2) in using

and subsidizing the army for doing the work for them. Many governments make grants to our various institutions in varying amounts toward the cost of dealing with different classes of the submerged."

AGENCIES AT WORK.

A good deal of the article is devoted to an account of specific cases of individuals who have been rescued and given a fresh start in life by the operation of the "social scheme." The following is a summary of the agencies which have been set a-going by the general:

"We have now 158 shelters and food depots for homeless men and women, 121 slum posts, each with its own slum sisters, 37 labor bureaus, 60 labor factories for the unemployed, 11 land colonies, 91 rescue homes for women, 11 labor homes for ex-criminals, several nursing institutions, 2 maternity hospitals for deserted women, an institution with branches in forty-five countries and colonies for finding lost and missing persons, together with a host of allied and minor agencies which I am not able here to enumerate.

"The total number of institutions named above is now 545, under the care of more than 2,000 trained officers and others wholly employed, all working in harmony with the principles I have laid down for helping the poorest and most unfortunate of their fellows, and all more or less experts at their work.

"Nearly 20,000 destitute men and women are in some way or other touched by the operations of the scheme every day.

"No less than 15,000 wretched and otherwise homeless people are housed under our roofs every night, having their needs met, at least in part, with sympathy and prayer and the opportunity for friendly counsel.

"More than 300 ex-criminals are to-day in our houses of reformation, having before them another chance for this life, and in many cases the first they have ever had for preparing for the life to come.

"More than 5,000 women taken from lives of darkness and shame are safely sheltered in our homes each year, on the way—as we have abundantly proved in the case of others, in respect of a large proportion of them—to a future of virtue, goodness, and religion.

"Over 1,000 men are employed on the land colonies. Many of them are working out their own deliverance, and at the same time helping to solve one of the most difficult problems of modern times, and proving that many of the helpless loafers of the great cities can be made useful producers on the soil.

"Over the gates of every one of these homes, elevators, labor factories, and colonies there might be written: 'No man or woman need starve, or beg, or pauperize, or steal, or commit suicide. If willing to work, apply within. Here there is hope for all.'"

He adds that he has always 2,000 women in the rescue homes of the army. On the whole it is a bright and cheerful picture which he draws as to the result of the enterprise.

CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN THE CENTURY'S CLOSING YEAR.

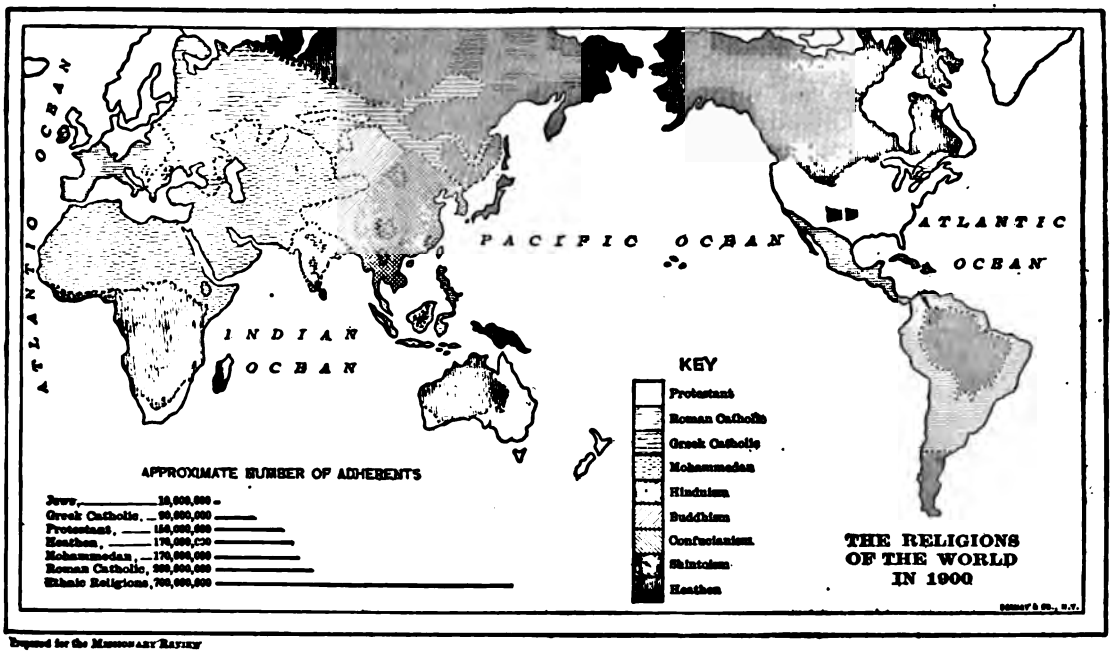
IN the *Missionary Review of the World* for January the Rev. Harlan P. Beach contributes an instructive article on "Protestant Foreign Missions in 1800 and in 1900."

Mr. Beach says that statistics of non-Christian populations in 1800 are only the wildest guesses. Missionary returns, he thinks, are more trustworthy. In 1800 there were 7 Protestant missionary societies in full operation, employing, according to Professor Christlieb, 170 male missionaries, with an estimated following of about 50,000 converted heathen. This last number does not include the so-called "government Christians," who in Ceylon alone numbered 342,000 in 1801, six years after the Dutch had left the island. Professor Christlieb also states that there were at that time "only about 50 translations of the Scriptures, distributed in about 5,000,000 copies."

In marked contrast with the facts presented by Professor Christlieb is the general mission situation at the beginning of 1900, as disclosed in the following facts set forth by Mr. Beach:

"The annual issues of the late Dean Vahl's *Missions Among the Heathen* have contained on an average statistics of about 360 missionary societies, while a fuller list combined from his periodical and Dr. Dennis' manuscript would increase the number working in heathen and other missionary lands to over 500. Many of these are, however, auxiliary or societies in aid, and some of them are laboring in Protestant countries, as the United States, Germany, etc. The leading societies of Christendom doing strictly foreign mission work reported last year the following facts: Total missionary force, 14,210; total native force, 54,420—making the combined forces in the field 79,591; stations and out-stations, 25,070; communicants, 1,255,052; adherents, 3,372,991; schools, 20,228, with 944,430 scholars; income during the year, $14,513,972."

The latest statistics of the world's religions are roughly given in the map on the opposite page.



Prepared for the MISSIONARY REVIEW

"THE CONSENT OF THE GOVERNED."

A WRITER in *Education* for January asks several pertinent questions relative to the application of the phrase "consent of the governed" in American history. It is now charged by the "anti-imperialists" that the present administration at Washington is subverting our form of government in so far as it attempts to administer the Philippines without first obtaining the consent of the inhabitants. This leads the writer in *Education* to ask what was the actual meaning of the fathers when they laid down this famous dictum in the Declaration of Independence.

"In the year 1776 there were probably not exceeding 3,000,000 people inhabiting the thirteen British colonies, now the seaboard Atlantic States. Of these nearly 500,000 were negro slaves; 1,500,000 were of the female sex. Nearly one-third were minors, from the cradle to twenty-one; and several hundred thousand Indians inhabited the Western wilds, afterward brought under the new Government of the United States. How many of these people were referred to in this formula that 'government derives its authority from the consent of the governed'? Were the negro slaves canvassed and their consent obtained to their condition of slavery? Were the Indians, who afterward by relentless war were swept in a body from the Atlantic slope to the unsettled wilderness beyond the Mississippi? Has there been, until to-day, any real opportunity given the 1,500,000, at present 35,000,000, of the female sex to ascertain their opinion concerning the laws under which they live? Has Young America from the age of fifteen to twenty-one, beyond question more intelligent in all matters pertaining to government than half the people now living in the world, including the vast majority of the Oriental peoples, been thus canvassed and its consent obtained? There can be no doubt that at the time of the Declaration of Independence a large body—perhaps a fourth, a third, possibly a half—of the men in these colonies were opposed to the revolt against the mother country. Was their 'consent' obtained, either during the war or at the formation of the national Government? What proportion of the mature white men in these colonies, at the time they one by one accepted the Constitution of the United States, were legal voters, and in how many of these new States was there a property or other discriminating qualification for suffrage? The reply to questions like these brings us down to the hard fact that Washington, Jefferson, Adams, Madison, and Monroe, all 'fathers' and participants in the great Declaration, were elected to the Presidency by what would to-day be regarded an insignificant minority of the white men of mature age.

MINORITY RULE.

"Our Government originally made no pretense of obtaining the legal consent of any save

a majority of the legal white voters, and that majority to-day is expanded to a plurality. Indeed, no attempt was ever made at national life to carry into practical application this formula of the Declaration, either in regard to races of people adjudged incompetent for self-government or classes like women or minors. The body of people, always the minority, which has decided the vital question of incompetency in our country, like every other, has always been a working majority of the more intelligent, forceful, and generally competent men of the ruling race. The only attempt at a republic founded practically on the consent of the masses was seen during a few months in the French Revolution, when an infuriated populace attempted to secure unanimity and 'consent' by destroying all opponents to 'liberty, equality, and fraternity;' the result being a reaction to the military despotism of Napoleon I.

"There is doubtless a sense in which this Jeffersonian formula has a profound meaning; that it is the moral obligation of every nation to educate the lower orders of mankind in the direction of self-government, and extend full citizenship as fast and as far as the safety of society will permit. In our own country, at home, that limit even as far as the male sex is concerned would seem to be already reached, both in regard to great multitudes of European immigrants in the North and of the freedmen of the South. The proposition that the holding of a colony of people in the condition of millions of the Oriental races, with the ultimate object of their uplift through all the opportunities of modern Christian civilization, is a departure from the American republican order of society and government or from the American ideal in any way it can be applied in the present condition of mankind, so marked and violent as to threaten a radical change in the national life, when analyzed is so absolutely visionary that it can be only accounted for by the loose habit of thought and indifference to the facts of human nature and life which are in themselves to-day the greatest peril of the republic."

WAS THE CONFEDERATE SOLDIER A REBEL?

IN the December and January numbers of the *Green Bag* Col. Bushrod C. Washington, of West Virginia, a soldier of the Confederacy, undertakes to prove, from the constitutional point of view, that the Confederate soldier in 1861–65 was not in rebellion. In concluding his argument, which is the familiar one made by Southern jurists to justify secession, Colonel Washington says:

"That Mr. Lincoln was a patriot even those who once held him an enemy must admit. He was elected President of the United States, and coming into office found the Union crumbling to pieces under his feet. There was no time, in his opinion, for constitutional niceties. He *felt* what Andrew Jackson had once uttered: 'The Union must and shall be preserved.' He would save the physical structure and the Constitution would have to take care of itself. If the Constitution did not contain sufficient authority to preserve the Union, it ought to contain it, and he would assume it did. His authority for coercion was not in the Constitution. Believing the life of the Union at stake, he deemed his authority sufficient in that paramount law—the law of self-preservation.

"The same law of self-preservation had impelled the Southern States to exercise the extremest of their reserved and sovereign rights and withdraw from the Union. Secession and coercion were both extreme and extra-constitutional measures.

"Upon the call for seventy-five thousand troops to march against the seceded States, the remaining slave States, which had hesitated with the hope to intervene for peace, quickly seceded and cast in their lot with the Southern Confederacy.

CLAIMS OF THE STATE VERSUS THOSE OF THE NATION.

"The citizen of the Southern States did not hesitate a moment as to where his allegiance belonged. He did not consult Vattel, Burlamaqui, De Tocqueville, nor any authority upon political science. The instincts of nature in such an emergency were a sufficient guide. His allegiance to his State was determined by the same intuition by which a man will defend with his life the mother who bore him or perish to protect the honor of his family.

"Compared with his State the Union was but a conventional government, possessed of nothing, either of territory or power, which had not come to it from the States.

"The Constitution having been voted a dead letter, there was nothing left to him of republican liberty but that to be found within his commonwealth. The federal Government as compared with his State was distant and shadowy. He was hardly conscious of it except in Presidential years, on the Fourth of July, or when paying postage and internal revenue.

"But the lines of his life were in constant contact with his State. In it he lived, moved, and had his civil and political being. Its authority and protection were over and around him from the cradle to the grave. It contained his home and family altar.

"Had he taken arms against his State, he would indeed have been a most unnatural parricide and *rebel*.

"But it was not written that the American Union—the brightest star—should fall from the galaxy of nations.

"With slavery and fanaticism cast out, the Union lives on under the hand of God to fulfill his great appointment.

LOYALTY WITHOUT REPENTANCE.

"It does not stand, however, upon the uneven pillars of loyalist and repentant rebels. The Confederate soldier is loyal, but not repentant. Both history and his conscience acquit him of having sinned against the Constitution. He was therefore no rebel. Should he smite upon his breast and cry *peccavi*, he would be a canting hypocrite or a driveling imbecile.

"While loyal to his country, he retains his self-respect. He will meet in reunion surviving comrades and strew flowers upon the graves of his dead. He will build homes for his aged and disabled and rear monuments to his statesmen and heroes. He will preserve the traditions of the South-land. He will turn from these tender engagements at the call of his country and pour out his life's blood in its defense, and even in its questionable aggressions.

"Taking the Northern brother by the hand, he can say: 'Did you fight to save the territorial integrity—the body of this Union—I fought for the life, the spirit of the Constitution. We will maintain them both forever, and together will revive the spirit of those times when South Carolina rushed to the aid of Boston, when Virginia resented the wrongs of Rhode Island, and in sympathy with the sister commonwealth of Massachusetts called her people to humiliation, fasting, and prayer.'"

THE "RIGHT OF REPLY" IN FRANCE.

THE French law of 1822 which gave to everybody named or designated in a newspaper or other periodical the right of inserting in the next number of the same publication a reply to statements has not since been materially modified. It would seem, then, that the law as originally enacted met in France "a felt want" with unusual fitness and sufficiency. But M. Pierre Dareste, in the December issue of the *Revue Politique et Parlementaire*, shows that a fair adjustment of the matter is not so simple as one would fancy at first thought.

Suppose that somebody is mentioned or designated not injuriously, but in a complimentary manner: must he be given space to develop his own panegyric in his own way? Suppose the reply controvenes public order or good morals, or that it mentions the names of third persons or affects their interests injuriously: what then? Such questions came up in the discussions of 1822, but the law has remained silent in regard to them even when made more explicit by subsequent legislation. Later enactments have reproduced the text of 1822 without adding anything to it except a prescription of details as to the limit of the gratuity, the manner of inserting the reply, the place it must occupy, and the characters in which it must be printed. But M. Dareste informs us that the courts in their decisions have introduced four exceptions not in the text of the law itself—viz.: when the reply is contrary to public order, good morals, the honor of the journalist, or the interests of third persons. Probably the courts were of the opinion that it was not the intention of the legislators of 1822 to compel a publisher to violate law by printing such a reply as is indicated in any of the four exceptions. And this view is in harmony with the action of the Court of Cassation, which has refused to establish any distinctions as regards the original article that calls out the reply. Whether it was malicious or not, injurious or complimentary, the right of reply is absolute.

M. Dareste is of the opinion that the right of reply ought to be restricted, even to the extent of effacing it in some cases. In setting forth his views he brings together a very interesting *résumé* of the efforts of the other continental nations to improve on the French law; for it has turned out that (excepting England) the invention of the French legislator of 1822, as M. Dareste says, has made the tour of Europe.

A NEW VOTING MACHINE.

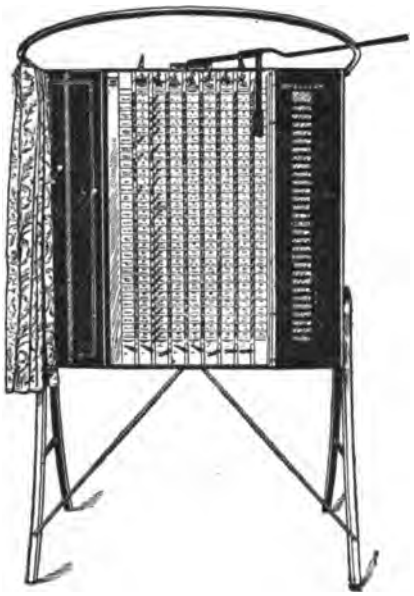
AN article in *City Government* for December describes the voting machine used last November in the cities of Buffalo, Rochester, Utica, and Ithaca, N. Y. The first trial of this machine on a large scale had been made in Rochester in 1898, when the complete returns of the city's 73 election districts and 30,000 votes had been collected at a central office in 39 minutes. In the city and county election in Buffalo on November 7, 1899, the returns from 108 election districts, including 60,000 votes, were officially known within an hour and a half after the closing of the polls.

The most important claim made for the machine is that it gives no opportunity for a dishonest count or for the throwing out of any ballots as defective or improperly marked.

"No man's vote can be recorded twice; no

man's vote can be rejected once he has been allowed to cast it. The principle of the device is simple, and every possible safeguard that can be devised to render it absolutely accurate has been applied to it. There are no defective ballots."

The illustration gives a correct representation of the voting machine as it looks when the voter steps in front of it to cast his ballot, except that the long lever at the top of the machine projects to the left instead of to the right before voting.



THE NEW VOTING MACHINE.

On the face of the machine are seen the columns of party nominations. Opposite each name is a little pointer, and at the top of each party column is a brass lever with a knob on the end of it.

"The process of voting on the voting machine is as simple as the machine itself. In the case of the voter who desires to vote a straight party ticket it is an operation that can be performed in five seconds or less. In Buffalo, in one election district, 90 votes were cast on one machine in the first half hour after the polls were opened—an average of less than one-third of a minute to each voter. In many districts there were more than 750 voters registered, and only 660 minutes were allowed for keeping the polls open, yet the full registered vote was polled and not a single voter disfranchised by reason of delay in the operation of the machine.

"To the overhead lever there is attached, as it projects to the left, a curtain, also shown in the cut. The voter steps in front of the machine and grasps the downward projecting handle attached to this lever. He swings the lever to the right, an operation that requires the exercise of practically no physical force, and this draws the curtain around so that only the voter's legs are visible.

HOW THE VOTING IS DONE.

"The voter is now screened from public view and can proceed to cast his ballot in absolute secrecy. He can vote in any way that it would be possible for him to vote with a paper ballot, but in much less time and with no danger of having his ballot thrown out on the final count. He can vote the straight ticket of any party, he can split his vote in any way he desires, he can (if the law allows it) vote for candidates not nominated by any party, and he can, in the case of two or more similar offices to be filled, vote for a man from each party to fill them.

"The effect of pulling down the party lever is to move each pointer in the party column so that it points to the name of the candidate opposite it. The vote has not yet been recorded, however, and the voter is at liberty to change it in any way he pleases, either by pushing back all of the pointers with his hand, in which case he can, if he desires, pull another party knob and vote the entire ticket of a different party from that for which he originally intended to vote. Or the voter may split his vote by pushing back the pointer opposite the name of the party candidate for whom he does not want to vote and turning down with his fingers the pointer opposite the name of the candidate of another party for the same office.

"If two candidates are to be elected for the same office, the machine is arranged by the election officers so that the voter may vote for men of opposite parties on the same line, but cannot vote for more candidates than the law allows. The machine is set so that the voter can vote for any two school commissioners for the term of four years and for any three school commissioners for the term of two years, if he desires to select one candidate from each party, even if it is in the same office line. But not more than the required number can be voted for.

"After having arranged the pointers on the face of the machine to suit him, the voter again grasps the overhead lever and swings it to the left. This throws back the curtain and registers the vote for each official for whom the voter has voted. At the same time the counter on which the total vote is registered advances one number. The machine is now ready for the next voter.

"The verdict of every one who saw its work in Buffalo at the last election, even of those who were originally opposed to the introduction of the machines, was that it had solved the question of the purity of the ballot in a most effective way."

THE USE OF MACHINERY IN THE CENSUS OF 1900.

IN the *North American Review* for January Director of the Census Merriam gives an interesting preliminary view of the various activities in connection with the taking and recording of the twelfth census.

Following is Mr. Merriam's description of the method of card tabulation that has been adopted:

"It is proposed to employ about 1,000 clerks in transferring *data* from enumerators' sheets to cards about three by six inches in size. This is done by first preparing a card for each person enumerated, showing all the characteristics of such person. The cards used for this purpose are printed with letters and symbols so arranged that by punching holes in the proper spaces we get the following information regarding each individual—race, sex, color, age, conjugal condition, birthplace of person, of father, mother, years in the United States, occupation, school attendance, etc. These cards, though only seven-thousandths of an inch in thickness, would form a stack, if piled one on another, about nine miles high, and they will weigh about two hundred tons.

"This transcript from the original returns of the enumerator to the punched card will be done with small machines, something like typewriters, called keyboard punchers. About 1,000 of these will be used, and the entire work of transcribing the 75,000,000 or more individual records will be done in about one hundred working days, or nearly four months.

COUNTING BY ELECTRICITY.

"These punched record cards are then counted, or tabulated, in the electrical tabulating machines. These machines are provided with a circuit-closing device, into which the cards are rapidly fed one by one. The holes in the card control the electric circuits through a number of counters, which will, as desired, count the simple facts as to the number of males, females, etc., or the most complicated combination which the statistician may ask for. After the cards for a given district are thus passed through the tabulating machine, we know the number of native-born white males of voting age, the number of white children under five years of age born in this country with both parents native-born, or the number of such children with one or both parents foreign-born, or any other information contained in the enumerators' sheet which the statistician desires tabulated. In short, it is only necessary for the statistician to decide upon the information wanted, and for the electrician to make the proper connection from the counters and relays to the circuit-controlling device into which the cards are fed. The methods employed for checking the proper workings of the machines are ingenious and interesting. If the card is not completely punched, or not properly fed to the machine, or is placed upside down, or if some item has been overlooked, or, in fact, if everything is not all right, the machine refuses to work, and the card is rejected."

It is believed that this machine will make no mistakes "because it is tired, or does not feel well, or because the weather is warm, or by reason of the thousand-and-one causes which will upset the human machine."

Many of these "human machines" will be employed on the census work, nevertheless. To tabulate the results derived from the punching machines will require at least 800 clerks and messengers, and there will be, in addition, about 500 clerks employed by the various statisticians and by the Appointment and Disbursing Division.

THE AUTOMOBILE IN TRACTION.

IN the *Automobile Magazine* for January Prof. Robert H. Thurston, of Cornell University, has an interesting account of the development of the self-moving vehicle as applied to traction on the common road.

Readers may be surprised by Professor Thurston's statement that the "steam carriage" of the early 30s won a "complete and triumphant" success, from the point of view of the engineer and constructor, when the state of mechanic arts at the time is considered. Commercial and financial success was prevented by adverse legislation in the interest of the stage-coach proprietors and the rise of the railroad.

The conditions of complete success in automobile traction, as stated by Professor Thurston, are simplicity and power in the machinery, safety and economy in operation, and good and unobstructed roads. These conditions, he says, were fully met in the work of those early English constructors. Steam in "water-tube" or "safety" boilers, at pressures of 200 and 300 pounds on the square inch, was employed with entire success in all respects.

"Steam engines were made so light and so strong that no difficulty arose in their employment in motor carriages. The combination of the boiler and engine with the carriage was an admirable illustration of ideal engineering for the time.

MOTOR CARRIAGES SEVENTY YEARS AGO.

"These carriages were in operation for months at a time, and ran over roads of, often, very con-

siderable inclination, and through the most crowded London streets, conveying crowds of people, and without danger to the passengers or to drivers of horses met on the way. They attained speeds of twenty and twenty-five miles an hour, and made long journeys to various distant towns and cities. They carried thousands of passengers and traveled with them thousands of miles. In 1833 about twenty of these automobiles were regularly traversing the streets of London and its suburbs. The hostile legislation which interrupted the wonderful development, at the time, of this promising application of invention and the mechanic arts to transportation on the highway has only recently been repealed to such extent as to permit the beginning of a revival to be made. Even now some discrimination against automobiles still exists in the legislation of Great Britain. On the continent less difficulty has arisen on this score, and there has consequently been, especially in France, a more rapid and extensive introduction of the later inventions in this line than elsewhere.

"The experimental work of the first half of the century, however, established these facts, if we may accept the report of a parliamentary commission of that time and the testimony given before it by Farey and other great mechanics and engineers of that period: These automobiles were speedy, safe, and commodious; they were light of weight and powerful as to motor; they could traverse any roads on which horses could work; they were a less costly conveyance than vehicles drawn by horses at the same speeds; they improved rather than injured the roads; and they did not, in any serious degree, frighten horses or impede common traffic."



THORNEYCROFT'S STEAM WAGON.

THE AUTOMOBILE OF TO-DAY.

The "road locomotive," chiefly employed in farming operations, was built both in England and in the United States and gradually came to assume some importance. It is now employed for heavy highway transportation in South Africa.

"To day the automobile for traction is constructed in a great variety of forms and for a variety of special purposes, and steam, air, vapor, and electric drives are employed; the latter finding extensive use in the cities, where current is easily obtained for charging its batteries; the first-named motor fluid is used for the heavier work, and petroleum vapors serve well in long-distance work of a lighter character. All are in a tentative stage in the sense that no one can say yet which, if either, will ultimately prove the most generally useful; but it would now seem extremely probable that all will continue, for a long time to come, to find employment in one or another of the many branches of automobile work looming up before the mechanical engineer. At present it can only be said that for heavy work, such as is the subject of our discussion, and especially for long-distance transportation, steam seems likely to retain that preëminence which it has acquired during the two-thirds of a century in which it has been growing up to its task and evolving satisfactory forms and proportions of mechanism. The electric motor and traction engine is proving itself capable of doing good work wherever current can be found with certainty, of the right kind and in ample quantity whenever demanded, and the later vapor engines are coming into use for intermediate conditions where current is not to be obtained as wanted and where rapid motion over long routes is desired. Steam road locomotives are in use in thousands and have been numerous, wherever extensive operations have been carried on, for many years. Petroleum vapor machines are now built in hundreds, and the electro-mobile traction engine is coming to be a familiar machine in cities, at steam railroad tunnels, and in mining. The compressed-air automobile finds a place where air is stored for use in accessible locations and ample volume."

"A line of automobiles is reported to have just been planned for Porto Rico, between Ponce

and San Juan, carrying both freight and passengers. A system of automobile traction on the Erie and other canals is another of the signs of progress; while the shipment of scores of motor trucks to England and to France by our own manufacturers indicates that the United States will soon lead in this department of mechanical engineering, as it already does in that of electric railroads and their machinery, contracts for which are now coming to our builders in million-dollar bargains.

THE ARGUMENT OF ECONOMY.

"The economy of the automobile system comes out in high relief when the working of the heavy classes of machines for business purposes is studied. The costs of maintenance and of repairs and the estimates for depreciation are large as percentages of the original costs of purchase; but in comparison with horse-power, the only comparison of interest in this connection, it is found that the fuel account of the machine and that of the animal differ so enormously in favor of the former as to decide any question of profit quite apart from the consideration of the rapid deterioration of the horse in heavy work. The fact that street-car horses have but two to four years of profitable employment and meantime depreciate 50 per cent. and more in value obviously gives sufficient evidence that the machine may not be relatively, even if absolutely, short-lived; while the continued working of locomotives on the railroad for a generation, with slight diminution of efficiency, may be taken as proof that good care in management and maintenance may insure long life and a comparatively small percentage of total depreciation for the automobile.

"The judges of the Liverpool trial of the heavy automobiles exhibited by the Self-Propelled Traffic Association of last year report some instructive deductions from their experiences. Maintenance is estimated by them at 20 per cent. and 30 per cent., according to character of automobile and its work, and depreciation at 15 per cent. on the prime cost, or a total of not less than 35 per cent. per annum. This assumption that one must be prepared to replace the capital invested, practically, every three years, seems somewhat intimidating; yet it is found to be the fact that, even so, the gain by the introduction of the heavy automobile for the performance of work formerly entirely carried on with draught horses is a very considerable net return on the investment; it being understood that the automobile is given ten hours' work a day—it may be worked twenty-four hours a day—and on good paved roads."

"SKI-JUMPING."

AN entertaining paper on "Snow Games" is contributed by D. T. Timins to *Cassell's* for January. Of one winter sport less known than the rest the sketch given may be cited here:

"Norway, in common with Sweden and Finland, patronizes another method of transit over the ice which can scarcely be termed a 'sport,' inasmuch as it is in reality a necessity of every-day life during the winter in the three countries named. We refer to the 'ski,' a species of elongated fen-runner, without the use of which it would be well-nigh impossible to get about when the snow is on the ground. The ordinary 'ski' is a piece of wood which has been split with the grain and not sawn, to give it greater strength, eight to nine feet long, four and a half inches wide, and one inch deep at the thickest part—*i.e.*, under the foot. Usually both 'ski' are of the same length and pointed upward, but in Finland and in some of the Norwegian valleys one is much longer than the other. The 'runner' wears special boots called 'lanpar-ski,' his equipment being completed by a six-foot pole, which he carries for use as a drag.

"But out of the employment of the 'ski' as a means of locomotion has developed one of the most exciting sports in which it is possible to indulge—viz., 'ski-jumping.'

ANNUAL COMPETITION.

"A competition in ski-jumping and also in ski-running is held annually at Christiania on the first Sunday in February and lasts two days. The meeting has been christened the 'Norwegian Derby,' a title which it well deserves, for the competitors frequently number over 100 and come from every part of the country. On the first day prizes are given for the fastest times in which a course, twelve English miles in length and teeming with ascents, descents, clefts, ravines, and hillocks, is covered. It has been done in one and three-quarter hours—a very fine performance when the nature of the obstacles is taken into consideration.

"But by far the most interesting sport is witnessed on the second day, which is given up to the jumping competition. This takes place on the side of a very steep hill, half way up which a wooden platform has been erected. The competitor starts from the top of the hill and, quickly getting up a terrific pace, arrives at the edge of the platform, whence he leaps to the slope below—a distance usually of 80 or 90 feet. The man who accomplishes the longest jump wins, but in order that his jump shall count he must maintain his equilibrium on alighting.

"At Hohentollen, where the competition is held, the great distance of 120 feet was actually cleared upon one occasion, but as the man fell, 103½ feet remains the accepted record for a clean jump."

THE THEATRICAL SYNDICATE.

IN the first number (January) of the new *International Monthly* Mr. Norman Hapgood describes the formation and history of the American theatrical managers' trust, so called, not omitting the pathetic story of the unsuccessful attempt of some of the leading actors to form a combination of "stars" to fight the managers.

By way of preface Mr. Hapgood says:

"The tale will not contain as much evil as might be expected by enemies or as much good as is thought by friends. Average human nature among actors and managers has many constant features. The trust is supported by the love of money. It is wholly commercial. How many outside of it are much influenced by unselfish considerations? There is some truth in talk about art, but more cant. Most of the trouble between the actors and the syndicate has been over terms, and in most cases, when the players who talked most about intelligence and freedom were offered more money, they became silent."

The article shows how the syndicate has gradually gained control of nearly all the leading theaters in the larger cities, by effective, if not always direct, methods.

"To be practically controlled, a city need not have all of its theaters in the hands of the syndicate. If the routes approaching it are dominated the power is almost equally complete San Francisco, for instance, has an independent theater—the California—but few companies from the East can afford to go to the Pacific coast without playing in such places as Denver, Salt Lake City, Omaha, Toledo, New Orleans, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Kansas City, in all of which towns the leading theaters are under syndicate control. When it is remembered that most of these are one-week stands, the difficulty of getting along without them will be obvious. Control of the one-night stands, especially in the rather unprofitable South, is less important for the better class of companies, but to be shut out of Cleveland, for instance, where no theater of any kind is free, means much. Detroit and Providence are further illustrations, as are smaller places like Utica, Syracuse, Wilkesbarre, Rochester, Reading, Lowell, Mass., Newark, N. J., and Jersey City."

Of the prominent "stars" now playing on the American stage Mrs. Fiske alone is in open revolt against the syndicate; Nat Goodwin, Francis Wilson, and Richard Mansfield have all capitulated; James A. Herne, though independent, is no longer openly hostile, and Joseph Jefferson is "let alone in peace, to do as he chooses," playing in both syndicate and non-syndicate houses.

Indeed, the mastery of the "trust" over both the theater owner and the actor seems to have become well-nigh absolute. The syndicate can say to the theater owner: "If you do not do business with us on our own terms we will not let you have first-rate attractions. If you do we will destroy your rival or force him to the same terms. For the bookings we will take a share of the profits." To the actor or traveling manager it can say: "You must play in our theaters or in barns. For our theaters we make our own terms. We will show you contracts, but they will not be signed by us until the last moment, so that your bookings or terms may be changed at our convenience." To both the syndicate managers can say: "Nominally we act as your agents. In reality we are your absolute masters."

"Is it well for such power as this to be in anybody's hands?" asks Mr. Hapgood. "Does it make for variety, ambition, and originality in playwright, actor, or manager?

ILL-EFFECTS OF "TRUST" CONTROL

"Is it well that such power should be in the hands of six business men, some with clean records, others with black ones, but all uncultivated? Is not the production of 'The Conquerors' alone sufficient to answer this question? Is not the dearth of repertories, of great dramas, of American plays enough? Much stress is laid on the taste for crude, comic, and melodramatic treatment of sexual matters undoubtedly shown by members of the syndicate, but indecency seems to me a far less pervading fault than emptiness! From this vacuity and restriction the only escape is a break in the power of the trust. Among methods for accomplishing this the surest and most abiding would be the establishment of theaters in large cities, owned by cultivated people, open to worthy productions, but provided with the nucleus of a company with a repertory. Once produce this comparison of a theater run for a small margin of profit, controlled by the best public opinion, and consequently devoted to a wide and high range of dramas, with the theaters which measure success by profit and therefore tend toward long runs and mediocrity, the commercial managers would be deprived of the most highly desired prestige and their power would be limited."

CURING DISEASE AND VICE BY HYPNOTIC SUGGESTION.

THE February *Harper's* contains an unusually readable article by John Duncan Quackenbos on "The Moral Value of Hypnotic Suggestion," in which the author tells with frank and full details how he goes about making moral as well as physical cures through hypnotic means. He says that not only is hypnotic suggestion effective in the treatment of functional disorder of digestion, absorption, and circulation; "of nervous conditions represented by hysteria, hystero-epilepsy, chorea, insomnia, and neurasthenia; even of diseases characterized by severe pain, like sciatica, locomotor ataxia, tuberculosis, and cancer, but it has recently assumed importance as an appropriate instrumentality for effecting character change in cases of moral obliquity, as well as for developing and exalting mind power. During the past year the writer has measurably tested the availability of hypnotic suggestion as a means of removing criminal impulses and substituting conscience sensitiveness for moral anæsthesia among young criminals and castaways; and he has reached conclusions which must be gratifying to all who are working or wishing for the intellectual, ethical, and spiritual elevation of humanity. The value of post-hypnotic and auto suggestion for the cure of crime and for the correction of certain phases of perverted mentality no longer admits of question."

HOW THE SUBJECT IS HYPNOTIZED.

"After talking sympathetically with the subject, sometimes for an hour or two, in regard to the failing which he wishes removed, thoroughly acquainting myself with his dominant propensities or controlling thoughts, and, above all, securing his confidence, I ask him to assume a comfortable reclining position on a lounge, and then, while continuing a soothing conversation, I manage, in a way determined by the circumstances of the case, to concentrate his attention upon a suspended diamond or on a cornelian seal set in an old-fashioned gold pencil which I happened upon among my heirlooms. The Cambay stone is held in such a position within the natural focus of the eyes as to compel an exaggerated convergence of the axes of the balls, coupled with an upward gaze. Such an unusual exercise of the ocular muscles soon tires them out; the retinal areas involved are rapidly fatigued by the deep redness and brilliancy of the cornelian; and simultaneously an appeal is made to the imagination of the patient, who is told that he is looking at my sleepy stone that has never failed to induce slumber, and he is urged to think of nothing, to renounce the very intention of renouncing mental effort, and to give himself up to me with perfect confidence in the purity of my motives and in my ability to remove or modify his moral disorder. Under these conditions the eyeballs soon become fixed, a vacant stare replaces the usual intelligent look, and the eyelids begin to close and reopen spasmodically. At this stage the suggestion is given that refreshing sleep is about to ensue; and in a few moments a prolonged breath is taken, the lids close with a slow, regular movement, deep inspirations follow, and I know that I have secured direct and effective communication with the deeper personality of my subject.

"It is not necessary, in order to insure the beneficial effects of hypnotism, to carry the subject into the deeper somnambulic stage characterized by intellectual alertness and apparently purposive acts, and by absence of reaction to sense impressions. The conversion of a hypnotized patient into a somnambule is always to be deprecated. In the first stage of deep hypnotic sleep the subliminal self unhesitatingly accepts every emphatic statement of the hypnotizer; but even where somnolism is not complete and a state of semi-consciousness exists, suggestions are acquiesced in by the patient. Lethargy is by no means essential to success.

THE TIME REQUIRED.

"Usually from two to fifteen minutes are occupied in establishing somnolism, but there are refractory cases that require from one to two hours of intense mental effort on the part of the physician. Children readily come into rapport and, as a rule, are easily impressed. Sufferers from acute nervous depression, watchful or suspicious patients, and persons under the influence of a stimulant are difficult subjects. Tea, coffee, or whisky before a treatment is an obstacle to its success; and the simultaneous pursuit of any other means of cure splinters the faith of the subject, so that he secures benefit from neither.

THE MEMORY DISAPPEARS.

"There is no memory in the hypnotic state of the affairs of every-day life, nor, after awaking, of what has taken place during the hypnosis, but in a subsequent hypnotic condition the occurrences of the first hypnotism are recalled. Subjects who have not been lethargic will sometimes insist that they have consciously heard the suggestions. When asked to repeat them, such persons usually fail. They should never be argued with on the subject, but told that if they did hear the suggestions, good is coming from the treatment—which is true. It is essential to divert their attention from the occurrences of the *séance*.

Extremely neurotic persons, to whom the suggestions are at first consciously audible, become, as a rule, more and more somnolent with each subsequent trial. Patients who have been profoundly lethargic often declare that they have not been asleep at all. In normal sleep there is, after awaking, an ill-defined consciousness of the passage of time; in hypnosis there is none.

THE CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS IN SUGGESTION.

"Suggestions out of harmony with opportunities, the possibilities of a career, common sense, or religious convictions are unlikely to be fulfilled. Fortunately for the protection of society, the power of suggestions for evil-doing is limited, while their influence for good is without horizon. Whereas it is comparatively easy to restrain a kleptomaniac, it is hardly possible to make an honest person steal through post-hypnotic suggestion. On the other hand, criminal suggestions to an evilly disposed subject would naturally lead to criminal acts along the line of least resistance.

"Finally, the success of hypno-science methods depends largely on the desire of the subject to be cured and his faith in the power of the suggestionist selected. Given these, and the battle is more than half won. As a rule, there is no hope of securing the consent of a patient while the controlling passion is in paroxysm. But in the subsequent reactionary stage appeal may often successfully be made to the regrets, fears, self-respect, or higher instincts of the unfortunate, and acquiescence thus secured.

"Hypnotic treatment is frequently reënforced by what is called auto-suggestion. It is a psychological fact that the subjective mind of a given individual is as amenable to suggestion by his own objective mind as by the objective mind of an outside person or a spiritual intelligence. Suggestion by an objective consciousness to its own subliminal self is known as auto-suggestion."

Mr. Quackenbos assures us that he has used these means successfully in the reduction of criminal traits, hereditary and acquired, as well as in the treatment of the cigarette habit, speech defects, intellectual dullness, amnesia, sex perversions, dangerous delusions, and willfullness, disobedience, and falsehood in children. Cigarette-smoking is easily managed, he says, as it is no difficult matter to produce such a strong disgust for tobacco that after the first treatment the patient will almost entirely forego its use. The drink habit is equally amenable, and in fact some of the popular cures are in reality mere "suggestion cures," there being no specific virtue in the drugs given.

THE LIGHT-PERCEIVING ORGANS OF THE LOWER ANIMALS.

DR. RICHARD HESSE has made a series of investigations upon the light-perceiving organs of the lower animals, the fifth paper in the series, published in the *Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Zoölogie*, being a report of his studies upon the eyes of polychæte worms, carried on chiefly at Naples.

Polychæte worms are related to the common earthworms, but they are usually much more beautiful, and many have exquisite colors that even an artist finds difficulty in reproducing. They are all found in salt water, swimming about free in the water, concealed in calcareous tubes which they build for themselves on shells or stones, and living under stones or in holes in the ground where they will be washed by the tides.

These descriptions of eyes show what simple structures may have served for visual perceptions in the earlier stages of evolution, and are of especial interest from the relations shown to exist between the eyes of highly organized forms and these invertebrates. One type of eye found in *Nereis cultrifera* is simply a pocket in the epithelium of the worm, lined with more or less modified epithelial cells and connected with the brain by a nerve. The skin of the worm contains single secreting or gland cells, which usually form the cuticle, but where the epithelium is folded in to form the eye the secretion cannot escape, but fills the pocket, forming a sort of rudimentary lens, continuous with the cuticle, that serves to concentrate the rays of light falling upon it. The other epidermal cells are somewhat thickened in the part serving as an eye, and each cell is penetrated by a nerve fiber which breaks up into fine fibrils. These fibrils are the true light-perceiving elements.

PROTOTYPE OF THE VERTEBRATE EYE.

Another form, *Branchioma*, has two types of eyes—a characteristic allying it with the insects—and one of these is thought to be the prototype of the vertebrate eye. This eye rests on the brain and is a cellular tube, pigmented on the side toward the brain and having on the side toward the light sensory cells which send a blunt prolongation containing nerve fibrils—the light-perceiving elements—into the lumen of the tube. The eye-vesicle of the vertebrate ancestors is supposed to have been a similar cellular vesicle, pigmented toward the brain and containing sensory cells with the light-perceiving elements turned toward the lumen of the vesicle.

Beaker eyes and epithelial eyes are also found in these worms, the former representing a very

primitive type. They consist of one or more visual cells with one end resting in a cellular pigment cup, and they are found in the epithelium, or under it in connective tissue, or they may have sunken in until they rest upon the brain. Eyes of this kind are found in annelid (earthworm) larvæ and in the unsegmented worms, and probably were among the earliest kinds of eyes to be developed. They may be grouped together in the anterior or the posterior part of the worm, or they may be disposed segmentally over the whole surface. As many as 400 or 500 have been found in a single individual, the creature being prepared to look in all directions at once, like the hundred-eyed argus of mythology.

The third type, the epithelial eyes, are divided into two classes, one class having a lens-like structure on the side toward the surface which is more or less closely connected with the cuticle. Epithelial eyes are never found alone, but are always crowded together in masses, forming visual epithelia or retinæ which become more or less sunken away from the surface, the various degrees of separation being easily traced in different varieties of worms.

THE INSIDE OF THE EARTH.

IN the February number of *McClure's Magazine* Mr. Cleveland Moffett reports an interesting interview with Professor Milne, under the title "The Inside of the Earth," in which are given the now famous earthquake observer's conclusions as to the interior of our planet. The interior of the earth, although it has been cooling 20,000,000 years, according to Lord Kelvin, and 100,000,000, according to the geologists, is still pretty hot. There is a rough-and-ready rule that the temperature rises 1° Fahrenheit for every 51 feet you go down. Professor Milne shows that this rule is nonsensical by supposing a depth of 1,000 miles, which, according to this rule, would give a temperature of 100,000°, an absurd conclusion, and he explains that after a certain point, say 200 miles below the surface, the rate of increase is hardly appreciable.

The most interesting feature of Professor Milne's theories came in answer to Mr. Moffett's question concerning "the great molten sea" that we might expect beyond this 200 miles. The professor says there is no molten sea at all, but on the contrary a great rigid core, and that the mass of ores and chemicals existing at this enormous heat is at least twice as rigid as steel. This theory is based on the observation of seismic waves. The rapidity of the traveling of these waves varies directly with the rigidity of the medium. The professor finds that seismic waves starting in Japan and coming necessarily through the center of the earth reach the Isle of Wight in sixteen minutes, nearly twice as fast as they would come the same distance through solid steel. Hence this conclusion that the matter inside the earth, although at this tremendously high temperature, is as rigid again as steel.

A SOLID INTERIOR?

"'These phenomena, invariably noted at all our seismic observatories, entirely upset the old theory that the earth's interior is a freely moving liquid, and demonstrate apparently that the earth-orange, under its peel of crust, is a mass very much more rigid than the crust itself.'

"'Yet extremely hot?'

"'Of course.'

"'So hot that everything melts?'

"'So hot that everything would melt if it could. And everything does melt in a certain limited region, a sort of viscous layer, pasty in its upper parts and solid down below.'

"'Why not molten all the way down?'

"'Because of the pressure above. At a depth of 200 miles this would amount to about 600 tons to the square inch, probably enough to squeeze the molten rock and metal back into a solid state. At any rate, a depth must soon be reached where the pressure is great enough to effect that result. You know the general law—that heat expands and cold contracts. Well, there are strong reasons for believing that most metals and rocks can be prevented from melting under heat if you prevent them from expanding. Or, if you have a quantity of molten metal which has already expanded in melting, you can bring it back to the solid state by great pressure, just as you can solidify liquid air by putting it under great pressure. The interior of the earth—the ball of the orange underneath the peel—though potentially liquid, is actually solid and extremely dense. It would immediately become liquid if the pressure were removed. It is hot enough to become liquid, but by the laws of matter cannot do so without expanding, and it cannot expand so long as it is squeezed down under the great weight upon it. You must understand that the earth, originally liquid, became solid under two influences: it began to solidify at the surface by cooling, the crust growing thicker and thicker; and it began to solidify at the center by pressure, the core growing larger and larger. This double phenomenon of solidifying continued until a solid outer shell and a solid inner core came close together in what may be called the critical region of the earth, a region that feeds lava to volcanoes.'"

THE EXPLORATION OF FRANZ JOSEF LAND.

IN the Italian *Rivista Politica e Letteraria* for December Professor Faustini gives an interesting account of Franz Josef Land, with especial reference to the recent expedition of Mr. Walter Wellman and the explorations now being conducted by the Duke of Abruzzi.

Since the discovery—or rather rediscovery—in 1873, by the Austrian naval officers Weyprecht and Payer, of the arctic lands called by them Franz Josef Land, the region has been the object of several expeditions. Mr. Wellman and his companions landed at Cape Tegetthoff, Franz Josef Land, in July, 1897, and advancing northward to the eighty-first parallel made and provisioned a depot, which they called Fort McKinley. Two Norwegians remained there as a guard and the rest of the company returned to Cape Tegetthoff, where they passed the winter. In the spring they set out with dogs and sledges for the pole. Arriving at Fort McKinley, they found that one of the two Norwegians had died. Pressing on through enormous difficulties, they reached the eighty-second parallel. Here the explorers were overtaken by a series of misfortunes that compelled their return. The highest latitude reached by Wellman was five nautical miles short of the parallel attained by Payer, of the Austrian expedition.

PLANS AND PROSPECTS OF THE ITALIAN EXPEDITION.

The plan of Prince Amadeo (Duca degli Abruzzi), as set forth by himself, does not include an effort to reach the pole. The aim of the expedition is scientific. "The purpose of beating the polar *records*," says Professor Faustini, "is wholly excluded from the project." And Prince Amadeo, as a final declaration at Archangel, said: "Mine is not an expedition to the north pole, but in fact a journey of verification in the zone north of Franz Josef Land."

The ship *Stella Polare*, after reaching Cape Flora, will seek a safe anchorage in the highest latitude possible. When one has been found she will serve as a base for sledge journeys to establish depots of supplies. These depots will be made during the winter, so that they will be ready for more extended excursions in the summer. As an illustration of the care with which the *Pole Star* has been equipped for the expedition, the preparation and classification of its "baggage" should be mentioned. It consists of 1,500 cases of such shape and weight that any-



<·····Track of Steamer "Capella," 1899, which brought back the Expedition.
<<·····Track of Sledge Journeys of the Wellman Expedition, 1898-'99.
★ The Northernmost Point Reached by the Expedition. (565 Miles from the Pole.)

MAP OF FRANZ JOSEF LAND ARCHIPELAGO, SHOWING THE NEW LANDS DISCOVERED AND EXPLORED BY THE WELLMAN EXPEDITION.

Copyright, 1899, by Walter Wellman.

A. Royal Society Island.
B. Pritchett Island.
C. Brice Island.
D. Bliss Island.
E. Alger Island.
F. Jackson Island.
G. Brady Island.
H. Aagaard Island.
I. Simon Newcomb Islands.
K. Willis Moore Islands.
L. McGee Island.
M. Payer Island.
N. Lyman Gage Island.
c. Cape Elkins.
d. Cape Vilas.
e. Cape Hanna.
f. Cape Foraker.
g. Cape Fairbanks.
h. Cape Gorman.
i. Cape Tyrol.
k. Cape Copeland.
l. Cape Robert Hitt.
m. Cape Frick.

body could carry one in his arms or on his shoulder without serious inconvenience. They are divided into four classes, distinguishable at sight by the color of the boxes: (1) *black*, food and things pertaining to it; (2) *green*, clothing and accessories; (3) *red*, scientific instruments and materials; (4) *yellow*, things useful, but not indispensable. Every box has also on its face characters that identify its contents.

After the establishment of the depots mentioned above the explorers will set out with sledges victualed for about 120 days. During the winter of preparation the scientific members of the expedition will employ their time on various scientific problems, among them the luminous phenomena of the polar night, the magnetic pole, the measurement of the arctic depression of the globe, and studies of the arctic fauna and flora.

As to the success of the expedition, very favorable reports had been received, at the time of Professor Faustini's writing, in letters from Captain Cagni, from Prince Amadeo, and from Petigax, the guide who accompanied the Prince in Alaska. Rather singularly, the latest news at the time of Faustini's writing was brought by the American explorer, Mr. Wellman, who met the *Stella Polare* on July 26 last in latitude 80° 20′.

THE COMMON MULE.

IN the *Nineteenth Century* for January Mr. R. B. Townshend, who has known the mule in many lands, gives some interesting information on his habits and qualities which places him in a not unpleasant light.

THE MULE'S MULISHNESS.

The pleasantest quality of the common mule is what if he were a man we would call his humanity, but by analogy are compelled to call his mulishness. He is companionable, devoted to his mother, and—highest of all endowments—gifted with eternal youth. In fact, he is an incurable infant, and never grows up to the end of his days:

"He may not be aware that his father was a donkey, but he never can forget that his mother was a mare, nor does he want ever to be free from her leading-strings. The one desire of his soul after he is weaned is to find his mother again, and, failing her, his maternal aunt. He will cling to her side, if permitted, for his whole life long, and his heart-broken wails when he is separated from her would split the ears and raise the pity of any one but a Mexican *arriero*. But the mule is a philosopher, too, so when he has not the company of the mare that he loves he consoles himself with loving the mare that he has. He can always be induced to adopt a new aunt."

His childishness, however, is even stronger than filial love, and it is this quality which makes him so liable to stampede:

"The bell-mare may be his tin goddess on hoofs, but even she can be temporarily forgotten once panic terror gets hold of him. Nevertheless, when the stampede is over, though he may have run five miles, or fifty for that matter, in the course of it, his first thought is how to get back to his beloved bell-mare again, and it would surprise any one how often he manages to succeed in doing so. In the meantime, however, the mischief has been done, and this liability to stampede on small provocation is the worst fault about the mule for military purposes."

THE MULE ON THE MARCH.

For military purposes, however, the mule must have a human guide; but even then he cannot be always relied upon:

"The liability to a frantic stampede is vastly reduced when each animal is thus under human control. Nevertheless, as unfortunately happened at Nicholson's Nek, that mysterious thrill of panic terror that instantaneously flashes through a whole herd together remains still a horrid possibility. It seems a sort of demoniacal possession. When a mule feels that mysterious thrill his one immediate and ungovernable impulse is to break away from the man leading him and run—run—run. And a stout mule, who means to stampede, when he tries to pull away from you takes some holding. I have seen a mule in the branding corral who had been lassoed wrong, the noose being made too long and tightening, not round his throat, but far back close to the shoulders. That mule walked right off with five Mexicans, who all tailed on and pulled their very hardest against him, but in vain."

HIS GOOD QUALITIES.

The mule, says Mr. Townshend, is nearly always healthy:

"He misses the miserable liability to curbs and spavins and ringbones and a hundred other weaknesses to which our modern horseflesh is heir. I think he has made a good bargain. It is seldom indeed that one sees a mule sick or sorry. The only thing to which he ever seems specially liable is colic. And that is to be attributed not to any weakness of digestion on his part, but to our own mismanagement."

In addition to this, although he costs more than the horse, he is more economical in the end:

"He eats less, he requires less shoeing, for his feet grow so slowly that the shoes do not require resetting until they are worn out, he is less liable to disease, and he lasts longer."

NEW CRIMES AND PENALTIES.

THE Hon. Samuel J. Barrrows contributes to the *Forum* for January an entertaining article on the peculiarities of American legislation discovered by a reading of 30,000 pages of statute law enacted during the past two years in the forty-five States of the Union. Draco and Solon, Mr. Barrows thinks, would be amazed by the products of the American legislator's fertile brain.

"Suppose, for instance, that Draco took it all seriously and imagined that all the laws we passed were meant to be enforced. Suppose they really were enforced and that the Greek lawgiver should make a tour of the prisons and jails of the United States. Imagine him asking a score of convicts why they had been convicted. 'I,' said an Alabama man, 'have been sentenced to thirty days for jumping off a train while in motion.' 'I,' said a Virginian, 'rode a horse on the sidewalk through an unincorporated village, and am in prison for sixty days.' 'I,' said another Virginian, 'killed a partridge on the second day of February in Cumberland County, and am in prison for thirty days.' 'I,' said a California woman, 'am a nurse, and I neglected to report to a doctor that a baby's eyes became inflamed within two weeks after birth. I am in prison for six months.' 'I,' said a Tennesseean, '"lobbied" with the Legislature.' 'You mean bribed it?' asked Draco. 'Oh, no. I just "lobbied," but I did not address my arguments "*solely to the judgment*," and so I am "in" for five years.' An Adonis from the same State curled his mustache: 'I fell in love with a young lady at a Tennessee boarding-school. In a rash moment I ventured to loiter on the opposite side of the street, and I threw a kiss to her. Now I have thirty days to serve in the county jail.'

"'I,' said a New York man, 'tampered with an automatic ballot machine, and for the next five years I shall labor for the benefit of the State.' 'I,' said another New Yorker, 'was calling on a friend in the upper story of a skyscraper, and I ventured to drop some of my advertising circulars down the letter-chute. Unfortunately, I had forgotten to address them. So I got five days.' 'I,' said a New Jersey man bitterly, 'did not drop my *ad.* into a letter-chute; I wish I had. I made the mistake of putting it up on the Palisades, and I am sentenced to three years for disfiguring the landscape.' 'As to advertising,' said a lawyer from Washington, 'I ventured to solicit divorce business by an advertisement in a newspaper, and now I shall read my newspapers in jail for the next six months.'

"'I,' said a Wisconsin man, 'sold some impure ice, and I shall spend the winter in the county jail.' 'Well, you have my company,' said a Wisconsin baker. 'I ventured to sleep in my bakery. My first offense cost me $50 a night, which ate up all the profits. The second offense cost me $100 a night, which was still more disastrous. For the third offense I had to pay $250 a night. And now, to even things up, I am lodging six months in jail at the expense of the State.' 'It all happens in the course of business,' said a Michigander. 'I thought it was all right to buy an empty beer bottle stamped with the brewer's name. My mistake costs me ninety days in jail.' 'You got off easily,' said a Florida man, 'for I got a year for smashing a bottle similar to the one you bought.' 'Well, be thankful you don't keep a boarding-house in Virginia. I failed to put up a sign which the law said must be in large Roman letters not less than one inch square, saying, "IMITATION BUTTER USED HERE," and now I am a jail-boarder myself for six months.' In Virginia they use the letter of the Roman law. But what would Justinian say of its spirit?"

WAGNERIANA.

MR. WILLIAM ASHTON ELLIS has just completed his translation of "Wagner's Prose Works," and a monumental work the eight volumes make. Each volume is provided with a very full index, and in the last volume a convenient chronological table of the prose writings is added. The translation has occupied about nine years, and Mr. Ellis is to be congratulated on the successful completion of his difficult though interesting task. To many it will be a source of regret that Wagner's letters to Otto Wesendonck and others and to Emil Heckel should not have been included in the series. Mr. Ellis' next undertaking is to be a translation of Glasenapp's "Life of Wagner."

In the *Revue Blanche* of December 1 Maxime Leroy publishes a series of letters relating to the first performance of "Tristan und Isolde" at Munich. They comprise letters from Wagner to his friend Auguste Gasperini and letters from Gasperini to Léon Leroy. The first of Wagner's letters is dated September, 1861, at Vienna, where rehearsals of "Tristan" were taking place, but after some seventy-seven rehearsals the production of the opera at Vienna was abandoned. The second letter (1864) tells of his new friend Ludwig II. of Bavaria, and the rest belong to the year 1865, when "Tristan" finally obtained a hearing in the Bavarian capital; but the public had to wait thirty-four years longer for the production of the opera in Paris.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY.

THE February *Century* gives a very large installment of a new feature, Dr. Barry E. O'Meara's "Talks With Napoleon." Dr. O'Meara was Napoleon's physician on the island of St. Helena. In 1822 he published a book, "Napoleon in Exile; or, A Voice from St. Helena." This produced such a sensation that it was necessary to call out the police to restrain the enthusiasm of the throngs which besieged the publisher's office in London. In this work Dr. O'Meara used less than half of his manuscript journal, in which he had jotted down literally the conversation of Napoleon, together with his own comments. The record was somewhat too intimate for publication in the lifetime of the author. These nineteen manuscript volumes are now in the possession of the Century Company, and the magazine is publishing the extracts which are exclusive of the matter published in Dr. O'Meara's book.

Mr. Jacob A. Riis, the student of tenement-house life and writer on the New York *Sun*, contributes a characteristically able study of "Midwinter in New York." He tells us that, taken all in all, even a blizzard does not carry in its trail in New York such hopeless martyrdom to the people as in Old World cities—London, for instance.

In his essay on "The West and Certain Literary Discoveries; or, How Fiction May Be Stranger Than Truth," Mr. E. Hough makes a great deal of fun of the pet occupation of some writers of making literary discoveries in the West and South. It may be said within moderation, complains Mr. Hough, that the West has had quite enough discoverers who do not discover, who have nothing to say, and who say it brilliantly One interesting fact which most of these writers have overshot is a simple one, that the West no longer exists. Then Mr. Hough goes on to show how it is that the West ceased to exist, summing up the matter at the start with the statement, to be accepted as accurate, coming from the Western representative of *Forest and Stream*, that it costs $1,000 now to kill a grizzly, with luck and a Western guide, and that for $1,000,000 one may unlawfully kill a buffalo.

Mr. Richard Whiteing opens the magazine with "Paris Revisited," in which description Mr. A. Castaigne's drawings aid the author with charming effectiveness. There is a brief article on "The Military Element in Colonel Waring's Career," accompanied by a strikingly beautiful wood cut of the painting by Henry Peters Gray of Colonel Waring as colonel of the Fourth Missouri Cavalry. Captain Slocum's story of his sail around the world is concluded in this number.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

THE February number of *Harper's Magazine* begins with one of Dr. Henry Smith Williams' excellent articles on the progress of science, entitled "To-day's Science in Europe." He tells how Dr. Dohrn began twenty-five years ago his laboratory organization, which developed into the Marine Biological Laboratory at Naples, now the Mecca of all biological eyes throughout the world. Dr. Williams shows what an all-important influence on science the marine laboratories which Dr. Dohrn's was the prototype for had, aiding Professor Weismann to perfect his well-known theory of heredity and simplifying hundreds of problems of cell activity, heredity, and life. Following the Naples institution have come others in nearly every civilized country having a coast line. Our stations are Wood's Holl, at the eastern end of Buzzard's Bay, and Cold Spring Harbor, on the north coast of Long Island Sound.

THE PROGRESSIVE CONGO STATE.

Mr. D. C. Boulger gives an excellent account of "The Congo State and Central African Problems." He sums up the present achievements of the Europeans in this territory as follows:

"To sum up the general position occupied by the Congo State at the present time, we see a territory of about 900,000 square miles regularly organized and formally recognized under an independent sovereign, who has accepted several responsibilities from an international point of view, such as the maintenance of free trade, the suppression of slavery, the control of the liquor traffic, and the observance of a strict neutrality. The sovereign happens to be King of the Belgians, and has bequeathed within his full right and without breach of any engagement—for that with France has been waived—all his sovereign rights after his death to Belgium, his own country, so that in course of time the Congo territory will be a Belgian colony. In comparatively few years the revenue of this part of Africa has been raised from nothing to a respectable total of £750,000. and the trade totals approximate to £2,000,000, divided equally between exports and imports. All these figures will undoubtedly be increased, as the years pass, by the cultivation of coffee and other plants which are now in the experimental stage, and by the discovery of mineral deposits, which are to-day being carefully sought for in several directions."

THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY OF THE FUTURE.

In Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart's prediction of "The Future of the Mississippi Valley" he reminds us that the Mississippi is the greatest south-flowing stream of the world, and its value is, politically and commercially, the most important. Its area of 1,242,000 square miles is two-fifths of the whole continental area of the United States and more than two-thirds of its arable surface. To-day the dwellers in the Mississippi Valley number 35,000,000. At the present rate of increase, doubling its population every twenty-five years, the valley would have 560,000,000 people in the year 2000. But families are already smaller, owing to the increasing difficulty of giving children a good start, and Professor Hart thinks it would be a bold man who predicted a population of 200,000,000 in the year suggested, for this population would be almost as dense as that of Belgium. In considering the intellectual future of this vast region, Professor Hart says that so far the only claim the West has established to artistic distinction is in architecture. He says that the city of Pittsburg has the most beautiful and suitable county buildings in the country. He sees the difficulty in a distinct and highly advanced

intellectual life in the Mississippi Valley in not so much a lack of interest in things of the mind as a lack of local traditions. He concludes with a prophecy that for ages to come the principal output and wealth of the Mississippi Valley must be agricultural, and that its greatest danger is a separation of interest between the tiller of the soil on the one side and the capitalist and the professional and business man on the other side.

Mr. Julian Ralph writes of his experiences in India, under the title "The True Flavor of the Orient," and Mr. Poultney Bigelow describes "The White Man's Rule in Singapore." We have reviewed in another department Mr. John D. Quackenbos' essay on "The Moral Value of Hypnotic Suggestion" and Mr. Theodore Dreiser's account of how the railroads are educating the farmers in the West.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the February *Scribner's* appears the first magazine account of operations in South Africa. Mr. H. Whigham, of Chicago, who is with the British at the Orange River, writes on "The First Stage of the Boer War," and illustrates his account with a number of attractive photographs, taken by himself on the field. He calls the chief mistake of the British the underestimate of the troops the Boers had at command. Mr. Whigham uses a good many pages to argue that the British War Office, so far from falling short of efficiency in mobilizing the forces in South Africa, has done an exceedingly clever work. He writes under date of November 19, some six weeks after October 9, when the war began. "Yet," he says, "in that time an army of more than 30,000 men has been organized, with its attendant force of 5,500 cavalry and troops for the line of communication to the extent of 10,000. A force, that is to say, of some 54,000 fighting men has been mobilized, with every possible sort of provision for their comfort, has been put on the sea in thirty transports, and of that force a whole division is to-day, on the banks of the Orange River, ready to strike for Kimberley, having traveled 6,000 miles by sea and nearly 600 miles by land over a single line of railroad through the parched and pathless Karroo."

Mr. Herbert L. Webb writes on "The Problems of a Pacific Cable." He shows that in an engineering way the laying of a Pacific cable will be somewhat more difficult, so far as depth of water is concerned, than the Atlantic route. The latter offers depths of between 2,400 and 2,700 fathoms, while the Pacific route, after deep water has been struck, ranges from 2,400 to 3,100 fathoms, a large part of the distance being in water closely bordering on 3,000 fathoms in depth. But he thinks this is more than counterbalanced by the improvements that have been made in the manufacture of submarine cables and in the art of repairing them. A greater obstacle than depth is the long distance between the landing points, but this applies more especially to the British project, which on its longest section calls for a cable of 3,560 miles in one section. In the American scheme the section from San Francisco to Honolulu will be but a little over 2,000 miles long, which is not more than most of the Atlantic cables and less than some of them. The long sections are difficult to lay because a very heavy cable has to be constructed in order to get a fair working speed.

Adjt.-Gen. T. Bentley Mott, U. S. A., describes social life in Havana. He expresses himself as much surprised at the class of people he met at a charity entertainment for the Cuban hospitals. Although he had expected to see people like the ragamuffin Cuban soldiers, he found out that "the men and women were the same sort which New York or London would turn out on a similar occasion. The women were dressed not only with taste and appropriateness, but with an elegance, a *chic* which one would expect on the banks of the Seine, but which in this tumble-down Cuban village, scarred with the marks of war, was strange to contemplate."

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

WE have quoted in another department from Mr. Ray Stannard Baker's character sketch of Gen. Leonard Wood and from Mr. Cleveland Moffett's interview with Professor Milne, the observer of earthquakes.

AT CAPE TEGETTHOFF WITH MR. WELLMAN.

Mr. Walter Wellman gives a chapter of his recent personal experience in the arctic in his race for the north pole. In the country around the headquarters of the Wellman expedition at Cape Tegetthoff Mr. Wellman's party found a great many bears and in the sea any number of walruses. A herd of the last-named beasts came near destroying the party and their camp and were only routed after fifteen minutes of furious battle. The arctic winter was passed in making scientific observations, hunting bears, making runs over the snow on skis, and preparing for the sledge journeys. Mr. Wellman had left two Norwegians at a point he named Fort McKinley, promising to be back with the main party in February. On February 27 this relief party reached Fort McKinley and found that one of the Norwegians had died. His companion kept his body in the hut for two months, living alone in the arctic wilderness with this ghastly company, because he promised that he would not bury him in the snow before the poor fellow died.

THE TRUTH ABOUT THE MAMMOTH.

In the October number of *McClure's Magazine* there was published a short story, "The Killing of the Mammoth," which was curiously mistaken by thousands of readers to be the recital of alleged actual experiences, and the editor says that hundreds of letters have come to the magazine and also to the Smithsonian Institution asking where the author of this innocently intended fiction had located the remains of the beast of his faney and about the truth of the details, while the Smithsonian Institution has been besieged with visitors wishing to see the stuffed mammoth. To clear up this matter *McClure's* publishes this month an article by Mr. F. A. Lucas, of the National Museum, giving the scientific facts concerning the mammoth. These facts are vastly less dramatic than the popular idea of mammoths seems to demand. Mr. Lucas says the beasts have undoubtedly been extinct for ages, and what is even more discouraging, he assures us that the mammoth was probably a smaller animal on the average than Mr. Barnum's *protégé*, "Jumbo." There is no such thing as a stuffed mammoth in the world. Some Alaskan Indians found a portion of the skeleton of one of the beasts which had some fat adhering to it, which had been preserved by the intense cold through the ages that had passed since the animal died, and there is one skull with a wisp of hair remaining.

PRESIDENT GRANT AND A. T. STEWART.

The Hon. George S. Boutwell, ex-Secretary of the Treasury, continues his reminiscent chapters of history with an account of General Grant's administration, Mr. Boutwell having been a member of General Grant's Cabinet. In speaking of A. T. Stewart's relations with Grant, Mr. Boutwell tells of the effort to make Mr. Stewart the Secretary of the Treasury. He was nominated and confirmed, but it was discovered that he was an importer and therefore inelligible to the office "The President made a vain effort to secure legislation for the removal of the bar. Next Judge Hilton, then Mr. Stewart's attorney, submitted a deed of trust by which Mr. Stewart relinquished his interest in the business during his term of office. The President submitted that paper to Chief Justice Carter, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia. The chief justice gave a brief adverse oral opinion, and in language not quotable upon a printed page." Mr. Boutwell thinks that Mr. Stewart was bitter over the incident.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

THERE is an excellent article in the February *Munsey's* on "The Episcopal Church in New York," by Dr. William Kirkus. Dr. Kirkus says that when clergymen come to New York they generally stay there. The salaries are on the average a good deal higher than the general average in the country at large, but the general average is less than the wages of a skilled mechanic—that is, about $10 a week.

THE NEW YORK CLERGYMAN'S SALARY.

"The salaries of even the rectors of the largest New York parishes are much smaller than is popularly supposed; nor is any account taken of the correspondingly large expenditure which their position entails. What these salaries really are I do not exactly know; but taking the largest estimate, they are far smaller than the incomes obtained by the leaders of the other professions. Does any one ask, What right has a minister of the Gospel to expect, what right has he to receive, ten thousand a year for the work of saving souls? No doubt, given the use of an empty lot, a good stout barrel to stand on, and a pious man with a loud voice, the Gospel can be had for nothing. But it is one of the advantages and complicated interests, which pious simplicity very seldom understands. The rectors in such parishes as Trinity, in addition to their pastoral work, are men of business of the highest class. They are such men as in secular life would be the heads of great corporations, the managers of large enterprises. The clergy in New York are paid a little more than the average; but if religion is a seriously important affair they are very poorly paid."

POLICING THE RAILROADS.

Mr. Josiah Flynt, the student of tramp life, has another good article on "Policing the Railroads," in which he describes American railroads as avenues of crime, and thinks their failure to properly organize a protection for their systems a very weak point in the management of their vast property interests. He says that this policing is properly done in Europe, but that in the United States there was not up to a few years ago any well-organized railroad police force. He thinks a great deal of money would have been saved and not a few lives would have been spared had this police matter been properly arranged in the early days of railroading. One shining exception to the rule of lax management in America is seen in the Pennsylvania lines west of Pittsburg. The superintendent of this railroad has a model police organization. After four years of preparatory exercise it is made up of 83 officers and men, the chief being the superintendent, who reports to the general manager. Each division has a captain, who reports to the division superintendent; the captain has under him one or more lieutenants and a necessary number of patrolmen and watchmen, who report to him alone. This organization has cleaned up the property, that was notorious among tramps and criminals five years ago as an open road. It is now known as the "tightest shut" line in the country, and the company pays $17,000 a year less for its police arrangements than it did in 1893 for its watchmen and detective force.

"THE CITY OF THE AUTOMOBILE."

Mr. Edwin Wildman describes Paris as "The City of the Automobile." He tells us that in Paris the autovehicle has long since passed the experimental stage and has taken its place in every department of transportation. For passenger purposes he thinks the petroleum machine is as yet far in advance of the electrical machine for long distances, high rates of speed, and steep hills. The petroleum-driven automobile is, however, far from perfection. It often sputters and clatters a great deal at the start, but when it sets down to a thirty-mile gait it behaves splendidly. Mr. Wildman describes his enjoyment of a ride on a petroleum machine which attained a speed of forty-five miles an hour, which climbed hills short, steep, and stony, took curves at a hair-raising rate, and halted once or twice with a suddenness that nearly sent him over the dashboard.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

IN the February *Cosmopolitan* Mr. W. T. Stead has a sketch of the Czar of Russia. He begins by showing the contrast between the Czar of Russia and Emperor William of Germany. He says this contrast is striking and can be expressed in the following sentence: "Both believe they are God's anointed, but William believes that the Lord would have made a big mistake had he anointed any one else but himself; whereas Nicholas, while bowing to the inscrutable wisdom of Divine Providence, would have been immensely relieved if the choice had fallen on some other than he." Mr. Stead says that the Czar escapes with the greatest delight from the slavery of his state work to the carefully guarded privacy of domestic life, and that his wife, granddaughter of Queen Victoria, is, unlike most of the British reigning house, singularly beautiful and an eminently satisfying mate to the Czar of all the Russias. Mr. Stead assures us that the stories periodically uttered in the press as to the ill-health, brooding melancholy, or incipient insanity of the Czar are all pure inventions, and that equally baseless are the nonsensical stories circulated as to his intention to resign.

William Jameson Reid, in his travel sketch entitled "Among the Farthest People," relates how in the summer of 1893 he wandered in company with a small band of Tourgouth nomads through Mongolia into eastern Tibet. The land of the Sifans is the particular region he

describes, a wonderful country with immense plains and sky-towering mountain ranges. He says during several months of marching his party was at no time less than 15,000 feet above the level of the sea.

The prize essay of the month is on the topic, "The Well-Dressed Woman." The lucky contestant was Mrs. A. R. Ramsey, who gives a very sensible and practical discussion of the factors which go into a satisfactory system of dressing for women. Her estimate for the needs of a well-dressed woman is $350 a year, which is supposed to allow for tailor-made clothes and other refinements. Mr. Rupert Hughes in his article "From Ore to Armor-Plate" tells how the armor which goes into the United States battleships is manufactured at Bethlehem, Pa. The company which makes our armor is only fourteen years old, having bought outright its processes and duplicates of the machines of the Whitworth Company of England and the Creusot Company of France, and has lately acquired also the Krupp methods of making armor steel.

THE NEW ENGLAND MAGAZINE.

MR. FLETCHER OSGOOD in the February *New England* describes in an unusually thorough and well-illustrated article the ravages of the gypsy moth in Massachusetts and the efforts to be made to head off these depredations. The gypsy moth is operating in a tract of about 200 square miles, which includes Boston in its southern part. A life-and-death struggle in behalf of the foliage in this region has been going on for the past ten years. The gypsy moth was introduced into Massachusetts by a French scientist in 1868, in the hope of breeding the moth of the silkworm with the gypsy moth, and so produce a hybrid fitted alike to flourish in our climate, as the silkworm does not, and to spin marketable silk, as the gypsy moth cannot. The insect became dangerous as a foliage destroyer in 1881, but did not excite great apprehension until 1889, when the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture thought it necessary to begin a determined campaign against it. The pest not only destroys the foliage trees, but ruins shrubbery and flowers, despoils the garden of corn, small fruit, and vegetables, and makes houses, trees, fences, and walls actually filthy with the trooping battalions of caterpillars. The thoroughness with which the campaign is carried out is surprising. It is estimated that $200,000 a year will be required for several years, then half that amount for several years more, to give any serious check to the depredations.

In a pleasant article entitled "Sleepy Neighbors" Mr. William E. Cram describes the habits of the animals that hibernate in the winter-time, the chief of which in New England is the omnipresent woodchuck, with his comrades the dormouse, the chipmunk, white-footed mouse, meadow mouse, raccoon, bat, and skunk.

C. S. Walker gives the history of "The Smith Charities," founded by the plain farmer Oliver Smith, who accumulated a fortune on his plantation in the little village of Hatfield, on the banks of the Connecticut, and when he died in 1845 left most of the $370,000 of his estate for charitable purposes. Mr. Walker shows that the Smith Charities Fund has paid in taxes nearly $350,000 and that it has given beneficiaries an aggregate of $1,685,000 up to April, 1899, including the expenses of administration, amounting to $216,000, and the beforementioned taxes. Mr. Walker thinks that the taxpayers of the eight towns where the sum is dispersed have been greatly benefited as well as the direct beneficiaries, and he suggests that it might be a good thing for all benevolent and charitable organizations to pay their full tax to the town, the State, and the nation.

THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

IN the February number the editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal* answers his title question, "Should Women Insure Their Lives?" in the affirmative. He thinks it is very well worth while for a woman to invest her savings in this way, especially for such definite purposes as the education of her children. But there is also a sufficient motive in the matter of self-protection in old age, or as merely a good means of saving money, or a wise form of investment. He thinks that for a woman's purposes there is no better trustee to be found for her savings than a conservative life insurance company.

Miss E. F. Middleton, in her sketch of Mlle. Cécile Chaminade, calls her subject the one woman of great genius who has devoted her life to music. The composer lives in a little village in the valley of the Seine. The father was a government official and also an excellent violin player, and her mother was a remarkable singer and pianist, though there have been no professional musicians in the family. She is described as a tiny woman, with a dainty, well-rounded figure and quick, bird-like movements. She enjoys the friendship of the great German composers and has an enthusiasm for that music-loving people, but she is patriotic enough to insist that French music and French composers have their special mission, and that they should not be dominated by even German excellences.

Mr. Franklyn Fyles, in the course of his articles on "The Theater and Its People," describes this month "The First Night of the Play." He thinks that critics of the drama are influential with the public and that their judgments are read with eagernesss by actors. Players can see scarcely at all across the footlights unless the stage scene is dark and the rest of the house less so. Mr. Fyles says that the actor is most thoroughly convinced of his success when there is absolute silence, and considers this as a greater tribute to his prowess than the noisiest applause.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

THE February *Atlantic* opens with an article on the Library of Congress, by Herbert Putnam, the new superintendent of that great institution, which has accommodations in its stacks alone for 2,000,000 volumes, covers three and a half acres of ground, and contains eight and a half acres of floor space. It is nearly three times the size and represents, with its cost of $7,000,000, nearly three times the expenditure of any other existing library building in America. As late as 1864 the Library of Congress contained only 99,000 volumes, but in the decade following that date, the first of Dr. Spofford's stewardship, these had grown to 298,000. The British Museum, Mr. Putnam tells us, had a long start of our Congressional Library, for in 1837 it contained 275,000 volumes, which have been increased until they amount at the present date to 2,000,000 volumes. At the present time our Congressional Library consists nominally of 850,000 printed books, 250,000 pamphlets, 26,000 pieces of manuscript, 50,000 maps, 277,000 pieces of music, and over 70,000 prints, including under the

last term photographs, lithographs, engravings, and etchings. Of these, however, the Law Library, of 108,000 volumes, is still at the Capitol, and the Smithsonian deposit, about 90,000 volumes, is also included. The bulk of the library is now arranged neatly upon shelves, but it is arranged according to the old so-called Baconian system of classification, in forty-four groups or chapters. In 1898 a reclassification was begun on a modern and elastic system, which has so far been applied to but one of the forty-four chapters.

Mr. Gerald Stanley Lee contributes a readable essay on "Journalism as a Basis for Literature." A large part of his discussion is taken up with an approving citation of Mr. Kipling's efforts to treat timely things in an eternal way. He thinks Mr. Kipling's success in doing this is the most hopeful literary sign in the entire present outlook of literature.

"The difficulty with journalism is not that it deals with passing things, but that it deals with them in a passing way. Kipling is an artist because he respects the passing thing, because he catches the glimmer of the eternal joy upon it and will not let it pass.

"Nine reporters out of ten, once finding themselves in Kipling's place, would have been too clever and worldly wise to have written as Kipling did. Who would have supposed that the whole civilized world from its great complacent continents would ever come pouring out in crowds to the jungles of India?"

Rollin Lynde Hartt writes on "The Mormons," and agrees with Lord Rosebery in likening Brigham Young's community to the Boers, the Gentiles to Uitlanders, and Utah to South Africa.

"How perfect the parallel! From the very first the Latter-Day Saints have been farmers; from the first their foes have been miners. And the problem is precisely the problem of the present-day Transvaal: a state laden with inconceivable mineral treasure is crippled, halted, and dwarfed by the tyranny of an unprogressive race. The Mormon, like Oom Paul, is a 'thorn in the hand of Destiny.'"

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE *North American Review* still maintains a strongly foreign flavor, more than half of the contributors being foreigners and most of the topics treated essentially foreign in their nature. One of the two distinctively American articles appearing in the January number—that on "The Census of 1900," by Director Merriam—is quoted in our "Leading Articles of the Month." We have also drawn on Edmund Gosse's character study of Sir Redvers Buller.

The first six articles of the January number are on subjects connected with the Boer war. Mr. G. Leveson Gower gives a *résumé* of a conversation with the Duke of Cambridge, until recently commander-in-chief of her majesty's forces, on the subject of the condition of the British army, for which he is held largely responsible. Dr. W. J. Leyds, the European agent of the South African Republic, gives answers to questions submitted by the editor of the *North American* relative to the origin and probable duration and outcome of the war. The Rt. Hon. Earl Grey writes on the past relations between England and the Transvaal, predicting a South African federation "on the basis of equal rights to Boer and Briton"—a precursor "of the federation of Canada, Australia, and South Africa with the British empire, and, in the fullness of time, of the federation of the whole English-speaking race." In Prof. Hans Delbrück's article on England and the European powers one looks for an expression concerning Germany's attitude, especially in view of the recent seizures of German ships by the British Government. It is evident that in Professor Delbrück's opinion the key to the situation is held by the Emperor, who is opposed to any continental alliance against England. "The Emperor will pay a visit to his grandmother in England," says Professor Delbrück, "and a German emperor who pays a visit to England cannot be a party to an alliance against England." The Russian Prince Ookhtomsky and his literary factotum, Vladimir Holmstrem, contribute a violently anti-British article, in which England is accused of having embarked on a career of conquest. Mr. George Lacy describes a number of Boer characteristics, most of which are exceedingly disagreeable. Mr. Lacy admits in conclusion that with good government and under more civilized conditions the Boers are capable of better things. He says that he has even met Boers "who, though of a rather low order of intellect and incapable of any achievements in the higher departments of our mental life, were in all other respects as high-toned, upright, and courteous gentlemen as any one would desire to meet. Rid the Transvaal of the incubus of its corrupt and incapable government, give it a well-considered constitution and supervision, and the Boer, though he can never rise very high among white races, will in the next generation be a very different man from what his circumstances have hitherto made him."

Apolinario Mabini, who is described as Aguinaldo's former premier, voices "A Filipino Appeal to the People of the United States," which seems to add little, if anything, to the Filipino case as it has already been repeatedly set forth in this country by "anti-imperialists" and in the halls of Congress.

Writing on "The Erie Canal and Transportation," Mr. Edward P. North dismisses several assertions made by opponents of the proposed canal improvement. As to the cost, he states that the most obstructive estimate known is $250,000,000. This is five and three-quarter cents out of every dollar of assessed value in the State. In Mr. North's opinion, a forty-year bond at 3 or even 3½ per cent. on this proportion of its wealth should not permanently enfeeble the State. Mr. North denies the assertion frequently made that traffic can be conducted at less cost in a small or shallow canal than in one of greater size. Small and large boats are towed together, he says, on all streams of large traffic. Equally baseless, he asserts, is the statement that successful steamboats cannot be built for service in both shallow and deep water.

Mr. Henry James reviews the recently published letters of Robert Louis Stevenson; Mr. Sydney Brooks contrasts the opening formalities of our Congress with those of the British Parliament; and the Rev. Dr. Charles A. Briggs considers "The Present Crisis in the Church of England and Its Bearings on Church Unity."

THE FORUM.

IN another department we have quoted from the article on "A Living Profit and a Living Wage," by Mr. E. J. Smith, in the January *Forum*.

The opening article of this number is by the Hon. Albert J. Hopkins, of the House Committee on Ways and Means, and is entitled "The Tariff a Live Issue." Mr. Hopkins predicts that when the Philippine war

expenses shall cease and the people ask to be relieved of some of the burdens of the internal revenue war taxation the old question of tariff on imports will come to the front. "The Democratic party, through its leaders, will advocate either an income tax or the retention of the war taxes, and will demand a revision of the so-called Dingley law in the levying and collecting of customs duties. In the Presidential campaign of 1900 this issue may not be of controlling force. That it will be a controlling force in 1904 is almost certain."

President William F. Slocum, of Colorado College, advocates "Reconstruction in Theological Education." His demands are not unlike those of President Hyde, which are presented in the January number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. In the theological seminary which President Slocum depicts as the ideal institution of its class only the highest standards, such as are found at the very best schools of law and medicine, will be set and maintained. Thus weak men will be kept out and strong men attracted. Scholarships and fellowships will be granted because of character and intellectual ability, and the eelemosynary element will be banished.

"The Boer War of 1881" is reviewed by "An English Officer Who Fought in It." The article, as a whole, is an instructive commentary on the Boer military methods, and if it had been in the possession of the British authorities at the outbreak of the present war possibly much disaster might have been averted.

Dr. S. A. Knopf writes an able defense of "The California Quarantine Against Consumptives." The most hopeful part of Dr. Knopf's article relates to the proposed founding of establishments for the treatment of tuberculosis throughout the country. "Pulmonary tuberculosis," he says, "can be treated and cured in all climes, and, let it be said again and again, consumption is as much a curable as it is a preventable disease." He proposes the establishment of sanatoria for consumptive poor adults, maternity sanatoria for tuberculous mothers, and seaside sanatoria for tuberculous and scrofulous children.

Mr. O. P. Austin, of the United States Bureau of Statistics, attempts an answer to the practical question, "Does Colonization Pay?" He argues from Great Britain's experience that the greater portion of a nation's exports will go to countries under her immediate control. Leaving out of account, therefore, the question of advancement in civilization, Mr. Austin concludes that material trade benefits will go to that country which has colonial possessions.

Mr. Ferd. Avenarius, editor of the *Kunstwart*, Dresden, writes on "German Art of To-day;" Mr. Johnson Brigham describes the "State Historical Collections in the Old Northwest;" Prof. Washburn Hopkins, of Yale, writes in defense of England's imperial policy from the point of view of the higher morality; President G. Stanley Hall points out "Some Defects of the Kindergarten in America;" Mr. J. S. Fearon writes on "Commercial Possibilities of China;" Mr. Gustav Kobbé describes "Wagner's Personality;" and the Hon. Samuel J. Barrows writes on "New Crimes and Penalties."

THE ARENA.

THE January *Arena* opens with an article by Mrs. Jefferson Davis entitled "Why We Do Not Want the Philippines." "The cause of the American negro," says Mrs. Davis, "has incidentally made thousands of widows and orphans. Is it wise to extend the fight beyond our own country for a very problematic hope of success?"

Caroline H. Pemberton and Ida B. Wells-Barnett write on the evil of lynching in the Southern States, and Dr. Charles Minor Blackford, Jr., criticises our system of negro education.

Mr. William J. Roe, former warden of the New York county jail, describes the incongruous system under which imprisonment for debt is still maintained in New York City.

The trust question is treated in this number by Mr. Charles Grant Miller, Mr. Everett Leftwich, and Mr. Herbert N. Casson, while Mr. Rudolf Wald outlines a plan of taxation through which it is proposed that both capital and labor shall benefit.

Mr. George H. Shibley says that the universities and colleges of the United States have adopted the attitude of employing only such professors as will teach the side of class questions that the predominant element in the boards of trustees stand for. Mr. Shibley presents an argument against national bank currency and in advocacy of what he terms "government control of the price level."

In this number of the *Arena* there are three papers on the divorce evil, the tone of which is moderate and restrained. Each writer admits that the solution of the present difficulty has not yet been found, and neither writer seems inclined to oppose a reasonable provision for divorce on other than scriptural grounds. The need of a uniform law in the States is admitted by all.

Mr. Louis E Guillow gives the evidence in favor of a low-rate parcels post in the United States.

THE INTERNATIONAL MONTHLY.

THE first number of the *International Monthly*, "A Magazine of Contemporary Thought," published by the Macmillan Company, appeared in January. The contents consisted of five papers, each of considerable length and the work of a distinguished specialist on the subject treated. M. Edouard Rod wrote on "Later Evolutions of French Criticism;" Prof. N. S. Shaler, of Harvard, on the "Influence of the Sun Upon the Formation of the Earth's Surface;" Mr. Charles De Kay, of New York, on "Organization Among American Artists;" Prof. John Trowbridge, of Harvard, on "Recent Advance in Physical Science;" and Mr. Norman Hapgood, of New York, described "The Theatrical Syndicate" in an article from which we have made extended quotation in another department.

The object of the *International Monthly*, as stated by the publishers, is "to make more accessible and to offer in a literary form to the general reader the work and progress of the several departments of knowledge; to publish essays by scholars both in this country and abroad; and to present in a manner simple and clear contemporary thought. Articles on topics of the day, music, and the drama will also be contributed." The twelve departments represented will be history, philosophy, psychology, sociology, comparative religion, literature, fine art, industrial art, physics, biology, medicine and hygiene, geology and geography. In each number there will be a review of the recent progress of some one branch of knowledge. To assist the editor, Mr. Frederick A. Richardson, of Burlington, Vt., an advisory board, consisting of three or more university professors in each of the departments, has been appointed.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN the January number of *Gunton's* appears a brief article by President Schurman on "Our Duty in the Philippines." President Schurman's reply to the "imperialists" is summed up in this sentence: "We willed the war with Spain, and we were free to have it otherwise, but having willed the war we were not free to avoid the circumstances which that series of actions involved."

Mr. H. M. Chance, the mining and engineering expert, writes on "The Cost of Raw Materials," showing some of the causes that have contributed to the recent enormous advance in the prices of iron and other staples.

Mr. George L. Bolen, in an article on "Hawaii and Porto Rico as Colonies," advocates the government of these islands as separate dependencies rather than as annexed territories, holding that such a course would further the interests not only of the party in power in this country, but of the islanders themselves. Mr. Bolen instances the Australian colonists as among the freest people in the world—of English blood, and yet not voters in England and never expecting to be. "They lead the world in some advanced methods of free government, and do not feel that their highest aspirations are blighted by reason of their position as colonists in an imperial system."

In an article on "The New Currency Bill" it is proposed that the bill be amended so as to provide that all government funds shall be placed on deposit *pro rata* with national banks in reserved cities. These deposits might, if necessary, be made a preferred lien on the entire assets of the bank, so as to give added security, if any were needed. It would also be a source of income to the Government, since the banks would be able to pay for the use of the money.

In an article on "Learned Professions in State Universities" Prof. W. F. Edwards, former president of the University of Washington, suggests that the high school should do the work usually done in the first year or the first two years in college.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW.

THE opening article of this quarterly is a learned paper by Mr. Edward Eggleston on "Some Curious Colonial Remedies." In this number Dr. Bernard C. Steiner concludes his scholarly account of Maryland's adoption of the federal Constitution. This paper is followed by Mr. Frank M. Anderson's second installment of his valuable review of contemporary opinion of the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions. Another very original and important study in American politics, covering, however, a somewhat later period, is Mr. Ostrogorski's article on "The Rise and Fall of the Nominating Caucus, Legislative and Congressional." In the section devoted to "Documents" is published the journal of Philip Fithian, kept at Nomini Hall, Virginia, in the year 1773–74.

The departments devoted to reviews of books and notes and news in the historical field are as full and varied as usual.

The statement is made that the American Historical Association, which held its annual meeting at Boston and Cambridge on December 27–29, 1899, now has 1,411 members and property amounting to more than $12,500. The next meeting of the association will be held at Detroit, in December, 1900.

BIBLIOTHECA SACRA.

AMONG the "secular" articles appearing in this quarterly are "Edmund Spenser and the English Reformation," by Theodore W. Hunt; "My Time at Rugby," by Dr. Henry Hayman; "Labor Legislation," by William Cox Cochran; and "The Cure of Penury," by Dr. Washington Gladden. In the latter article Dr. Gladden carefully distinguishes between poverty, pauperism, and penury. Poverty he does not expect to see completely abolished. It may be perfectly honorable, and the relief of poverty may be a duty. Pauperism, on the other hand—the poverty which seeks relief from the public treasury—may also have no discredit attached to it. Some of the unfortunate will always have to be cared for at the public expense. Dr. Gladden, therefore, does not look for the cure of pauperism. Penury, however, "is not purely poverty; it is the poverty that is abject and effortless and apparently chronic; the poverty that is occasioned by or that consists with a spirit of dependence, with a willingness to live upon public or private charity." It is this condition that Dr. Gladden seeks to cure. He declares that one of the main purposes of any charity organization society must be to find for every needy family a friend. "There is, indeed, a work of prevention here—the prevention of that misdirected and mischievous charity which becomes the propagator of penury and the accomplice of crime. One of the immediate causes of that evil condition which we are studying is the cruel and heartless almsgiving to beggars on the street and beggars at the door, which is simply godspeed to ruin."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly Review* for January contains three articles dealing with events in South Africa, from one of which we have quoted in another department.

THE PATH OF GLORY IN ENGLAND.

Mr. Joseph Jacobs has been delving in the pages of reference books for significant facts as to the acquisition of distinctions and renown by the people of the United Kingdom His conclusion is as follows:

"Clergy do not loom so large in the nation's eye as they did thirty years ago, and it is difficult to say whether the decline in quality and quantity recently complained of is either the effect or the cause. Law, on the other hand, appears to be doubly as attractive as it was thirty years ago, notwithstanding the pressure of competition within the profession. Doctors appear to stand stationary in attractiveness to the world and to themselves. As might have been expected, the services have become more popular, owing to the rising tide of imperialism and militarism; both on land and sea there are double the number of 'celebrities.' The reproach that England is not a musical nation is slowly being wiped out, if one can judge by the double quota of musicians in the later list. On the other hand, artists have somewhat declined in number, and as the later list includes sculptors and engravers in that rubric, the falling off is marked. Engraving, indeed, as a profession and as a means of obtaining fame has entirely died out; the engraver nowadays is a process maker."

BRITISH GAINS AND LOSSES IN THE PACIFIC.

Mr. J. G. Lee writes a well-informed article on this subject. He thinks the importance of Samoa has been

much exaggerated, and he is evidently firmly convinced that the natives have much more to gain from the elimination of the British factor than if the *status quo* had been maintained. The sooner Germany assumes her new responsibilities, the better will it be for whites and natives alike. "Samoa emerges from a long conflict rent and torn, but strange to say with five-sixths of her land still in the possession of her children." He thinks the Germans have been represented by officials anxious to conciliate all interests and acquire a thorough knowledge of native wishes and characteristics. Whether Samoa is destined to rise to an honorable position or to sink to the level of other decaying peoples in the southern seas depends chiefly upon the bureaucrats at Berlin. The agreement, so far as Samoa and Tonga are concerned, may be described as absolutely devoid of moral considerations. "We use as an article of traffic the independence of Samoa, which we were in honor bound to defend. We accept as the reward of our perfidy the sovereignty of Tonga, which was not Germany's to dispose of, and which we have promised should never be taken away save with the freest consent of the people."

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION FOR BLACKS.

Mr. E. M. Green has a short article on the progress of the South African natives in agricultural art. He describes the methods of Mr. Levey at Cala, in the Transkei where there is an agricultural society, with natives on the committee, by which trees are planted and new seeds and vegetables distributed among the people. Mr. Levey's opinion is that the native population is quite capable of developing the resources of the country if properly directed. The great want at present is a recognition of the dignity of manual labor.

PHILOSOPHY AND CULTURE.

Prof. James Sully reprints his paper, "Philosophy and Modern Culture," read as the opening address for the 1898-99 session of the University College. His paper is a defense of the utility of philosophic study as an instrument of education. He says:

"We must urge the study of philosophy, even though we know that it may lead in many cases to the addition of one more smattering to the other smatterings of the age; and we must do so for this reason, that it is desirable to give students, even at an unripe age, the opportunity of getting a taste of philosophic study, in order that the more serious of them may be induced to make it their frequent repast in later years. The highest end of education, it has been well said, is to prepare a youth for self-education. And this applies with peculiar force to training in philosophy."

ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND NEWFOUNDLAND.

Mr. P. T. Magrath, editor of the *Newfoundland Evening Herald*, of St. John's, Newfoundland, gives warning that the perennial dispute with France concerning her rights to the so-called French shore of Newfoundland became acute on January 1. He suggests that England, while enabling the French fishermen "to carry on the cod industry without intervention, should prevent them taking salmon, and should also prevent them harassing the coast folk or interfering with the latent resources of the region." Should the French object, Mr. Magrath would send one or more warships to assist Newfoundland in enforcing its bait laws, and then, he gayly says, "that will put the French in the position of having to assert their claims by force or else to acquiesce in the changed condition of affairs." In other words, at the very moment when England has all her available troops locked up in South Africa, she is to challenge the French to war over the French shore question. Mr. Magrath, of course, protests that he is not asking England to go to war; "but the inevitable logic of circumstances is placing England in the position that she must assert her supremacy ere long, and all the omens point to her being obliged to do so during this year."

GENDER IN LANGUAGE.

The peculiar habit of mind which has led peoples to attribute distinction of sex to sexless and inanimate objects has puzzled a great many people. Mr. J. G. Fraser puts forward the theory that the sex of inanimate objects was determined by different forms of speech in men and women. He gives a number of illustrations from the language of mixed and savage tribes to show that something resembling this process is still going on.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. C. Bailey contributes a review of "Stevenson's Letters," and Prof. Lewis Campbell has an article on "The Growth of Tragedy in Shakespeare." Mr. N. L. Jackson points out the dangers which sport suffers from the advent of professionalism.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for January, with the exception of Mr. J. A. Hobson's article on "Capitalism and Imperialism in South Africa," contains nothing of very special interest. We have noticed elsewhere Mr. A. R. Carman's paper on "Radicalism and the Imperial Spirit," an officer's review of "The War in South Africa," and Sir Walter Besant's reply to Mr. Buchanan's attack on Mr. Kipling.

RUSSIANS IN ASIA.

Mr. Demetrius C. Boulger contributes a paper on "Cabul and Herat," in which he states that the two main objects of Russia's policy in central Asia are to gain a port on the Persian Gulf and to establish a permanent diplomatic representative at Cabul. England cannot oppose the former project, and Mr. Boulger thinks it would be unwise to do so, but she should herself take steps to counterbalance Russia's gain. The diplomatic representation of Russia at Cabul should, however, be strenuously opposed. And Russia, Mr. Boulger thinks, should take the substance in the Persian port and lose the shadow in "the permanent resident at Cabul."

THE COMING REIGN OF THE AUTOMOBILE.

In an article on bicycles Mr. Joseph Pennell says:

"There is no use shutting our eyes any longer to the fact that the motor is the coming vehicle. The opposition of Parliament—with its desire to foster light railroads which ruin the roads, if they enrich contractors and company promoters and possibly members of Parliament as well—the silly restrictions of the police and the county council tramway and omnibus schemes for the moment interfere with this industry. But any one of sense knows that in ten years the automobile will be as common as the horse is in the streets to-day, and the horse will then be as occasional as the automobile is now. It may be in less time, for the boom is almost upon us."

CROMWELL'S CONSTITUTIONAL AIMS.

Prof. S. R. Gardiner, writing under this title, defends Cromwell from the accusation of being an opportunist without any fixed principle, whose only object was to gain for his government the support of the nation. He says:

"Cromwell, even in accepting constitutional in the place of military rule, battled to the last for that Puritan oligarchy without which his government was doomed. We may condemn, as I have already said, the line of thought which considered the maintenance of such a system possible. We have no right to charge Cromwell with conscious tyranny and law-breaking because he strove, with the utmost versatility, to mold his government in such a fashion as to place it above the waves of popular discontent."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Augustine Birrell reviews the letters of Robert Louis Stevenson. Prof. R. S. Conway, under the title of "The Riddle of the Nations," discusses some problems of ethnology and philology. Alice Zimmern, writing on "Ladies' Dwellings," gives an account of some efforts that have been made to provide cheap homes for educated working women. Dr. Stalker, writing on "Our Present Knowledge of the Life of Christ," deals with some problems of Christian scholarship. The Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco, under the title "Puer Parvulus," deals with the Italian Presepio.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for January is largely a military number, many of the articles bearing directly or indirectly on the South African War. We have quoted elsewhere from Mr R. B. Townshend's study of "The Common Mule."

THE WAR RELIEF FUNDS.

The Rev. C. G. Lang thinks that there is grave danger of the funds subscribed for the relief of British soldiers and their families not being laid out to advantage owing to lack of concentration, which will give rise to overlapping and confusion. As far as temporary relief is concerned, he thinks that the Soldiers' and Sailors' Relief Association would administer the funds better than any one else. What is required, however, is a national organization, specially formed to control the distribution. The function of this organization he defines as follows:

"(1) To attempt, if it be still possible, to bring the methods of temporary relief under common principles of action; (2) to induce the committees of the various funds to 'pool' their surpluses for permanent relief in a single national fund; (3) to consider carefully the best form which permanent relief ought to take; (4) if it accepts the patriotic commissioners as the best available trustees, to advise them as to the best procedure and to induce the public also on its authority to accept them; (5) to collect and use information as to the extent of the relief required in various parts of the country; (6) to provide a system of representative district committees, to give local information, to investigate and report on suitable cases, and to supervise locally the administration of relief."

CATHOLICISM AND "CURIALISM."

Dr. St. George Mivart, writing on "The Continuity of Catholicism," reviews the changes in general beliefs which have taken place among Catholics since the earliest days of Christianity. The object of his article is to show that though the majority of these changes have taken place in modern times, they have done so gradually and without any authoritative official recognition, and therefore without any interruption of the continuous life of the Catholic Church. The real enemy to this broad catholicity is what Dr. Mivart labels "curialism:"

"The curia has learned nothing as to the real condition of mankind beyond its own surroundings. Certainly it has learned nothing as to the nature and tendencies of that dominant factor in the world—our own race. Essentially despotic, it has still no glimmering of the truth that the English-speaking peoples have thrown off, once and forever, despotism of whatsoever kind, and will never submit to the centralized tyranny which is the curialist's only notion of government. The struggle will doubtless be long between catholicity (which desires all truth, justice, and rational liberty in religion) and curialism, but the defeat of the latter, however long delayed, is well assured."

STANDARDIZING SENTENCES.

Mr. Montague Crackanthorpe, Q.C., discusses the problem whether it is possible for judicial experts to fix conventional units wherewith to measure the punishment of crime. He thinks that a committee of the most experienced judges could attain this object:

"Suppose the Queen's Bench Division to choose six of its own body having the largest experience in criminal law. Suppose each of these to be asked what are the average sentences he would pronounce, apart from special circumstances, on an adult male who had been convicted of those offenses which most commonly recur, and who is not entitled to the benefit of the first offenders act. Having thus got six average sentences, let the *average of those averages* be taken. Let the same process be gone through where there are one or more previous convictions, and let the average of the increase of sentence attributable to that fact be ascertained in like manner."

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE'S GHOST STORY.

From Nathaniel Hawthorne's unpublished papers the editor selects a curious ghost story. It was written by Nathaniel Hawthorne in the year 1856. When Hawthorne was living at Boston he used to meet frequently in the Athenæum Club an old Unitarian divine of the name of Dr. Harris. This old gentleman, who was a somewhat quaint and unmistakable figure, used to occupy a certain arm-chair in the club where he used to read the newspapers. Hawthorne maintains that on the day on which he heard of his death and for several days and weeks afterward he saw the ghost of Dr. Harris sitting reading the newspaper in the same arm-chair before the fire. He does not think any one else in the club saw him. But he saw him unmistakably. The odd thing was that he never saw him come in or go out; sometimes he was not there.

"I saw the figure day after day for a considerable space of time, and took no pains to ascertain whether it was a ghost or no. I never, to my knowledge, saw him come into the reading-room or depart from it. There sat Dr. Harris in his customary chair, and I can say little else about him."

The ghostly visitant seemed to recognize Hawthorne, and on one occasion the ghost "fixed upon me from beneath his spectacles a melancholy look of helplessness,

which, if my heart had not been as hard as a paving stone, I could hardly have withstood. But I did withstand it; and I think I saw him no more after this last appealing look, which still dwells in my memory as perfectly as while my own eyes were encountering the dim and bleared eyes of the ghost."

JUDAISM IN FRANCE.

M. Paul Bettelheim has a short paper on "The Jews in France," which does not throw much fresh light on the problem. He thinks that the betrayal of General Boulanger by his Jewish supporters was one of the main political causes of recent French anti-Semitism. The social causes began to develop after the war with Germany:

"At this period it was noticed, or simply supposed, as it is everywhere, that the Jews managed to escape better than others. They began to be regarded with distrust. Their ways of doing business were criticised. This would have been nothing had it not been for the scandals of the Panama enterprise which were revealed at this time. With signal unfairness, but as could only be expected, the Christian promoters were entirely forgotten and the Jewish corrupters only—Baron de Reinach, Cornelius Herz, and Arton—were remembered."

M. Bettelheim thinks that French anti-Semitism is only a temporary phenomenon.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. C. Hadden, writing under the title "The Tinkering of Hymns," protests against the arbitrary changes which editors and others, who would not dare to change a passage of Byron or Shelley, think themselves free to make in sacred songs.

Mr. Herbert Paul has an article on Swift, whom he calls "The Prince of Journalists," and treats from that point of view.

Mr. Sidney Lee, writing on "Shakespeare and the Modern Stage," laments the fact that Shakespeare is more often on the stage in Germany and Austria than in his own country.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

IN the *National Review* for January is an article on a proposed coalition by "Carltonensis," which is dealt with among the "Leading Articles." In the same department we have quoted from Major Maxse's article on "The Last of the Dervishes."

CATHOLICISM IN FRANCE.

Mr. F. C. Conybeare has an article on "Popular Catholicism in France," in which he gives a somewhat squalid picture of the relation of the Catholic priesthood to their flocks. It is true, he says, that six out of seven grown men are indifferent to the Church even when they are not actually hostile. The victims of the clerical system are their wives and children, and few men have enough courage to break so far with the Church as to withdraw their families from its influence:

"The bacillus of superstition can only be eliminated by the culture in the mind of some healthier germ. Such a germ they see in French Protestantism, from which they have hitherto held aloof, however deep might be their antagonism to Catholicism. Now they frankly urge that all who are dissatisfied with the superstitions of Rome should openly declare themselves Protestants and commit the religious training of their children to the nearest *pasteur*. In no other way can their country escape the fate which has overtaken Spain."

A VISITOR'S VIEWS OF THE TRANSVAAL.

Mr. Bartley, M.P., who visited South Africa with his wife and daughter last August, gives an account of what he saw there. He visited Johannesburg at the time when the race feeling engendered by the agitation for war was at its height, but even then he does not seem to have come across any very serious evidence of oppression of the Briton by the Boer. About the most interesting thing in this paper is his account of his visit to the dynamite factory, from which it would seem that the Transvaal state is capable of being a model employer.

"While at Johannesburg the great controversy as to the renewal of the dynamite monopoly took place, and I paid a visit to the factory, which is most interesting and well worth the long day we spent in going over it. As a manufactory it leaves little to be desired. The village—or indeed it might almost be called the town—which is entirely devoted to it, is well and picturesquely built, and for those employed everything seems done that generosity and good treatment can do. One point, however, is remarkable, and that is that of the three or four thousand people employed, belonging to almost every nation, scarcely one, if one, is English. The profits are of course enormous."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Miss Jane H. Findlater has a paper on "The Art of Narration," which is worthy of the attention of budding novelists. The Rev. J. M. Bacon, who has an article on a somewhat similar subject in the *Nineteenth Century*, writes on "The War of Winds."

CORNHILL.

THE January number of *Cornhill* is full of interesting matter in an exceptionally readable form. The anecdotal element is as usual most noticeable. The bishop of London's lecture on the metropolis in the days of Queen Elizabeth and Rev. J. M. Bacon's "Signs and Seasons" also claim separate mention.

Natal is still in evidence, the reminiscences being furnished now by Lady Broome. She speaks highly of the colonial troops in 1876. Her only story of England's present enemies is of an intensely good-natured Boer who could not speak one word of English, who turned up at an English charity bazaar and bought the most expensive article from each stall, only to present it to the next stall.

"A Crimean Miniature" is the extraordinary narrative of a young officer who so distinguished himself in a night attack as to be offered the Victoria Cross. He declined the honor on the ground that he was drunk on the night of the attack and was unconscious of doing any brave deed. The last that was known of this honorable drunkard was that drink had brought him down to pauperism.

Mr. Stephen Gwynn supplies a vivid study of Sir Charles Napier.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS AND MAGAZINES.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

IN his chronicle of the fortnight in the second December number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Charmes makes some interesting observations on Great Britain's colonial secretary, with special reference to the famous Leicester speech. He tells us that Mr. Chamberlain was influenced by two feelings, against which every statesman ought to be carefully on his guard —first, the desire to parade ostentatiously the marvelous results of his policy, and, secondly, the wish to humiliate a neighbor nation. M. Charmes readily acknowledges that there has been for some time in England a sufficiently lively irritation against France, and he thinks that Mr. Chamberlain deliberately exploited this ill-temper for all it was worth in the way of popularity for himself. As for the abominable caricatures of the Queen, M. Charmes pleads that her majesty or her representatives had their remedy by the ordinary French law, but they failed to set it in motion. In justice to M. Charmes, however, it must be said that he entirely disavows those disgraceful productions of French pictorial journalism, though he hints that certain parallels might be found across the channel. For the rest, M. Charmes naturally rejoices over the grave rebuke which Lord Rosebery subsequently administered to Mr. Chamberlain, and concludes by asking whether Lord Rosebery could not lead a movement of reaction against the injustice which British public opinion does to France.

THE LATIN RACES.

M. Fouillée contributes a long article on the Latin races, which he defends with much vigor and eloquence against their detractors. He maintains that there is no scientific truth in the theories which maintain the native inferiority or the degeneration of the so-called Neo-Latin people. These theories he regards as only one of the innumerable shapes in which may be found the abiding tendency of humanity to reverence strength and success. Those who praise the glory of the Anglo-Saxon race are really praising industrialism, commercialism, and money. The question is whether the power of nations is to be measured solely by the standard of material success. Probably every one would agree in placing at the bottom of the list of Latin nations the kingdom of Spain ; and yet it is a plausible contention of M. Fouillée that the loss of the dead-weight of the colonies, which drew away every year a great part of the manhood of Spain, may be a blessing in disguise, and the country is certain to be repeopled now with rapidity. M. Fouillée next examines Italy. The increase of population in Italy is enormously greater than that of France, and is even slightly greater than that of Germany, while on the average every Italian drinks only one-fifth as much alcohol as every Frenchman. M. Fouillée then considers the state of his own country. France is generally considered to be suffering from too much democracy, ill-digested and ill-organized. M. Fouillée thinks that the marvel is, when the last twenty-five years of French history are considered, that his countrymen are not much worse. M. Fouillée reminds us of the commercial achievements of the Latin races in the past. Banking itself was an Italian invention ; the Portuguese doubled the Cape of Good Hope and covered India with their counting-houses, and apparently M. Fouillée's argument is, why should they not do so again ? Finally, he quotes that noble passage from Spinoza : "There is a place also for all peoples in the destinies of the great human family, and none is by nature or race doomed to decadence." The future is not, he thinks, either for Anglo-Saxons or for Latins, but for the wisest, the most industrious, and the most moral peoples.

INDIA THROUGH NATIVE SPECTACLES.

M. Filon concludes his study of India of to-day according to native Indian writers. He deals in this second article with European education and its effects upon Hindoo society. M. Filon complains that there are only about twenty natives in the higher posts of the government service, while there are many thousands of native graduates who have passed through the mill of one or other of the Indian universities. The native bachelor of arts is steeped in ideas which are based ultimately upon Christianity. In his university career he becomes familiar with monotheism, monogamy, liberty, justice, equality among classes, sexes, and individuals, respect for women and love of children, and then he goes back to his home, and he is at once in a totally different world. M. Filon appears to attribute to British hypocrisy and British wickedness in general some of the saddest results of the dependent position of women in India.

STRIKES AND TRADES UNIONS.

With special reference to the entry of M. Millerand, the socialist deputy, into the French ministry, and to the large strikes which have occurred in France with remarkable frequency of late, M. Bourdeau contributes to the second December number a paper of much economic learning and historical interest on this phase of the industrial democracy. He thinks that the working classes do not trouble themselves about political power except as a means of obtaining economic benefits, and while they aspire to control the state by their ballot-papers, they also seek to rule in the workshop by means of unions and strikes. M. Bourdeau traces the history of the industrial question in the principal countries of Europe and in certain British colonies—in fact, wherever events have brought it to the front—and his account is up to date, for he has included the great Danish lock-out and the Creusot strike. M. Bourdeau is convinced of the necessity for discovering some *modus vivendi* between labor and capital. We must, he thinks, enlighten the ignorance which prevails among the working classes as to industrial conditions, instead of exciting their avarice without being able to satisfy it.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE *Nouvelle Revue* for December is topical in so far as it has two or three articles connected more or less closely with the situation in South Africa, though these productions are of curiously unequal merit.

ANOTHER FRENCH VIEW OF MR. CHAMBERLAIN.

The first December number contains a study of Mr. Chamberlain from the pen of M. Beaugeard, and professedly based entirely on the judgment of Mr. Chamberlain's compatriots and of himself. The real interest

of the article lies in the evidence which the writer brings forward of Mr. Chamberlain's early good-will toward France, which contrasts amusingly enough with the German sympathies of the famous Leicester luncheon oration. For example, Mr. Chamberlain was present at a great meeting in the Birmingham town hall held on September 12, 1870, for the purpose of expressing sympathy with and good wishes for the prosperity of the newly proclaimed French republic. In his speech Mr. Chamberlain said that he had come to grasp the hand of the French republic, and he went on to praise republican government in general, even looking forward to a time when such a form of government should be established in England. M. Beaugeard briefly traces Mr. Chamberlain's career with special reference to his frequent changes of opinion upon both foreign and domestic policy. Summing up the colonial secretary, he reminds us that Cardinal Manning once told Mr. Stead that Mr. Chamberlain was a "hoity-toity fellow," and this judgment appears to commend itself to this French critic.

NATIONAL SENTIMENT AMONG THE BOERS.

Under the initials of "A. T.," the *Nouvelle Revue* publishes in its second December number a rather interesting paper tracing the genesis and development of the sentiment of nationality among the Boers. These people, he says, resemble more the migratory peoples of antiquity than the Batavians of the seventeenth century; they are essentially nomadic and have preserved the spirit of nomads. The notion of government, with its central unity, necessary discipline, and inevitable sacrifices, has always been repugnant to them. The organization of them into the South African Republic was a matter of difficulty, which took seven years. For a long time before the ultimate concentration the three communities of Lydenberg, Zoutpansberg, and Utrecht refused to unite with that of Potchefstroom, and that union was finally accomplished by what seemed more like the promulgation of a military ordinance than the conclusion of a constitutional agreement. Not the least unifying sentiment among the Boers is their universal hatred of England.

THE MINES OF THE TRANSVAAL.

M. Meunier contributes a paper on the mines of the Transvaal, in which, of course, he finds the principal motive for the war. M. Meunier's article is for the most part extremely technical, and deals with the subject almost entirely from the point of view of the mineralogist. For the rest, he thinks that just as the English hastened to annex Kimberley on the first news of the discovery of diamonds, so now the desire for the auriferous region of the Transvaal is the sole, or at any rate the main, motive of the present war.

THE VOULET-CHANOINE TRAGEDY.

M. Mévil, in some remarks on the terrible story of the Voulet-Chanoine mission, attributes it to the incompetence of French colonial methods. It is difficult to contradict him when he says that one more similar affair, and the prestige of France in the Sudan would be mortally wounded. M. Mévil pleads for the separation of colonial affairs from the sphere of ordinary political struggles, and their committal into the hands of competent persons uninfluenced by political considerations.

PRESS LEGISLATION.

In the first December number is published a report of a speech delivered by M. Cruppi at the College of Social Science on the subject of "Press Legislation." M. Cruppi recommends that there should be in certain press cases a sort of special jury consisting of two journalists of recognized honor, one nominated by the prosecution and the other by the defense; but, whatever may be the fate of that suggestion, M. Cruppi thinks that the press is at this moment undergoing a crisis. Distinguished men—he is, of course, speaking of France—shrinking from the abuse and calumnies of the newspapers, withdraw themselves from public life. The official is the slave of the journalist and the journalist is the slave of money. But M. Cruppi is hopeful, for the crisis does not seem to him so much one of mortal anguish as of development, analogous to that which the English press underwent at the end of the last century. The English press then fell into an abject state, from which it was only rescued by the assertion of the legal responsibilities of the newspapers for what they print. But that was not the work of a day, neither will a similar task in France be speedily accomplished, and on every ground M. Cruppi urges us to have patience.

PRINCE HENRY THE ANGLOPHOBE.

Prince Henry of Orleans has one of his characteristically Anglophobe articles dealing with the foreign and colonial efforts of France. At any rate, he pays perfidious Albion the compliment of believing that she knows her own mind and steadily pursues her foreign and colonial aims with sleepless vigilance, in forcible contrast to the drifting opportunism of France.

REVUE DE PARIS.

THE *Revue de Paris* for December fully maintains the reputation it has acquired for well-written and interesting articles.

THE REFORM OF COURTS-MARTIAL.

A sort of back-wash of the Dreyfus case is seen in the article by M. Dietz on the reform of courts-martial. He shows that the organization of French military justice has existed for a little more than a century, deriving its origin from three laws which were passed under the directory in 1796 and 1797. M. Dietz goes on to describe the main lines of a proposed reform, which he considers would not weaken in the least the discipline in the army or the authority of the commanding officers, while it would at the same time insure for the defense all those guarantees of justice which even the meanest citizen has a right to demand. Broadly speaking, this new plan aims at furnishing persons well acquainted with both military and juridical procedure as the *personnel* of courts-martial.

FOREIGNERS AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

M. Corday has an article very full of figures on the provision made for the accommodation of strangers at the forthcoming great show in Paris. It is rather curious, by the way, to see the Transvaal mentioned in the list of nations which will be officially represented. M. Corday explains how each country is represented by one or more agents, who arrange the building of the pavilions in which the manufactures of each particular country are displayed. It is evident from the descrip-

tion which he gives of certain selected features in the pavilions of all the various nations that the great exhibition of 1900 will absolutely surpass the glories of any of its predecessors.

PAN-BRITAINISM.

To the second December number M. Bérard contributes an analysis of the modern spirit of Pan-Britainism, which has, according to her neighbors, so unfortunately captured England. Much political information of exceptional interest may be gathered from this article: as for instance that Lord Salisbury, the nominal chief of the government, has practically given up the reins to the monopolist, J. Chamberlain. M. Bérard is not by any means converted to the dogma of fair trade patronized by Sir Howard Vincent. He does not see that it would pay England to sacrifice her gigantic foreign trade for the sake of what would certainly not be a corresponding gain in the shape of intercolonial trade.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among other articles may be mentioned the conclusion of those extremely interesting letters written by Georges Sand, in which we trace the history of her friendship with Francis Laur, and the commencement of a finely written study of the Brontë sisters by that charming writer long known as A. Mary F. Robinson, and now the widow of Prof. James Darmesteter.

REVUE SOCIALISTE.

PERHAPS the most important of the papers in the December number of this review is the one by M. Gustave Rouanet discussing the socialist congress recently held in Paris. Appended to M. Rouanet's paper are the resolutions adopted by the congress relative to the constitution and organization of the socialist party. M. Rouanet says they were unanimously adopted, and he calls them "the chart of the party." It is rather surprising that the "chart" does not contain a statement of the party's principles. The "chart" refers those who would like to know what those principles are to the formula of the convocation of the congress. The "chart" itself consists of numerous minute prescriptions relative to the organization of the party as a working body. Evidently the congress believed in the necessity of having a party machine.

RIVISTA ITALIANA DI SOCIOLOGIA.

IN "The Beginnings of Agriculture," the leading article of this review for September and October, the learned Giuseppe Salvioli seeks to determine the stage of human progress toward civilization when agriculture begins. After noticing the numerous traditions which attribute the introduction of agriculture to the kindness of deities, the writer examines the evidences derived from the condition of savage, barbarous, and semi-civilized peoples in various regions of the world who have come under European observation. The conclusion reached is that "agriculture enters into the history of humanity with the epoch of polished stone."

"The Italians Abroad," by Giovanni Lerda, is an attempted refutation of the notion which asserts the inferiority and social decadence of Italians as compared with northern races, especially Anglo-Saxons. The argument of the writer is based on the achievements of Italian emigrants in America and some other countries. Without passing judgment on the main question under consideration, it should be said that the writer makes assertions which are far too wide for the meager facts cited for their support.

Other articles treat of the theory of property and of the family and of national rivalry in European Turkey.

THE GERMAN AND AUSTRIAN MAGAZINES.

DIE ZUKUNFT.

THE December number of the *Zukunft* contains even more than the usual amount of highly interesting articles. There is, first of all, a pointed review of the present state of German internal and foreign politics brilliantly written by the editor of the *Zukunft*, Maximilian Harden, who has just returned from the fortress Weichselmünde, where he had been immured for six and a half months for *lèse-majesté*. A well-considered article on "The War in South Africa," by August Hornung, seems to state facts impartially and points out in an expert manner the faults and shortcomings of the British system of reserves, as well as the serious blunders committed by the Colonial and War Offices. The author's allusion to the seven years' war with the rebels in America may perhaps not be liked by the advocates of the Anglo-Saxon alliance, but it compels the thoughtful reader to think soberly and without too much optimism about the possible duration of England's latest "rebellion." "The Sultan's Wisdom" will interest English politicians as well as investors, dealing as it does with the new Iradé for the Bagdad railroad and the outlook for the development of Asia Minor.

DEUTSCHE RUNDSCHAU.

The *Deutsche Rundschau* has entered the twenty-sixth year of its career under the able editorship of the well-known author and critic, Dr. Julius Rodenberg. The December number contains a vivid description of "The Battle of Auerstädt," compiled by Paul Bailleu from King Frederic William III.'s own writings; and some excellent reminiscences by Gen. T. von Verdy du Vernois, entitled "At the Headquarters of the II. (Silesian) Army, 1866," which throw many a new light upon the character and military ability of the late Emperor Frederic. Besides these, one of the Nestors of German literature, Paul Heyse, chats entertainingly about "King Max and Old Munich." Among other subjects the literary review has a discussion on "Walt Whitman."

DEUTSCHE REVUE.

The high standard of this review for the past twenty-four years is well maintained, as can be seen by a glance at the names of the contributors and the subjects they have chosen for the December number. Vice-Admiral Reinhold Werner heads the list with an article on one of the Kaiser's recent war-cries: "Our future lies upon the water!" The well-known author tries his best to prove to the German taxpayer the necessity and advantage of opening his purse-strings in order to enable the Kaiser's government to construct a great navy. Dr. Max Nordau treats the subject of "National Sympathies" in his usual epigrammatic manner, dazzling the reader for the moment, but failing to convince and impress permanently. E. Pelman writes on "The Care of the Insane at the Close of the Nineteenth Century," showing frankly the shortcomings of the system

in use at the German insane asylums, pointing out the reforms that originated in England and France, and pleading strongly for more humane views and methods in the treatment of the mentally diseased as well as of inebriates. The Transvaal question is discussed from two different points of view. Sir W. H. Rattigan paints "The Future of the Transvaal" under English rule in very rosy colors. M. von Brandt, formerly German minister to China, presents the German opinion—both the official one of the government and the private one of the people. He thinks that only one possibility might prevent the ultimate victory of the English army—an outbreak of the plague—and believes that even after victory England will have much trouble to keep South Africa in check, and will be obliged to maintain at least 40,000 to 50,000 troops in the conquered countries.

DIE NATION.

The politics of the German empire and the sociological questions that occupy its ablest minds are ably set forth in *Die Nation*, edited by Dr. Theodor Barth, who is almost as well known in England and the United States as in his own country. In the breezy December number he discusses in vigorous style "Herrn von Miguel's Dementi" and the eventuality of the dissolution of the German Reichstag. Boris Minzès, of Sofia, sketches the history of Bulgaria during the past two decades. Benno Rüttenauer gives a character sketch of John Ruskin, and Albert Zacher, of Rome, describes the secret workings of "The Mafia in Palermo."

DIE NEUE DEUTSCHE RUNDSCHAU.

Lack of space makes it impossible to mention more than the leading features of the December number of the *Neue Deutsche Rundschau*, the Berlin monthly edited by Dr. Oscar Bie. Ellen Key in her article on "Conventional Womanhood" pleads eloquently against various forms of conventionalism in the woman's movement. She says:

"Courage and truth are the chief things lacking in woman. And these qualities must grow if woman's personality is to increase. This cannot be established by studies, be they never so thorough, nor by social tasks, be they never so full of responsibility. . . . Woman's personality must be developed from inward—that is the great woman's question. To liberate woman from conventionalism—that is the great aim of woman's emancipation."

Kurt Eisner offers a severe criticism of the dying century in "The Last Will of the Century." Three friends are discussing the testator quite seriously—a philologist, a physician, and a third, "who is nothing." The last named, who feels himself quite superfluous, is a morose cynic, endowed with good common sense and sound logic. This pseudonymous third declares that specialism has been the worst evil of our times, because people who devote their whole life and energy to the study of the third person singular of the imperfect tense of the irregular verbs, or the left hind leg of the frog or something like that, lose all interest in the rest of the world and fail to accomplish anything valuable because they are not in touch with the whole. He finally claims that we have no right to burden the coming century with doctrines derived from the mistaken development of the nineteenth century, but that in order to make future generations happy we must give them the heritage of the eighteenth century, now unheeded by ourselves—*i.e.*, the reign of common sense.

NORD UND SÜD.

Nord und Süd, edited by the well-known German playwright and novelist, Paul Lindau, contains in the December number a "fairy novel" by Jonas Lie, called "Lindelin," which disproves the frequent saying that the best works of an author are written before he has reached the age of sixty. The frontispiece shows an excellent portrait of this famous Norwegian poet and novelist—etching by Johann Lindner—and his character sketch is well drawn in an article by E. Brausewetter. Dr. Eugen Gottschalk, an eye specialist of more than local fame, explains with characteristic thoroughness, but in terms easily comprehensible to every one, the latest discoveries in the realm of light. Particularly interesting are the reports of the use of various "X, Y, and Z rays" in the treatment of infectious diseases like small-pox. His explanations about newly invented eyeglasses are also worthy of note. There is an excellent essay on "Philosophy and Psychology" by Carl Schneider, and T. Hutten contributes an article on Ellen Key and her much-discussed pamphlet, "Misused Woman's Energy."

VOM FELS ZUM MEER.

For more than eighteen years *Vom Fels zum Meer* has held its position as one of the leading illustrated magazines of Germany. The new shape—grand quarto—in which it now appears enables it to display its many beautiful illustrations to greater advantage. Thus in No. 7 of December the full-size picture "The Widow," from a painting by L. A. Pizardot, the double page "Largo," by Georg Schuster-Woldau, and the colored reproduction of an aquarelle by Wüst are masterpieces of modern art, both in drawing and printing. Not less artistic are some photographic views of Montenegro, accompanying a well-written article by Josef Beckmann about the small mountain principality on the Adriatic. Its gorgeous scenery and picturesque inhabitants are almost unknown to the rest of Europe, though the children of Prince Nikita have been intermarrying of late with some of the leading European royal families. He mentions the fact that the little warrior nation is just now near the edge of bankruptcy. No. 8 of *Vom Fels zum Meer* contains an interesting article on the the German painter Tischbein, illustrated by colored reproductions of three aquarelles which he had destined in 1824 as a gift to Goethe.

DIE GESELLSCHAFT.

This magazine, established some years ago as a kind of secessionist radical half monthly for the "Young German" literary school, upholds this policy still, under the editorship of M. G. Conrad and L. Jacobowski. The December number contains an appreciative study by Max Messer on Hermann Bahr, the apostle of Vienna's new school of authors and critics, and an up-to-date article by Jacobowski on "Literary Essays." There is a remarkable article on "The Deplorable State of Our Literature for Youths," written with thorough knowledge, honest indignation, and brilliant satire by "A Critic." The quotations from the works of the most-read authors of books for boys and girls prove beyond doubt that the greater part of this literature is manufactured wholesale by characterless penny-a-liners. It is chiefly composed of a mixture of blood-curdling adventures, nonsensical situations and speeches, horrible murders, and bad descriptions of foreign lands. "A Critic" considers that the enormous sales

of such literature are possible only on account of the stupidity and carelessness of parents, who do not do their duty in examining the mental food of their children.

DIE GARTENLAUBE.

An illustrated family paper that is to be found in almost every German home. The Christmas number is full of artistic colored illustrations and rich in humorous and pathetic Christmas stories. But serious subjects are nevertheless not neglected. The veteran author Rudolf von Gottschall sketches pictures of German history under the heading of "Forged Letters," Oswald Heidegger writes an appreciative character sketch of the world-renowned pedagogue Pestalozzi, and Rudolf Cronau dedicates several pages to "The Hundredth Anniversary of George Washington's Death."

DIE ZEIT.

The periodicals of Austria suffer equally with the daily press from the pencil of the censor. Frequently one finds large blank spaces in certain weekly or monthly publications, bearing diagonally the sole word "Confiszirt" (confiscated), and generally such articles are to be met with in *Die Zeit*, edited by Prof. Dr. T. Singer (sociology), Dr. M. Burkhard (literature and theater), and Dr. H. Kanner (politics). Whatever remains unconfiscated in this bold mouthpiece of Austrian public opinion is couched in such careful language that the reader must know how to read between the lines if he wants to understand what the authors mean. If he is able to do so he will gain a great amount of information which he could not gather elsewhere. Thus Ignaz Dasczynski, member of the Austrian Reichsrath, writes fearlessly on "Stanislaus Szczepanowski and the Galician System of Corruption," proving that in this Polish province fraud and bankruptcy reign supreme under the protection of officials and judicial courts by the arbitrary misuse of absolute government. Under the heading "Political Notes" an anonymous writer discusses the present political situation of the dual empire, and points out that at home and abroad the idea is constantly mooted of annexing Austria to a neighboring country. The author does not say whether Germany, Russia, or Italy is meant by this "neighboring country," but he fears, and quite correctly, that Austria, on account of her well-known peculiarities, would form an indigestible foreign body for the state by which she would be annexed. He finally proposes, on account of the existence of similar abuses in internal administration and for the sake of a harmonious solution of the burning question, "the amalgamation of Austria with Turkey," adding, for the eyes of the state prosecutor (censor), that he of course would regard Austria as the annexing state.

DER STEIN DER WEISEN.

One of the few serious and excellent productions of the Austrian capital is the illustrated monthly *Der Stein der Weisen*, edited by A. von Schweiger-Lerchenfeld and devoted to the latest discoveries and inventions in all branches of science. True to this programme, the December number offers an excellent illustrated article on "Flying Machines" by Karl Steffen, Artillery Major C. M. Rech's timely detailed description of "The Maxim Gun," and "A New Proof for the Bacon-Shakespeare Theory" by Josef Allram, with reproductions of the original prints of "Venus and Adonis." Dr. Zmietowski explains "Photography of the Movement of Blood and Liquids," and "The Little Drawer" of the magazine is rich in good illustrations and instructive descriptions of various topics from "Glass-Staining" and "Symbiosis" to "Cactea" and "Glasshouse Plants."

DIE KULTUR.

The December number of this well-edited monthly for science, literature, and art, published by the Oesterreichische Leo-Gesellschaft, contains an extremely valuable article on Walter Crane by Ludwig Gall. The author draws the attention of his readers to the fact that the annual exhibition of English furniture and house decorations at the Austrian Museum of Commerce has demonstrated to the public the exceedingly "sterling" ("gediegen" is the untranslatable word used) execution of all the exhibits, which show not only eminent practicability for the special purposes they are to serve, but also excellent taste. No doubt the annual exhibitions have revolutionized both the taste of the public and the old-fashioned ways of the designers and cabinet makers of Vienna. At present we see Walter Crane and English house-furnishing taking the lead in Austria's capital, once so famous for its artistic furniture. Every one interested in the matter must take pleasure in the way the author does justice to the "English master, whose name is not only famous in his own country and across the ocean, but also becomes more and more known on the continent." Dr. Virgil Grimmich, professor of the University of Vienna, summarizes in a learned essay, "The Conception of Soul in the Newer Philosophy," the *pros* and *cons* of modern psychology as to the existence of a separate or separable and immortal soul. The conclusion of an article, "Our Relation to Goethe," by Karl Muth, deals with the value of Goethe's life and works for Catholic—*i.e.*, Roman Catholic—Christianity. He claims that the great German poet was a Hypsistarian with inclinations and preferences for (Roman) Catholicism.

OTHER MAGAZINES.

Die Neue Zeit, true to its name, deals chiefly with the latest sociological features of the world in general and Germany in particular. Most remarkable is August Bebel's article, "The Reform of a Militia Army," in which the famous socialist leader proves the correctness of his propositions by the views of some leading military men. "B. B." gives some startling features of the life of proletarian actors, in which the income and expenditure of these poor nomads in Germany and Austria are told from the author's own experience. In "Hand and Machine" M. Beer, of New York, draws sound conclusions from the annual report of the United States Commissioner of Labor.

The *Archiv für Soziale Gesetzgebung und Statistik*, one of the most thorough and valuable bi-monthly publications devoted to sociology, and edited admirably by Dr. Heinrich Braun, contains in the last number an exhaustive study of "The Right of Coalition and the Penal Code," by Prof. Dr. Loewenfeld, of Munich. Peter von Struve, of St. Petersburg, contributes a critical essay on "The Marx Theory of Social Development," and there is an interesting report of the "Workingmen's Building Societies in the Suburbs of Copenhagen," by Inspector Niels Westergaard. Every one of these articles is as instructive and well considered, as is the review of sociological literature that concludes the excellent volume of almost three hundred pages printed in Roman characters.

THE NEW BOOKS.

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart's *Salmon Portland Chase*, in the "American Statesmen" series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is one of the very best biographies in that excellent series. Of the three "giants" in Lincoln's cabinet, Seward, Stanton, and Chase, the most attractive personality, in many respects, was Chase, the anti-slavery agitator, the finance minister of the Civil War, and the great jurist of the reconstruction epoch. To write an adequate life of Chase it was necessary, in the first place, to thoroughly understand the political anti-slavery movement of the Middle West, as distinguished from the so-called "Garrisonian abolitionism" of New England. Professor Hart has made himself a master of this period in our history. His analysis of Ohio political abolitionism has seldom, if ever, been equalled by any historian of our politics. Chase's career in the Senate, as Governor of Ohio, as Lincoln's Secretary of the Treasury, and, finally, as Chief Justice of the United States, was a matter of familiar knowledge a generation ago, but is now gradually fading into comparative obscurity. The whole of Chase's notable public career has been restudied by Professor Hart, and in this condensed volume the salient points have been set forth with due regard to proportion and to the historical perspective.

In a volume entitled *Men and Things I Saw in Civil War Days* (Eaton & Mains), Gen. James F. Rusling presents a series of portraits of the chief personalities of the war on the side of the Union. General Rusling was at different times in contact with nearly all of these commanders, and a diary and journal which he kept during most of the war has supplied many interesting incidents. In one chapter General Rusling has included numerous "army letters" written from the front in the years 1861–65. The illustrations of the volume (portraits) were made from photographs obtained during the war, many of which are of unusual interest.

Cuba and International Relations, by Dr. James Morton Callahan, Albert Shaw Lecturer in Diplomatic History, Johns Hopkins University, (Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore) is a treatment of Cuban history from a new point of view, that of the part played by the island in American history and diplomacy. Dr. Callahan's study has been based on the manuscripts in the State Department at Washington, the manuscript diplomatic correspondence of the Confederate States, also preserved at Washington, the various publications of the Government, and the record of congressional debates. Cuba's international relations are fully set forth, and the record as a whole is an ample justification of American intervention in 1898.

The *History of American Privateers*, by Edgar Stanton Maclay, author of *A History of the United States Navy* (Appleton), is the first attempt at a complete account of one of the most romantic and picturesque phases of American naval history. While American privateering was limited to our two wars with Great Britain, the Confederate States issued letters of marque, and the stories of the *Jeff Davis*, *Beauregard*, *Judah*, and *Savannah*, are related in Mr. Maclay's concluding chapter. Much of the material utilized in this volume has been gleaned from unpublished log books, and from the narratives of noted privateersmen and their descendants.

In a volume entitled *Briton and Boer* (Harpers) the articles presenting both sides of the South African question recently published in the *North American Review* are collected. These articles, written by such authorities as the Right Hon. James Bryce, Mr. Sydney Brooks, Dr. F. V. Engelenburg, and Karl Blind, are among the most important contributions to the Anglo-Saxon discussion of the question that have been made. They have been quoted or mentioned in preceding numbers of this REVIEW.

Some South African Recollections, by Mrs. Lionel Phillips (Longmans, Green & Co.), is a record and defense of the so-called "reform" movement in the Transvaal, which culminated in the Jameson raid four years ago. In this volume South African conditions are set forth from a strongly anti-Boer point of view.

In *A Prisoner of the Khaleefa* (Putnams), Charles Neufeld tells the wonderful story of his twelve years captivity at Omdurman. Neufeld's version of the circumstances of Gordon's death differs from that accepted by Slatin and others. He assersts that Gordon died fighting, after he had killed a number of the Dervishes. The earlier account had it that Gordon refused to defend himself. Neufeld, however, was not an eyewitness of Gordon's death, and perhaps his statement of what eyewitnesses told him is no more worthy of credence than the statements made by Slatin and Ohrwalder.

Mrs. Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer has based her *Judea, from Cyrus to Titus* (McClurg) very largely on the work of Renan. The period covered (537 B.C. to 70 A.D.) is the same as that treated by Josephus, who is no longer accepted by the critics as an historian of unimpeachable accuracy.

Romance of the Feudal Chateaux, by Elizabeth W. Champney (Putnams) is an attempt to reconstruct a few of the strongholds of chivalry. The work is the result of faithful studies in history and architecture, and presents in a peculiarly vivid manner the background of medieval romance. The illustrations are especially effective.

In *The Stones of Paris in History and Letters* (Scribners), Mr. and Mrs. Benjamin E. Martin have written "for those who seek in Paris something more than a city of shows, or a huge bazar." In the first volume the writers describe "The Scholars' Quarter in the Middle Ages," "The Paris of Molière and His Friends," "From Voltaire to Beaumarchais," "The Paris of the Revolution," "The Southern Bank in the Nineteenth Century." In the second volume we read of "The Paris of Honore de Balzac," "The Paris of Victor Hugo," "The Paris of Alexandre Dumas." In both volumes there is a charming blending of biography, romance, literary criticism, and history. The illustrations are numerous and excellent.

Historic Mansions and Highways Around Boston is a title given to a new and revised edition of *Old Landmarks and Historic Fields of Middlesex*, by Samuel Adams Drake, (Little, Brown & Co.). Mr. Drake is nowhere so much at home as in describing historic New England localities and landmarks. In the present volume the publishers have inserted some excellent full-page half-tone illustrations of historic buildings.

Mr. Charles B. Todd has written an excellent brief *History of the City of New York* (American Book Company). While chiefly intended as a text book for use in the New York schools, the work will interest all students of the city's history, for it is a concise, accurate, and impartial presentation of interesting facts and incidents. It should appeal especially to members of the City History Club, and, in fact, to the great mass of citizens.

SCIENCE AND NATURE STUDY.

Considerably less than a third of the volume entitled *A Century of Science, and Other Essays*, by John Fiske (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is occupied with the discussion of scientific subjects. The first essay, however, has given its title to the volume. This was first delivered in the form of an address in the First Unitarian Church of Philadelphia, on May 13, 1896, at the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the founding of the church under Dr. Priestly. It is a rapid survey of the achievements in the domain of science between Priestly's day and our own. The second essay of the volume is a study of "The Doctrine of Evolution: Its Scope and Purport." This is followed by a memorial address on Edward Livingston Youmans, a scientific writer and journalist, while the fourth essay is a discussion of "The Part Played by Infancy in the Evolution of Man." Among the non-scientific essays in the volume are studies of Sir Harry Vane, Francis Parkman and Edward A. Freeman, and several other literary and historical essays and addresses.

Science and Faith, by Dr. P. Topinard (Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company), is a treatment of "Man as an Animal, and Man as a Member of Society." The point of view is that of the anthropologist. The work has been translated from the French by Mr. Thomas J. McCormack.

Dr. D. Kerfoot Shute has written *A First Book in Organic Evolution* (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company). In this work the truth of the evolution theory is assumed; the author makes no claim for its originality and subject matter, but has aimed to present illustrative facts gathered from animal and vegetable life in a manner that may be interesting and helpful to those who are beginning the study of the doctrine. Free use has been made of the color process in printing the illustrations.

Several excellent elementary text books of natural history have recently appeared. Such are *Ways of Wood Folk*, by William J. Long; *Stories of Insect Life*, by Mary E. Murtfeldt, and Clarence Moores Weed; and a book of simple stories entitled *Friends and Helpers*. compiled by Sarah J. Eddy (Ginn & Co.). The object of these little books is to impart to children a fuller knowledge of the animal life about them, and to teach the value of kindness to all members of the animal kingdom.

Our Native Birds: How to Protect Them and Attract Them to Our Homes, by D. Lange, (Macmillan), is a suggestive book on bird protection, pointing out several means which, as the writer says, cannot be embodied in legal enactments.

The Honey-Makers, by Margaret Warner Morley, is a study of bees and bee culture by the author of *The Bee People*, and other entertaining works on plant and animal life. Miss Morley has drawn from ancient and modern literature much interesting allusion to the life of the honey bee family. (A. C. McClurg & Co.)

Miss Morley has also prepared an interesting little book on plant migrations, called *Little Wanderers*. (Ginn & Co.)

Prof. Conway MacMillan's *Minnesota Plant Life*, published by the University of Minnesota, is a work which should have imitators in many States. An edition of ten thousand copies of this valuable book has been published for distribution among the people of Minnesota. The author has sought to address a popular audience, and his book is notably free from the restraints of the ordinary text book. The author has aimed simply to describe the different kinds of plants in Minnesota, from the lowest to the highest, in their natural order, explaining certain plant structures in an elementary manner. Although many books have been consulted in the preparation of this volume, we may well believe the author's statement that, far from being a product of the study, *Minnesota Plant Life* "is much more the offspring of the woods, the prairies, the rivers, and the lakes." The distribution of this volume through the State cannot fail to diffuse a deeper knowledge of botanical life among Minnesota's population.

A brief manual of *Commercial Violet Culture* (A. T. De La Mare Printing and Publishing Company) has been written by B. T. Galloway, chief of the division of Vegetable Physiology and Pathology in the United States Department of Agriculture.

RELIGION, THEOLOGY, ETHICS.

Several books relating to the Scriptures and to textual criticism, which have recently appeared, are deserving of more extended notice than we are able to give them. The second edition of Prof. Richard G. Moulton's *Literary History of the Bible* (D. C. Heath & Co.), revised and partly rewritten, is especially noteworthy. Among the important additions is an appendix describing the metrical system of Biblical versification. Professor Moulton's whole work is a plea for a more vital appreciation of the literary qualities of the Bible.

Prof. Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago, is the editor of a series of "New Testament Handbooks" (Macmillan), the first of which is *A History of the Textual Criticism of the New Testament*, by Dr. Marvin R. Vincent, of Union Theological Seminary, New York. This is an admirable manual of the subject, prepared by an eminent scholar and based on the most exact and critical modern scholarship, and yet so simple and direct in style and method that it meets the needs of the student who is not a trained investigator.

The general principles of criticism are set forth in a novel and thought-provoking manner by Joseph Evans Sagebeer, Ph.D., in a little volume entitled *The Bible in Court* (Lippincott), which applies the method of legal inquiry to the study of the Scriptures.

Dr. R. S. MacArthur's series of Sunday evening lectures entitled *The Old Book and the Old Faith* (E. B. Treat & Co.) represents the conservative view of the higher criticism.

Jonah in Fact and Fancy (Wilbur B. Ketcham), by Edgar J. Banks, Ph.D., with an introduction by Dr.

Lyman Abbott, is an attempt to present "a clear, simple statement of all the facts which are known and many of the fancies which are entertained of Jonah and the Biblical book which bears his name." By this means the author hopes to assist people to form an intelligent opinion of the historical and religious value of Jonah.

To a still more "radical" school of Biblical critics belongs Mr. Moncure D. Conway, whose *Solomon and Solomonic Literature* has recently been published by the Open Court Publishing Company, of Chicago. Mr. Conway declares that "the eternal and historical data are insufficient to prove certainly that an individual Solomon ever existed." He is convinced, however, that a great personality now known under that name did exist, about three thousand years ago.

Important new contributions to theology are Dr. Washington Gladden's *How Much is Left of the Old Doctrines?* (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), the Rev. Charles F. Dole's *Theology of Civilization* (Crowell), and *The New Evangelism*, by the late Prof. Henry Drummond (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Each of these works presents the conclusions of the latest religious thought as applied to concrete problems of life. There is much constructive work in the three volumes, but probably neither of the authors was at all intent on developing a "system" of theology, and such books appeal far less to theologians as a class than to the plain men and women of the workaday world for whom they were written.

Of a more technical and conventional character is Prof. Charles W. Rishell's able discussion of *The Foundations of the Christian Faith* (Eaton & Mains). This is perhaps the latest attempt to review and restate comprehensively the whole body of fact and argument known as "the evidences of Christianity."

Bishop Randolph S. Foster's *Studies in Theology* (Eaton & Mains), in six volumes, is a valuable summary of the best thought on the subjects of "Theism," "The Supernatural Book," "Creation," "God—Nature and Attributes," and "Sin."

In the general field of moral philosophy Dr. Frederick Paulsen's *System of Ethics*, edited and translated by Prof. Frank Thilly (Scribners), has taken a place in the front rank of such treatises. This work is especially well adapted to the needs of the elementary student.

The second series of Gifford Lectures delivered before the University of Glasgow by the late Dr. Alexander B. Bruce is entitled *The Moral Order of the World* (Scribners). These lectures devote special attention to the philosophies of Buddha and Zoroaster and to dualism in both its ancient and its modern forms. The point of view adopted is not exclusively theistic. That is to say, the views of thinkers on the moral order of the universe are presented without regard to their belief or disbelief in a personal God.

In *The Revelation of Jesus* (Macmillan), Dr. George H. Gilbert, of the Chicago Theological Seminary, discusses the entire subject of the teaching of Jesus from the point of view of historical investigation. The book has subjected its author to charges of "unsound" theological teaching—on what grounds it is difficult to see.

The Rev. Father J. J. Burke has written a brief manual of the first five centuries of Christian history under the title of *Characteristics of the Early Church* (John Murphy Company, Baltimore). The work has received the approbation of Cardinal Gibbons and of other distinguished prelates in the Roman Catholic Church. The writer's chief aim is to show that the teachings and practices of the Roman Catholic Church of to-day are identical with those of the primitive Christian Church.

Many books are written and published with the hope that they may stimulate their readers to a higher life. Among these are not only the formally didactic treatises—now happily fewer than of old—but attractive and entertaining volumes made up in about equal proportions of pointed anecdotes and good advice, and addressed more particularly to the young. Two volumes of "sermons" that have recently come from the press of the Doubleday & McClure Company, while made up of matter that is anything but sermonic, judged by conventional standards, are examples of a very wholesome form of modern hortatory literature. Mr. Amos R. Wells draws the analogies used in his *Sermons in Stones and in Other Things* from the familiar objects of our daily lives, while in *Lay Sermons* Mr. Howard W. Tilton, the editor of the Council Bluffs *Nonpareil*, addresses a series of plain, personal talks on the affairs of life to the people most likely to be indifferent to the ordinary pulpit utterance.

In *The Eternal Building; or The Making of Manhood* (Eaton & Mains) the Rev. George T. Lemmon has incorporated a large fund of good sense and inspiring suggestion. Of the recent books on character-building this is one of the most virile and stimulating.

Two books have lately come from the study of the Rev. Dr. Louis Albert Banks, of Cleveland—*John and His Friends*, a series of revival sermons, and *A Year's Prayer-Meeting Talks* (Funk & Wagnalls Company).

The Rev. Dr. George M. Steele's talks to young people are published in a volume entitled *Character and Conduct* (Eaton & Mains).

POLITICS AND ECONOMICS.

First Principles in Politics, by William Samuel Lilly (Putnams) is a conservative Englishman's treatment of the well-worn themes of the origin, functions, and mechanism of the state. Perhaps the most suggestive chapter of the book is the one dealing with modern forms of corrupt politics and reviewing the various cures proposed. The most promising of these, in the author's opinion, is proportional representation.

Ex-President Bascom's *Growth of Nationality in the United States* (Putnams) is differentiated from the ordinary treatise in constitutional history by the author's attempt to develop and illustrate his theme in connection with the actual growth of American society. The method of the work is admirable and whether the reader accepts all of Dr. Bascom's conclusions or not, he cannot fail to be interested in their presentation.

Good Citizenship (Francis P. Harper) is a volume made up of twenty-three essays by various authors on social, personal, and economic problems and obligations. These essays are entirely the work of English men and women active in various lines of social reform. The book is edited by the Rev. J. E. Hand, with an introduction by Canon Gore. It is valuable, not so much for its theoretical discussion as for the light it throws on the practical phases of modern philanthropic effort in Great Britain.

The last number in the series of "Economic Studies," published by the American Economic Association, is an essay on *The English Income Tax*, by Joseph A. Hill, Ph.D. (Macmillan). Dr. Hill's study is based on personal investigations in England, as well as on an exhaustive review of the published materials relating to the in

come tax. State tax commissions and legislative committees will find Dr. Hill's monograph especially useful.

In the publications of the University of Pennsylvania the papers on railway coöperation by Charles S. Langstroth and Wilson Stilz, with an introduction by the Hon. Martin A. Knapp, chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, form an important contribution to the discussion of the railroad pooling question.

The last "extra volume" in the Johns Hopkins University "Studies in Historical and Political Science" is Dr. J. H. Hollander's *Financial History of Baltimore*, one of the first attempts at an exhaustive study of municipal financial history to be made in this country. The work is of more than local interest.

Federal Clearing Houses, by Theodore Gilman (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a discussion of the credit system and bank currency leading up to the proposition that the clearing houses of the country should be incorporated under a federal law.

In a volume entitled *The Wheat Problem* (Putnams) is included the famous address to the British Association by Sir William Crookes, together with chapters on the future wheat supply of the United States by Mr. C. Wood Davis and the Hon. John Hyde, chief statistician in the Department of Agriculture at Washington. In these papers the prospects of the American wheat supply are fully discussed.

In the 400-page *Comparative Summary and Index* issued by the New York State Library nothing pertaining to the legislation by the different States of the Union in the year 1899 seems to have escaped notice. The summary is preceded by an excellent review of the year's legislation prepared by the librarian of the department of sociology, Dr. Robert H. Whitten.

LITERARY CRITICISM.

In a little book of essays entitled *A Group of Old Authors* (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) Mr. Clyde Furst, one of the lecturers for the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, gives some interesting illustrations of the condition of European literature at several periods between the sixth and the sixteenth centuries. The subjects treated are "A Gentleman of King James' Day" (Dr. John Donne), "A Mediæval Love Story" (Chaucer's tale of Griselda), "The Miraculous Voyage of St. Brendan," "An Anglo Saxon Saint" (Aldhelm) and "The Oldest English Poem" (the Beowulf).

The essays on literary topics recently contributed to the reviews by Mr. Frederic Harrison are republished in a volume entitled *Tennyson, Ruskin, Mill* (Macmillan).

A model text-book in its field is Prof. Fred Lewis Pattee's *Foundations of English Literature* (Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.). The author has eliminated much unessential biographical material and considered only such writers as were "materially concerned in the evolution of English literature."

A scholarly treatise on *The Rise of Formal Satire in England under Classical Influence*, by Mr. Raymond Macdonald Alden, has been published by the University of Pennsylvania.

SOME NEW EDITIONS.

Five of the most famous of Rudyard Kipling's short stories are published in Doubleday & McClure's "Single Story Series," the ones selected being *The Man Who Would Be King, The Courting of Dinah Shadd, The Incarnation of Krishna Mulvaney, The Drums of the Fore and Aft*, and *Without Benefit of Clergy*. From the same publishers comes a handsome edition of Charles Reade's *Peg Woffington*, which is sumptuously illustrated by upwards of seventy illustrations drawn by Hugh Thomson. Mr. Austin Dobson also furnishes an extended introduction.

Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie's delightful volume of essays entitled *My Study Fire* is brought out in an illustrated edition by Dodd, Mead & Co. Such a book as this is one of the most difficult for purposes of illustration, but the large number of pictures drawn by Maude and Genevieve Cowles succeed very well in catching the spirit of Mr. Mabie's writings. The same publishers present an edition of George Eliot's *Silas Marner*, with interesting full-page illustrations by Reginald Birch, and an unillustrated reprint of Mark Rutherford's *Revolution in Tanner's Lane*, a social study of English life three-fourths of a century ago.

The Macmillan Company have recently acquired the rights to *Main-Travelled Roads*, by Hamlin Garland and *Diomed: The Life, Travels, and Observations of a Dog*, by John Sergeant Wise, and issue new editions of these works, as well as a one-volume edition of F. Marion Crawford's *The Ralstons*. Several new stories by Mr. Garland have been added to the new edition of *Main-Travelled Roads*.

A new edition of Julian Hawthorne's *Archibald Malmaison* is published by the Funk & Wagnalls Company, and also a volume of eleven short stories by Count Leo Tolstoy, Charles G. D. Roberts, Florence M. Kingsley, and others, the title being taken from Julian Hawthorne's *One of Those Coincidences*. Mrs. Burton Harrison's *The Anglomaniacs* (Century) comes out in new dress, with several of Mr. C. D. Gibson's characteristic drawings; and Mr. J. T. Friedenson supplies pictures for Thomas Gray's *An Elegy in a Country Churchyard* (John Lane). *King Noanett* is now published by the Scribners, who bring out this popular historical tale with their imprint.

Three volumes have been published in the elaborate "Haworth edition" of the books of the Brontë sisters (Harpers). Each of these has an introduction by Mrs. Humphry Ward. *Shirley*, the tale which occupies the second volume in this series, has a pathetic history. It was written by Charlotte Brontë at a time of overwhelming domestic affliction. Two sisters and a brother died before the story was completed.

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[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

Ains.	Ainslee's Magazine, N. Y.
ACQR.	American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.
AHR.	American Historical Review, N. Y.
AJS.	American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.
AJT.	American Journal of Theology, Chicago.
ALR.	American Law Review, St. Louis.
AMonM.	American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.
AMRR.	American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.
ANat.	American Naturalist, Boston.
AngA.	Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.
Annals.	Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.
APB.	Anthony's Photographic Bulletin, N. Y.
APS.	Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Arch.	Architectural Record, N. Y.
Arena.	Arena, N. Y.
AA.	Art Amateur, N. Y.
AI.	Art Interchange, N. Y.
AJ.	Art Journal, London.
Art.	Artist, London.
Atlant.	Atlantic Monthly, Boston.
Bad.	Badminton, London.
BankL.	Bankers' Magazine, London.
BankNY	Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
Bib.	Biblical World, Chicago.
BSac.	Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.
BU.	Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.
Black.	Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.
BTJ.	Board of Trade Journal, London.
BB.	Book Buyer, N. Y.
Bkman.	Bookman, N. Y.
BP.	Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
Can.	Canadian Magazine, Toronto.
Cass.	Cassell's Magazine, London.
CasM.	Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.
Cath.	Catholic World, N. Y.
Cent.	Century Magazine, N. Y.
Cham.	Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh.
Char.	Charities Review, N. Y.
Chaut.	Chautauquan, Cleveland, O.
CAge.	Coming Age, Boston.
Cons.	Conservative Review, Washington.
Contem.	Contemporary Review, London.
Corn.	Cornhill, London.
Cos.	Cosmopolitan, N. Y.
Crit.	Critic, N. Y.
Dem.	Demorest's Family Magazine, N. Y.
DH.	Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg.
Deut.	Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.
Dial.	Dial, Chicago.
Dub.	Dublin Review, Dublin.
Edin.	Edinburgh Review, London.
Ed.	Education, Boston.
EdR.	Educational Review, N. Y.
Eng.	Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
EM.	España Moderna, Madrid.
Fort.	Fortnightly Review, London.
Forum.	Forum, N. Y.
FrL.	Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.
Gent.	Gentleman's Magazine, London.
GBag.	Green Bag, Boston.
Gunt.	Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.
Harp.	Harper's Magazine, N. Y.
Home.	Home Magazine, N. Y.
Hom.	Homiletic Review, N. Y.
HumN.	Humanité Nouvelle, Paris.
Int.	International, Chicago.
IJE.	International Journal of Ethics, Phila.
IntM.	International Monthly, N. Y.
IntS.	International Studio, London.
IA.	Irrigation Age, Chicago.
JMSI.	Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.
JPEcon.	Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.
Kind.	Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.
KindR.	Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.
LHJ.	Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.
LeisH.	Leisure Hour, London.
Lipp.	Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.
LQ.	London Quarterly Review, London.
Long.	Longman's Magazine, London.
Luth.	Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.
McCl.	McClure's Magazine, N. Y.
Mac.	Macmillan's Magazine, London.
MA.	Magazine of Art, London.
MRN.	Methodist Review, Nashville.
MRNY.	Methodist Review, N. Y.
MisH.	Missionary Herald, Boston.
MisR.	Missionary Review, N. Y.
Mon.	Monist, Chicago.
MunA.	Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
Mun.	Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.
Mus.	Music, Chicago.
NatGM.	National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
NatM.	National Magazine, Boston.
NatR.	National Review, London.
NC.	New-Church Review, Boston.
NEng.	New England Magazine, Boston.
NIM.	New Illustrated Magazine, London.
NW.	New World, Boston.
NineC.	Nineteenth Century, London.
NAR.	North American Review, N. Y.
Nou.	Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
NA.	Nuova Antologia, Rome.
OC.	Open Court, Chicago.
O.	Outing, N. Y.
Out.	Outlook, N. Y.
Over.	Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
PMM.	Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Pear.	Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
Phil.	Philosophical Review, N. Y.
PhoT.	Photographic Times, N. Y.
PL.	Poet-Lore, Boston.
PSQ.	Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
PRR.	Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila.
PQ.	Presbyterian Quarterly, Charlotte, N. C.
QJEcon.	Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
QR.	Quarterly Review, London.
RasN.	Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
RefS.	Réforme Sociale, Paris.
RRL.	Review of Reviews, London.
RRM.	Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
RDM.	Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
RDP.	Revue du Droit Public, Paris.
RGen.	Revue Générale, Brussels.
RPar.	Revue de Paris, Paris.
RPP.	Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
RRP.	Revue des Revues, Paris.
RSoc.	Revue Socialiste, Paris.
RPL.	Rivista Politica e Letteraria, Rome.
Ros.	Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
San.	Sanitarian, N. Y.
School.	School Review, Chicago.
Scrib.	Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
SelfC.	Self Culture, Akron, Ohio.
SR.	Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Str.	Strand Magazine, London.
Sun.	Sunday Magazine, London
Temp.	Temple Bar, London.
USM.	United Service Magazine, London.
West.	Westminster Review, London.
Wern.	Werner's Magazine, N. Y.
WWM.	Wide World Magazine, London.
WPM.	Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Yale.	Yale Review, New Haven.
YM.	Young Man, London.
YW.	Young Woman, London.

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THE LATE JOHN RUSKIN, M.A., LL.D.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The South African Spectacle.

The amazement of the world at the war situation in South Africa became greater rather than less as the weeks went by and four months had elapsed since the war began on October 12. General Buller had started for the front with comforting assurances to the British public that he and his legions would eat their Christmas dinners at Pretoria. The War Office and all the military experts in England, in so far as they had the public ear, confirmed this prediction. The Queen herself was promised by her ministers that the war would be of quick duration—a sort of holiday march—and her freedom from misgivings was shown by the jaunty fashion in which she sent out the many thousands of specially stamped cakes of chocolate to be served with her compliments to all the men when they ate those Pretorian Christmas dinners. Plum puddings in vast quantity likewise were dispatched from England; and the young men of the aristocracy, who called the war "excellent pig-sticking," conceived it all as a rather jolly adventure. Never perhaps had any serious enterprise been undertaken by a modern government with so little notion of the immense difficulties that were to be faced. From one extreme English sentiment went to the other. The jingoes who wanted war with the Transvaal, and who had been showing for a year or two how easily they could teach the Boers their lesson, began at length to devote their military talents to the explanation of the great advantages possessed by the enemy, and the almost insuperable obstacles that must be overcome inch by inch with vast armaments before Pretoria could be reached. One thing at least the English military writers have demonstrated to the satisfaction of all the rest of the world, and that is that they have only a guessing knowledge of the matters they discuss. It has been made clear again and again that the English do not even know the country in which they have been fighting.



A TYPICAL BOER SOLDIER.

Where Ignorance Is Not Bliss, but Folly.

This is the more astonishing because the war thus far has been mainly upon their own ground. Natal has belonged to the British for a generation, and yet, it appears, they have never made an accurate survey of it. In anticipation of trouble with the Boers they had created a great depot of military supplies at the town of Ladysmith, and yet they were unable to provide their generals with accurate maps of the immediate vicinity. From one direction and another those generals repeatedly tried to approach Ladysmith, with a grotesquely imperfect notion of the places where streams could be forded, and no precise information accumulated in advance regarding the relative importance for military purposes of various

ranges and detached hills. These generals sent back reports from time to time concerning the great numerical strength of their intrenched opponents. But the real fact is that they knew nothing, except by rumor, as to the numbers of the Boers, who almost invariably fight from positions where they are absolutely concealed. They use smokeless powder, can kill at a mile, and seldom offer themselves as targets.

As to Relative Numbers.

From information that did not come by way of the English censors or the British War Office, we are led to the conclusion that in some at least of the engagements one Boer has been matched against ten Englishmen. It will be remembered that even with the weapons of those ancient times the 300 Spartans in the pass of Thermopylæ were almost enough for the invading hosts of Persia. If those Spartans had possessed a piece or two of Krupp or Creusot artillery, a few Maxim or Nordenfeldt machine guns, and a couple of hundred Mauser rifles, with the skill to use their weapons and a supply of ammunition, they could have held the pass of Thermopylæ indefinitely against all the men in the Persian empire. Now, it happens that the Boers are natural marksmen. In that regard they are like our own frontiersmen of a generation ago. But besides being individually proficient in the use of arms, the Boers are also supplied abundantly with weapons of the latest and best patterns. They took warning at the time of the Jameson raid, some five years ago, and began to provide and expend a large war fund. It was easy to get the money because of the immense prosperity of the gold mines that the Uitlanders held in the Johannesburg district. Taxation was so arranged that a good proportion of the profits of the gold-mining went into the Transvaal treasury, and the greater part of the



THE DEPARTURE OF "LONG TOM" FROM PRETORIA.

public revenue thus received was secretly spent in preparation for war. This might be regarded as an anticipatory war indemnity. It had a rather fine touch of irony about it, certainly. The "Statesman's Year Book," upon which Englishmen rely—and the editors of which usually are at least as well informed as the British Government—in its edition for last year stated that this South African Republic of Mr. Krüger's had no standing army, with the exception of a small force of horse artillery of 32 officers, 79 non-commissioned officers, and 289 men. Apart from a few artillerists at Bloemfontein, the Orange Free State also, on its part, had no standing army. Yet now the allied republics seem to have a veteran soldier behind every rock in South Africa, not to mention the thousands who are fighting snugly behind skillfully constructed trenches. Some of them told an Australian journalist last month that they had 120,000 men under arms. This staggers belief, of course. Nevertheless they are numerous enough to man a great many of the Thermopylæs that nature has so generously provided.



"LONG TOM" IN POSITION AT VOLKSRUST.
(To illustrate the Boer method of protecting big guns in the field.)

A Practical Deadlock.

The situation is so astonishing that one can only wonder what will happen next, and no one possessed of common sense cares to hazard predictions. Thus far the war has been in some respects like that between the Cubans and the Spaniards. Generals Gomez and Maceo did not run the risk of open battle, but with their superior knowledge of the country and possesssion of the interior hills they



BOER SOLDIERS DRAGGING ONE OF THEIR FAMOUS GUNS TO THE TOP OF A HILL.

maintained their resistance until the Spaniards had accumulated a force of something like 200,000 soldiers, transported across an ocean, with the attendant burdens of maintenance and the ravages of disease to face. Thus the situation in Cuba became completely deadlocked. The Spaniards could not conquer the insurgents, and the insurgents, on their part, could not drive out the Spaniards. The intervention of the United States was a mercy to both contending parties and, if possible, a greater kindness to Spain than to Cuba. Thus far in the South African War there seems to have been very little open fighting. The Boers have been able to hold the English fairly in check, but have not been able to carry out their original intention of sweeping down to the principal parts of Natal and Cape Colony. The English have been steadily transporting men and supplies, while the Boers, having for the most part chosen their positions and taken the defensive, have been able to make effective use of their comparatively small male population. Some fairly disinterested intervention would extricate Briton and Boer alike from a bad situation.

A Losing War for Both Sides.

The war is a hideous mistake for both belligerents. The English were wrong in provoking it and the Boers were wrong in precipitating it. No Englishman has ventured to suggest any possible outcome of the war that would be valuable enough to justify the loss of British blood that has already occurred. The Boers indeed might well say that from their point of view the war was worth while if it should have resulted in the expulsion of the British from South Africa and the creation of a federated republic under Boer predominance; but this is an outcome of which there has never been more than the ghost of a chance. All wars are regrettable enough in their incidents, but some are relatively good, viewed in the light of their results, if they are afterward seen to have served the higher ends of justice or to have brought some great and positive good to one combatant or to the other. But this war in South Africa does not promise to serve the higher ends of justice even in the smallest degree; nor does it appear likely that it can bring any great or positive good to either combatant, no matter which side may win in the end. It has, of course, always been our opinion, as our readers are aware, that the British, by virtue of their immeasurably superior resources, would carry the day, but they will have to treat with due respect a foe that has shown such power of resistance; and it is not certain by any means that, even as the result of a successful war, the British can now gain anything like as full a control over the destinies of South Africa as would in any case have been theirs in the natural order of things within five



A HINT FOR SOUTH AFRICA.—From the *Criterion* (New York).

or ten years at the furthest if they had simply let things alone.

American Opinion on the War.

The English press continues to show great interest in the nature of American sentiment and opinion regarding the war in South Africa. It may be safely said that the feeling of the American people is far more friendly toward the English *people*, whom they know, than toward the Boer people, who are strangers in the full sense. But at the same time American feeling is far more favorable toward the Boer *cause* than toward the English cause in this particular war. There is nothing paradoxical about this state of mind. The people of the United States have always been in sympathy with English Liberals rather than with English Tories. When the leading Liberals are candid enough, in the face of the war excitement, to say plainly that England is waging an unjust and improper war, with an unanswerable array of facts and arguments, it is not strange that Americans, who are outside the influence of the war excitement, and able, therefore, to look at the situation soberly, should adopt as their own the opinion of men like Morley, Bryce, and Harcourt. There is indeed much racial fellow-feeling between England and the United States; but it must not be supposed that the family feeling is strong enough to blind us to the merits of a controversy. At least it is quite too much to suppose that such sympathy, growing out of kinship and the possession of a common language and literature, would assert itself actively except upon occasions of magnitude. If England were in desperate warfare with a coalition of the great European powers, the English blood of America would be aroused quite irrespective of the nature of the quarrel that had led to the war—just as the German blood of America was excited to the utmost on behalf of Germany during the Franco-Prussian contest.

Americans Swear by Bryce.

Intelligent Americans, as a rule, had several years ago made up their minds that the rapid development of the richest gold fields in the world must lead to the extension of English supremacy and sovereignty throughout South Africa. But they saw no reason why the situation should be forced, and could not approve of the nagging and bluffing diplomacy which precipitated the war. It is probable that Mr. James Bryce's book, "Impressions of South Africa," has had more readers in the United States than in England. Mr. Bryce's great work upon our own institutions was so able, complete, and impartial that Americans look upon him as a trained observer of the very highest qualifications, with the habit of precision and accuracy, both in matters of history and of current controversy. On the other hand, Americans do not in the least regard Mr. Chamberlain as an impartial exponent of the South African question; while Mr. Balfour's perfunctory apologies only serve to show the moral weakness of the present British Government. Mr. Bryce, by virtue of the views he holds, certainly does not make himself an enemy of the English people; on the contrary, he shows his British loyalty in the truest and highest sense, by his desire that his own country should do what is right and wise. It is only by considering the position of their own fellow-citizens who entertain Mr. Bryce's views that the British public in general can properly appreciate the point of view of the people of the United States.

Opposition Sentiment in England.

When our war broke out with Spain both houses of Congress, regardless of party distinctions, supported President McKinley without the defection of a single Senator or Representative. Public opinion throughout the country, in like manner, was united in support of the policy of the Government. But England conducts this South African War in the face of the outspoken condemnation of the most sincere and thoughtful portion of her people. Lord Rosebery, the Liberal leader in the House of Lords, has never in all his public career been so powerful in speech and so scathing

withal as in his replies to Lord Salisbury's pitiable excuses and palliations in explanation of the predicament in which he has allowed Mr. Chamberlain to plunge the country.

In Commons and Press.

It is true that in the House of Commons the majority of the Liberals, under the lead of Mr. CampbeH-Bannerman, have taken the ground that they will not obstruct the Tory government in the work of prosecuting the war. But almost the entire Irish contingent and a portion of the English Radicals in the House have been making incessant attacks upon the ministry. In these debates the government leaders have not appeared to good advantage. The only man on that side of the House who has improved his reputation is Mr. George Wyndham, who speaks on behalf of the War Department, to which he is attached as parliamentary under secretary. The London press, while in general supporting the war and opposing the Boers with unrestrained malignity, has been extremely severe in its criticisms of the ministry for its lack of military foresight and its general inefficiency in the conduct of the war. Several of the ablest and most prominent journalists in London have resigned their positions because conscientiously opposed to a war that their employers were determined to support.

The "Stop-the-War" Movement.

One of these, Mr. W. M. Crook, who was editor of the *Echo*, is now secretary of a national committee that is demanding that the war be stopped. The chairman of this movement is the Rev. Dr. Clifford. The general committee has issued the following remarkable appeal, which has been sown broadcast throughout England in the form of leaflets, handbills, and posters:

TO OUR FELLOW-COUNTRYMEN:

We Appeal to You to Stop the War.

It is an unjust war which ought never to have been provoked.

It is a war in which we have nothing to gain, everything to lose.

To "put it through" merely because we are in it is to add crime to crime.

And All for What?

Why are our sons and brothers killing and being killed in South Africa?

Why are happy homes made desolate, wives widowed, and children left fatherless?

Let Us Face the Facts!

There would have been no war if we had consented to arbitration, which President Krüger begged for, but which we haughtily refused.

There would have been no war if the government had counted the cost.

There would have been no war if the capitalists at the gold fields had not hoped it would reduce wages and increase dividends.

There would have been no war but for the campaign of lies undertaken to make men mad against the Boers.

And Who Are the Boers?

The Boers are the Dutch of South Africa, white men, and Protestant Christians like ourselves.

They read the same Bible, keep the same Sabbath, and pray to the same God as ourselves.

They believe that they are fighting for freedom and fatherland, with the unanimous support of Europe except Turkey.

What Are We Fighting For?

We have been at war for three months, thousands have been killed and wounded, but to this day neither side knows what the other is fighting for.

Each side asserts that the other is fighting for something which the other denies that it wants.

Why Not Call a Truce?

We might then get to know for the first time what is the real difference between us.

And when we had in black and white what each side wants, we should then be able to see what could be done to arrange matters.

If we could not agree on a settlement, then we ought to refer the difference to arbitration.

If We "Put It Through" What Does It Mean?

The sacrifice of the lives of 20,000 of our brave sons.

The slaughter of at least as many brave Boers.

Hard times for the poor at home.

Dislocation of trade.

The increase of taxation.

The waste of £100,000,000 of our hard-earned money.

And in the end

CONSCRIPTION!

Is the Game Worth the Candle?

If we wade through blood to hoist the Union Jack at Pretoria our difficulties will then only have begun.

We shall have conquered a people we cannot govern.

If we try to govern them against their will we shall have to keep 50,000 soldiers in their country.

We Do Not Want Another Ireland in South Africa.

Therefore we appeal to you to

STOP THE WAR AND STOP IT NOW!

Signed on behalf of the "Stop-the-War Committee."

JOHN CLIFFORD, D.D., Chairman of General Committee.

SILAS K. HOCKING, Chairman of Executive.

W. M. CROOK, Hon. Sec.

The American Versus the Irish Attitude.

Thus the American private citizen finds his own view confirmed by an ample English opinion. Our Government, on the other hand, has no right to an opinion, and it has had only to maintain a scrupulous neutrality. Good relations with the British Government are desirable for the United States, and there is nothing in the causes or conditions of the South African War that should in the least diminish the excellent diplomatic relations that now exist between Washington

and London. Even those Americans who are strongest in their denunciations of the war and most earnest in their expression of sympathy for the Boers do not, so far as we are aware, desire any lessening of the friendliness and goodwill which mark all our official relations with England and the British empire. This observation, of course, is not intended to apply to certain extreme manifestations in which Irishmen are chiefly prominent. Genuine Americans have no sympathy at all with the vindictive clamor of those whose professed friendliness for the Boers is only a new way to express their old hatred of England. Those who are frankest in these expressions, like Miss Maud Gonne, who has come to this country from Ireland to participate in the pro-Boer agitation, do not hesitate to say that it is their policy to assail England whenever the chance offers, regardless of the right or wrong of England's position. They hold that "England's difficulty is Ireland's opportunity."

Nationalists and Fenians.

This position has also been taken by the shattered fragments of the Nationalist party in Ireland, and the factions have patched up at least a temporary truce under the leadership of Mr. John Redmond, in order the more effectively to nag England in Parliament while the war trouble lasts. This, it need not be said, is wholly foreign to the spirit of the English Liberals, whose attitude toward the war proceeds from love of their country and solicitude that its true principles should prevail in the carrying on of its vast empire. The behavior of the Irishmen looks dangerously like disloyalty. Some day soon the newspapers will perhaps create a passing sensation by disclosures concerning the undoubted efforts of the extreme Irish wing to precipitate at this time an invasion of Canada. We do not believe, of course, that such an attempt will actually be made; while, on the other hand, we do not in the least doubt the rumors that it has been plotted. Our Canadian friends, if they choose, may send all their fighting men to South Africa in perfect assurance that the United States can and will restrain its own Fenians. With Irishmen fighting the battles of the British empire in South Africa, as they have fought British battles everywhere else for a century past, English opinion can afford to be indulgent toward the whimsicalities of the Fenians, and also to be far more generous toward the real grievances of Ireland than it has been in the past.



MISS MAUDE GONNE.

Where the Empire Is Strong.

As against the gloomier aspects of this South African War, our English friends see standing out in bright relief the splendid spirit of loyalty and helpfulness that Canada and Australia have manifested ever since the trouble began. Looking beyond all the specific and immediate phases of the South African contention, England's best argument in defense of her general good intentions could be expressed in the two words—Canada and Australia. Surely the best modern ideals of liberty and justice are as nearly realized in Canada and Australia as in any other large areas of this planet. Each is essentially a self-governing confederated republic, the union of the Australian colonies having now been virtually completed. About a third of the population of Canada is French, and the province of Quebec contains the largest body of French people outside of Europe. They live in freedom and happiness under the British flag, and one of their number is now head of the Liberal party of Canada and prime minister. In the British colony at the Cape, which has its own parliamentary government, the Dutch are more numerous than the English, and a Dutch premier, Mr. Schreiner, is now at the head of the government. A confederation of the states and provinces of South Africa would give the Dutch burghers all the liberty that the French have in Canada, and would seem to be in every way a desirable destiny. In other words, the best argument or justification that the British imperialists can advance for the empire is the empire itself. They may point with pride to the results and rest their case. No defense of the

British empire as it is in Queen Victoria's time can be half so eloquent as the obvious facts.

Continental Points of View.

These elements of inherent strength and moral superiority are well understood in France and Germany. When continental statesmen and publicists feel that they can afford to express their sincere convictions, they are unstinted in their praise of the vast political fabric that the English have built up on the cardinal principles of freedom and justice. They would be glad to put in their whole time admiring so noble a spectacle, but it happens that they are engaged in building empires of their own, and on that account cannot afford to be as pro-British as they would otherwise prefer. The continental populations, however—apart from the governments and the exceptionally well-informed individuals—are intensely hostile to the English and sympathetic toward the Boers. But this feeling does them no very great credit, inasmuch as it is not based upon lofty convictions as to the justice of the Boer cause, but rather upon a very unamiable jealousy and prejudice directed against the energetic people who speak English. And we must remember that this strong feeling against England on the continent of Europe just now is really part and parcel of the sentiment that was particularly directed against the United States of America less than two years ago. It is as different as it can possibly be from the thoughtful American judgment that our English friends and cousins have no sufficient reasons for exposing their own sons and brothers to death in the heart of Africa, nor yet any due cause to be shedding the blood of the old men and young boys who form the bulk of the Boer army.

Chances of a War Between France and England.

The French Government, following the decision of Germany, has decided upon a very large programme of naval enlargement. France is relieved to have gotten through with the long treason trial, before the Senate as a High Court, of the monarchist leaders in the conspiracy that was exposed some months ago. Paul Déroulède and André Buffet were sentenced each to ten years of banishment, and Jules Guérin to ten years of imprisonment. French popular feeling is now intensely anti-English, and so, for that matter, is German feeling. It is reported that unofficial Germany has become so imbittered against England as to be comparatively friendly toward France. There are a great number of unsettled questions between France and England. The principal one of these is the English occupation of Egypt, to which the French have never consented, with the virtual English control of the Suez Canal, which Frenchmen constructed, and the recent English conquest of the Soudan, including Fashoda, which almost precipitated war not so long ago. Then there is the Newfoundland question, the Morocco question, the Madagascar question, the Siam question, and several others. It is not to be supposed that the French would in the least desire to plunge deliberately into war with anybody; but it will be only natural for them to try to use the present opportunity to gain points here and there at England's expense. England has always been gaining points at the expense of other nations when they had their hands full of trouble, and why should the French scruple to raise the Egyptian question at the very moment when England has had to take Kitchener and most of her troops away from Egypt and the Soudan to use them in South Africa? Much depends, of course, upon the duration of the war with the Boers. With General Roberts fairly in the field last month, nearly 200,000 brave troops being actually on the ground under his sole command, the tide seems to have turned. And if the relief of Kimberley should be followed by a regular series of rapid British successes, there would be much less danger of European complications; for prestige counts heavily.



DÉROULÈDE, BUFFET, AND GUERIN SHAKING HANDS ON THE OCCASION OF THEIR CONDEMNATION BY THE FRENCH SENATE.—From *L'Illustration* (Paris).

Russia's Hay-Making Schemes.

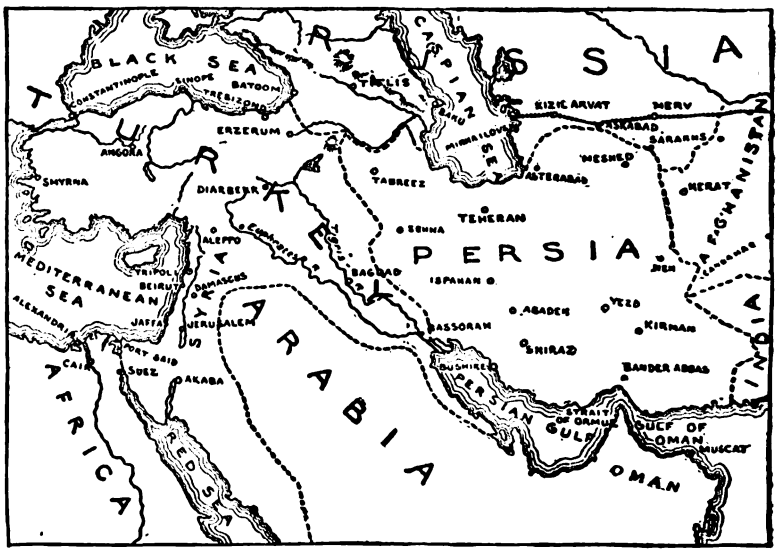
It is not, then, that France or Russia wishes to fight England or anybody else. But they, like England, have definite imperial projects on foot, and they intend to make the most of the present opportunity. Russia is said to have moved considerable bodies of troops to the Afghanistan frontier, and has also induced the Shah of Persia to accept a large loan, in return for which Russia will expect to control the revenue system of the country. The fact seems to be that Russia's long-cherished plan of absorbing Persia is on the eve of accomplishment. A Russian railroad is to be built to the Persian Gulf in the very early future. Afghanistan, also, as a buffer state between the Queen's empire of India and the central Asian dominions of the Czar, is destined to disappear and become a Russian province.

Will Japan Fight Russia?

There is no particular danger of a war between Russia and England, but close observers are of the opinion that Japan and Russia may come to blows at almost any moment. Reports have emanated from Russia to the effect that a good understanding has been reached with the Japanese, but these reports must be received with some skepticism. For several years the Japanese have regarded a war with Russia as inevitable, and they prefer to have it before the Trans-Siberian Railway is finished and while Japan's naval strength is decidedly superior to that of Russia in the Pacific. The Japanese consider themselves rightly entitled to Port Arthur and they aspire to dominate Korea. Their influence is now very great at Pekin. They have known how to play upon the reactionary and anti-European sentiments of the Dowager Empress of China, and it is supposed that they are largely responsible for that lady's recent policy. It is expected that Japanese officers will reorganize the Chinese army on a modern footing, and that a firm alliance will be established between these two kindred empires. That it will be the policy of this alliance to cultivate the friendship of England and the United States, while opposing the Asiatic encroachments of Russia, can readily be believed. In short, a movement by Japan against Russia at this time, when the Muscovites want quiet in that quarter in order to make bold gains elsewhere, would be thought to point directly to a close understanding between England and Japan, if not an actual alliance.

Buller's Work Up to the Middle of February.

We shall not attempt a minute recapitulation of the military movements in South Africa during the month that comes under our present review. Four weeks ago we went to press at the time when General Buller was making his second unsuccessful attempt to establish his forces on the north side of the Tugela River and thus to relieve Ladysmith. This involved the Spion Kop incident. General Warren had on January 23 bravely captured this craggy eminence, which was apparently of great military value, but which proved too steep for the ascent of artillery, and also had no supply of water for his troops. Furthermore, it was a position commanded by Boer artillery on other heights. This second attempt to get to Ladysmith, by outflanking the Boers on the west, proved a flat failure. The losses in the Spion Kop operations were 271 killed, 1,066 wounded, and 293 missing. For a week or more after the Spion Kop disaster General Buller's large army lay apparently inactive in its intrenched camp at Chieveley; but in point of fact Sir Redvers was preparing to make a third attempt, which was begun on February 5. His forces crossed the Tugela at Potgieter's Drift and at Schiet Drift, and took possession of the Vaalkrantz ridge, on the direct road to Ladysmith. The British were again forced back across the Tugela, their losses having been 24 killed, 382 wounded, and 5 missing.



MAP TO SHOW REGION OF RUSSIA'S LATEST ADVANCES.

The Relief of Kimberley.

Meanwhile Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener had left Cape Town for the front early in February, but their exact destination was not known at first. It soon developed, however, that they had proceeded to the British headquarters south of the Modder River. From this point a movement for the invasion of the Orange Free State, under the direction of Lord Roberts, began on February 11. An expedition under General Macdonald to Koodoesberg, fifteen miles to the westward, had been made, to divert the attention of the Boers in that direction. On the 12th a force of cavalry under the command of General French, who had come from the south to join Methuen's forces, made a dash across the Riet River at the Dekiel and Waterval Drifts, fifteen miles east of the Modder River camp. On the following day General French forced a passage of the Modder River at the Klip and Rondeval Drifts, and on the evening of the 15th entered Kimberley. Jacobsdal, an important base of supplies for the Boers southeast of Kimberley, was also occupied by Lord Roberts on the 15th. The Boers had not offered much resistance against these advances, and General Cronje's army was reported to be in full retreat, a part of it being headed, apparently, for Bloemfontein, and a part of it falling back to the northwest of Kimberley, toward Barkly. General Methuen had been left at Magersfontein, and General Kelly-Kenny's division was left in control of the drifts on the Modder River east of Kimberley.



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE LORD ROBERTS' ADVANCE.

The Turn of the Tide.

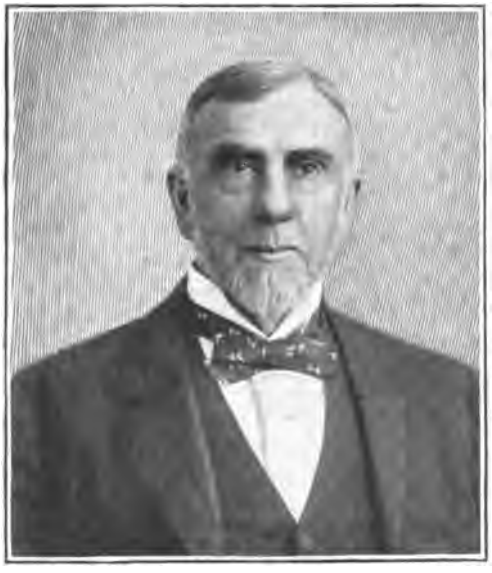
With the relief of Kimberley English despondency gave place to the wildest enthusiasm, and the praises of Lords Roberts and Kitchener were sung in extravagant pæans. When the time comes in England for sober judgment, however, it will be remembered that, in the first place, Roberts and Kitchener had a great many more troops than were at the command of General Buller, and, in the second place, that they were allowed to begin a campaign on military lines, whereas Buller had been obliged to give up his own military plans in order to accommodate the political exigencies that Sir Alfred Milner, the British commissioner in South Africa, and the ministry in England regarded as imperative. Proper military strategy would have paid no attention at all to Ladysmith and would not have split up the British forces, but would have marched in solid mass straight for the centers of the two allied republics. Relieving Kimberley is, from the military point of view, a mere incident. It proves nothing at all about the future of the war. It was supposed, as we closed this number for the press, that Lord Roberts was pushing for Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State. But to occupy Bloemfontein would, from the military point of view, signify nothing of special importance. It may be useful to our readers to remember, for example, that the British captured Washington and burned the capitol building in the War of 1812. That disagreeable incident, however, did not cost the American republic its independence. Prophecies about the duration of this war are worthless. It is enough to say that careful and well-informed military critics are of the opinion that the Boers can hold out for a long time on account of the nature of their ground, if they find it worth their while to do so. In our opinion both sides ought to have had more than enough by May 1 to make them ready to agree upon a truce.

Other War Notes.

The war began on October 12 and has, therefore, been in progress over four months and a half. The investment of Kimberley by the Boers began on October 20, and the siege lasted 118 days. The siege of Ladysmith began on October 29. The British force under Colonel Plumer, which had been marching from Rhodesia for the relief of Mafeking, was checked by the Boers at Gabarones, 100 miles to the north of Mafeking. The total British losses from the beginning of the war up to February 12 were 1,628 killed, 5,941 wounded, and 2,674 missing. The Boer losses are not known, but on February 12 the British held 438 prisoners of war at Cape Town.

Governor Roosevelt and His Administration.

The question of a Republican candidate for Vice-President was widely discussed last month. Many of the party leaders had decided that Governor Roosevelt was the most available man, and it was understood that he was to be nominated at the Philadelphia convention, even against his own preferences. His successor as governor of New York is to be elected this fall, and it seemed fairly likely that he might have the chance to choose between running for a second term or taking a place on the national ticket with Mr. McKinley. In so far as the decision lay with him, Governor Roosevelt very frankly put himself on record last month. He announced that under no circumstances would he accept a nomination for the Vice-Presidency, and he also made it known that he would be a candidate for renomination as governor if the party so desired. This choice has the marked approbation of the Republicans of the State of New York; and it is now as probable that they will place Roosevelt by acclamation at the head of their State ticket this fall as that the Republican party of the country will by acclamation accord a renomination to President McKinley. Governor Roosevelt has made a record that Republicans and Democrats alike admire and respect. The Democrats are his opponents, but they are not his enemies. He has a few singularly bitter enemies in the so-called independent press, but the reiterated attacks upon him are too obviously malicious and false to do him any harm. He has set a high standard in making appointments, and has brought the ordinary administrative work of the State to a remarkable degree of efficiency. He uses none but open methods, never sacrificing principle to party; and he succeeds in carrying his party with him on points that he believes to be vital.



MR. LOUIS F. PAYN.



HON. FRANCIS B. HENDRICKS, OF NEW YORK.
(State superintendent of insurance.)

The Case of Payn.

A recent instance was afforded in the appointment of a State insurance commissioner. This office in the State of New York is one of vast discretion. Mr. Louis F. Payn, whose term was about to expire, is a politician of whose record and methods Governor Roosevelt does not approve. Mr. Payn desired reappointment, and—with great political influence at his command—took the defiant ground that he could prevent the confirmation of any successor the governor might choose, and could thus keep his office as a hold-over. It was declared that if the governor did not yield to Payn his own political future would be wrecked, the Republican party of New York shattered to pieces, Mr. Bryan elected President of the United States, and general chaos precipitated. But with the governor it was a point of principle; and without wrangling or fuss he simply stood firm in his determination not to appoint Payn, but to nominate as good a man as he could get for the post. The name of the Hon. Francis Hendricks, formerly collector of the port of New York under President Harrison's administration, proved the one to conjure with. The

angry clouds rolled away, and Mr. Hendricks was confirmed with a great deal more ease and harmony than would have been possible if Mr. Payn's name had been sent in.

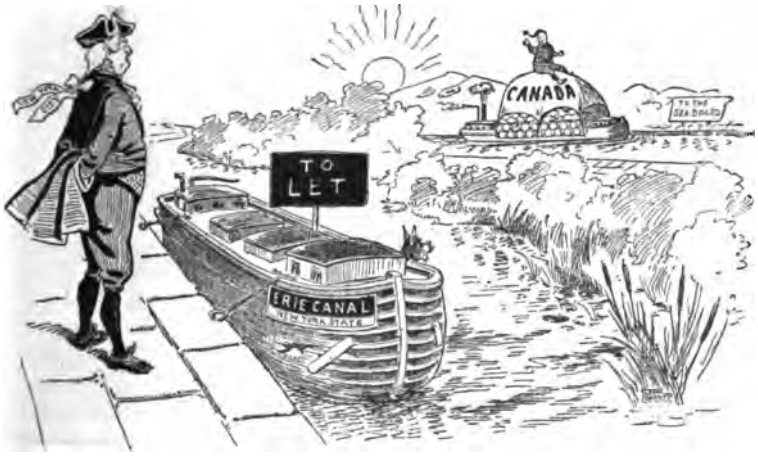
A Man Who Can Both Act and Think.

Governor Roosevelt is putting all the force of his vigorous and healthy mind and his unflagging energy into the attempt to deal rightly with important public questions. The chief commercial bodies of New York City and State have indorsed the solution that the governor, through his expert commission, recommends for the State canal problem, although the expenditure of $60,000,000 is involved. The difficult and delicate problems involved in a complete revision of the taxation system of the State are under consideration by the governor with the best possible assistance. And thus one might name various subjects of real importance to which the governor is giving his closest attention, while certain silly newspaper writers suppose him to be playing the game of personal politics, nursing his ambitions, and dreaming of future glory Sufficient to him is the day. Far from being a rash man who takes snap judgment on matters that come before him, Governor Roosevelt is deliberate, judicial, and open to conviction. But fortunately he has the moral ability—the will-power—to make up his mind in due time; and having formed a judgment he has the courage to express it and act upon it. There is nothing Hamlet-like about the governor of the State of New York. Last month he went on record as believing that we ought to insist on the right of fortifying the Nicaragua Canal. In certain quarters it was said that this opinion was promulgated by the governor with some sort of political object, and that it had a mysterious connection with his preferring to be governor of New York rather than Vice-President. That, of course, was a mistake. Mr. Roosevelt is rightly considered, both in Europe and America, a competent student of naval history and strategy, and it is his opinion that from the point of view of the efficient use of our navy for the defense of both coasts we ought to be able in time of war to exclude our enemy from the use of a Nicaragua passage—provided, of course, the passage belongs to us. The governor's essay on Cromwell and his times, appearing serially in *Scribner's*, is an admirable piece of fresh and direct discussion.



A PAGE FROM TEDDY ROOSEVELT'S CROMWELL.

EXECUTIONER PLATT (to Teddy the Leveler): "I pray thee, remember 1904. Thine intended victim [Payn] is somewhat of a leveler himself."—From the *Verdict* (New York).



NEW YORK AWAKENING TO THE COMMERCIAL SITUATION.
From the *Tribune* (New York).

The Vice-Presidency, etc.

Secretary Root and Governor Roosevelt being removed from the list of Vice-Presidential possibilities, the name of the lieutenant-governor of New York, Mr. Woodruff, is one of the many names now suggested by the newspapers; and probably the

convention will meet without having made a previous choice. Philadelphia has been sluggish in the matter of securing the guarantee of $100,000 which was to be paid to the Republican National Committee in consideration of the holding in that city of the national convention



PHILADELPHIA (trying to find that $100,000): "Conventions come high."—From the *Record* (Chicago).

What This Year's Issue Will Be.

The date set for the Republican convention at Philadelphia is June 19. The Democrats are now proposing to fix a still earlier date for their convention. This is an innovation. In times past they have almost invariably held their conventions a week or two later than their opponents. Milwaukee has been most talked about as the meeting-place for the Democratic hosts. Mr. Bryan's renomination is now almost universally conceded. Mr. Bryan holds steadfastly to his views on the money question, and Republican tacticians are asserting that they will fight this campaign of 1900 on the old battlefield of 1896. But the party strategists cannot always choose the fighting-ground. Mr. McKinley and the chairman of the Republican National Committee, Mr. Hanna, had fully expected to fight the battle of 1896 on the tariff question. But the enemy chose the fighting-ground and dug their rifle-pits and trenches on the silver kopje. Plenty of big guns were rushed in the middle of the campaign to take this strong position, with immense quantities of ammunition supplied by Wall Street. This year the Democrats will probably insist upon making the Republicans fight for "empire" rather than for gold. The gold-standard bill was passed by the Senate on February 15 (the House having acted, as mentioned by us last month, on December 18), and it expresses a monetary policy that is not destined to be reversed in the near future. The people of the United States will not, merely to oblige any set of party leaders, spend the campaign weeks thrashing over the old truisms and fallacies of monetary science. What the electors of this country are going to do is to vote either their general approval or their general disapproval of the way in which, since his inauguration in 1897, President McKinley has conducted a great war with Spain, annexed Hawaii, conquered and kept Puerto Rico, assumed sovereignty over the Philippine Islands, carried on a year's warfare with the Tagals of Luzon (for which purpose, by authority of Congress, he has now in that island some 63,000 American troops), and done various other things relating to the expansion of our territory and the conduct of our complicated foreign relations. The category includes the reconstruction under military government of the island of Cuba and the treatment of many novel questions of greater or less magnitude arising out of new conditions.

The Argument Against "Swapping Horses."

Ordinarily the people of the United States think one term enough for a President. Since the election of Grant in 1872, nearly thirty years ago, no President has been chosen to succeed himself. But the present situation is exceptional. There are thousands of business and professional men, not very strong partisans, who believe that it would be prudent and wise to grant Mr. McKinley and his



M'KINLEY AND CHAMBERLAIN, THE GREAT ANGLO-SAXON IMPERIALISTS.

From *Don Quixote* (Madrid, January 9, 1900).

Cabinet a lease of four years more in which to complete many matters that are not now in a condition to be turned over to a new set of men. For example, we are just on the point, apparently, of trying the experiment of ending the war in Luzon by assuming that it *is* ended. The death of Gen. Gregorio del Pilar has been announced, and nothing in the way of a general direction or organization seems to remain of the once formidable Filipino movement. The President has appointed Judge William H. Taft, of Cincinnati, who has for some years been on the United States circuit bench, as head of a new commission that is to proceed to Manila to take up the work of instituting a civil *régime.* Judge Taft is a man of great legal ability and also of tact, good judgment, and administrative capacity. It is supposed that General Otis, whose indefatigable labors have not been generally appreciated at half their real worth, is soon to return to the United States. The first volume of the report of the original Philippine commission, under the chairmanship of President Schurman, became public property several weeks ago. It is an extremely valuable document, well arranged and full of instructive information regarding the native peoples. their educational and religious status, and former modes of government, together with the draft of a plan for government under American authority. Volume II., which is in preparation, will be mainly devoted to information of a geographical and scientific character, together with chapters on agriculture, commerce, communications, public and private land-holding, and so on. There will be further volumes containing the testimony taken by the commission and numerous maps.



HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT.
(Who will head the commission to establish civil government in the Philippines.)



THE LATE GEN. GREGORIO DEL PILAR.
(Commander-in-chief of the Filipino insurgents, who died of fever about February 1.)

Shall McKinley Be Kept at the Helm?

The outlook for a good system of government in the Philippines seems bright. There was pending in Congress last month a simple proposal vesting in the President of the United States, until further action by Congress, the sole authority to govern and administer the Philippine Archipelago. The language of this proposition is nearly or quite identical with that which was adopted by Congress at the time of the Louisiana purchase, vesting administrative authority in President Jefferson. Shall President McKinley be allowed to go on with this great work or will the country prefer to have the Hon. William J. Bryan take charge of it just one year hence? Mr. McKinley, through the War Department and the military administration of Governor-

Our Real Situation in the Philippines.

About the best statement that we have seen of the actual conditions in the Philippines, particularly in the great island of Luzon, where our principal difficulties have been, is contained in a private letter received by the editor of this REVIEW last month from an American officer. The letter was not intended to be published and it contains no sensational disclosures. It simply tells the clear truth. It is sufficient to add that this officer is an exceptionally keen observer, is candid to the last degree, and is as free from bias respecting the political bearings of the Philippine question as any man could possibly be. The following extracts from his letter undoubtedly represent his absolute convictions, and it is our opinion also that they are sound and that our readers may safely accept them. The italics are his, not ours :

Conditions on this island are much more favorable to our troops than they were in Cuba. The climate is not nearly so enervating, nor have we to dread here the yellow fever. The people here are a very intelligent class, and most of them can read and write their own language. Very many of them can also read and write Spanish. They are showing considerable interest in American ways, and I have found that a good many young men are beginning the study of English. I have in mind one young man who in two months, without an instructor, has learned sufficient English to converse quite freely, and another who in the same length of time reads English very fluently.

The trouble with these people is that they have been so badly abused in the past and for so long a time that the dread and fear of white men has grown to be second nature to them. They seem to expect nothing but kicks and curses. It seems to be a continual surprise to them to find their property respected and themselves treated with courtesy and consideration. *I fully believe that they are capable of becoming, in a very short time, under proper guidance, useful citizens of the United States.*

It is a continual source of wonder to me to see how perfectly the military machine works over here in all its departments. Everything is well done, supplies are plentiful and easily obtained, and the men are healthy and well contented. It is going to be only a short time, comparatively, until this problem will be satisfactorily settled. But one thing should be remembered, and that is *the problem is an educational one.*

If the military had an organized enemy in front of them who fought according to the laws of civilized warfare and who could be soundly thrashed, that part of the thing could be quickly done ; but such is not the case. It looks as if the poor ignorant people get stampeded and go out and do some promiscuous shooting, and then recover and return to their ordinary employment. *The only way to wind up such a campaign as that is by gradually educating them to believe that we are in fact their best friends and that we are not going to do them any harm.*

It requires the utmost tact, gentleness, kindness, and firmness, with *occasional* use of exemplary severity ; and the man who is solving this problem is undoubtedly the right man for the job. *You will make no mistake, in policy or in fact, if in all that you publish you sustain in the fullest manner the administration of the American commander now in the Philippines.*

You know me to be a fearless critic on proper occasion. You can therefore believe the above to be a true expression of the honest views of a competent observer. I cannot express too strongly my admiration of what I have seen of the workings of the system in operation here. It is simply wonderful how smoothly and efficiently things are done.

The Steamship Subsidy Bill.

The new aspects of the Nicaragua Canal question, due to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, delayed the consideration of that subject in Congress, so that it is now not probable that the present session will see conclusive action of any kind on the canal topic. Another question of importance seems also destined to be held over until next winter—namely, the steamship subsidy bill. The measure has by no means been abandoned, and if its friends should push it resolutely there is reason to think that it might become a law at once ; but some of the shrewdest Republican leaders of the West have sounded a warning note to the effect that a great shipping subsidy law, passed in the face of Democratic opposition, would be a bad card to play on the eve of a Presidential election. We publish elsewhere in this number an article by President Hadley, of Yale, pointing out what he regards as some of the general dangers and disadvantages of the policy of using surplus revenue for the payment of subsidies to steamship lines. We also present a contribution from the pen of an experienced and able Boston journalist, Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin, who has for a long time been a student of practical shipping questions, and who advocates the subsidy policy with good faith and in a patriotic spirit.

Kentucky's Political Paroxysm.

The early part of the past month witnessed such a frenzy of excitement over politics in the State of Kentucky as apparently to amount to the temporary insanity of a whole population. The paroxysm was brief ; and there is a disposition to seek remedies against recurring attacks. Of recent years Kentucky, once solidly Democratic, has belonged in the list of doubtful States, the Republicans having carried it a number of times. Last fall the Democrats would certainly have been successful but for bitter personal and factional quarrels which shattered the party and led to the running of two Democratic State tickets. The most ambitious and the most indefatigable factor in the Democratic politics of Kentucky for some years had been William Goebel, a young Pennsylvania German who had made his way in Kentucky pol-

Puerto Rico and the Tariff.

As our readers will remember, President McKinley, in his message to Congress three months ago at the opening of the present session, strongly recommended that Congress should at once give Puerto Rico the benefit of unrestricted trade with the United States. Mr. Payne, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, promptly introduced a bill extending our tariff system to the island. Great opposition, however, arose from two sources. As we remarked last month, the principal arguments against admitting the Puerto Ricans freely to our markets could be summed up in two words—sugar and tobacco. To these might be added fruit and early vegetables. In short, various agricultural interests in this country are adverse to the competition of Puerto Rican products. The other source of opposition to giving Puerto Rico free trade with this country has a legal and constitutional basis. Is Puerto Rico to be regarded as territory of the United States in the sense in which that term applies to Arizona, or is the island a colony under our sovereignty, but not under the Constitution? This question greatly exercised Congress last month. The Republicans, for the most part, adopted the colonial theory; while the Democrats, repudiating "imperialism," concluded that they would regard the annexation of Puerto Rico in the same light as our earlier acquisitions of contiguous territory on the mainland. The Republicans wished, above all things, to avoid awkward precedents. They had in mind the future status of the Philippines and also that of Cuba. The question ought not to be settled offhand.

The Practical Question.

The Ways and Means Committee compromised the matter by bringing in a bill which subjected trade between Puerto Rico and the United States to the Dingley tariff divided by four. On that plan goods from all countries but our own would pay the full Dingley rates at the Puerto Rican custom-houses, while Puerto Rican products to the United States would be admitted at one-fourth the regular rates. Mr. McCall, of Massachusetts, a Republican member of the Ways and Means Committee, refused to accept this compromise, and it was expected that a considerable number of other Republicans would vote with the Democrats in favor of free trade. The individual preferences of a great majority of the members of Congress last month were for the complete removal of tariff walls between Puerto Rico and this country, but many Republicans reluctantly agreed to accept the compromise for the sake of party harmony. Three quarters of a loaf is better than no bread; and it will in any case afford an immense relief to Puerto Rico to have three-quarters of the tariff wall broken down in her favor. If this 25-per-cent. arrangement could be put into effect immediately by mutual consent, with the understanding that the total removal of tariff barriers would come up for consideration without prejudice a year or two later, there might be some positive advantage in it.

The Fate of Roberts.

It should be said that various phases of this Puerto Rican question have been debated with unusual ability in the House, and several men have added distinctly to their reputations. One of these is Mr. Littlefield, of Maine, a new member who represents the late Mr. Dingley's district. Mr. Littlefield joined Mr. McCall and certain other Republicans in opposing the report of the Ways and Means Committee. In January Mr. Littlefield had taken a conspicuous part in the discussion of the legal bearings of the case of Mr. Roberts, the Utah polygamist. He held that Roberts was plainly entitled to take his seat, after which it would be in order for the House to expel him. This view, however, did not prevail; and on the recommendation of the special committee headed by Mr. Tayler, of Ohio, Brigham H. Roberts was on January 25 refused permission to take the oath by a vote of 268 to 50.



HON. CHARLES E. LITTLEFIELD, OF MAINE.

tions involved were complicated. For a time Governor Taylor seemed in great danger of completely sacrificing the moral strength of his position by relying upon mere force, whereas the Democrats were technically, at least, observing the law at every step. Both sides gradually recovered their normal sanity. Governor Taylor allowed the Legislature to resume the work of the session in its own proper place, and it was understood that he would continue to act as governor until the courts had passed upon the legality of the proceedings by which it was attempted to install first Goebel and then Beckham.



HON. J. C. W. BECKHAM.

Kentucky Had Better Disarm.

However objectionable the Goebel election law may be, it is valid and binding until repealed. Revolvers and Winchester rifles have no place whatever in American politics. Kentucky's principal need is disarmament. The State has been on a war footing ever since Daniel Boone's time. In the mountains they use rifles and shotguns, while in the Blue Grass and cities the politicians carry revolvers. Of the two practices, that of the mountaineers is decidedly the more excusable. Kentucky ought to enact a decent election law, for very shame. We publish elsewhere a very timely and interesting article about the mountaineers of Kentucky and the Appalachian region from the pen of President William Goodell Frost, of Berea College, Kentucky, who knows them well. Educational work like that which he is carrying on will help to make politics and neighborhood life less strenuous and bloody in the mountain counties. Kentucky, meanwhile, continues to be an excellent State in spite of its paroxysmal politics and homicidal proclivities, and the average citizen lives to as hale an old age there as in Massachusetts. The venerable Cassius M. Clay, for instance, who was one of the founders of Berea College before the war, still survives in Madison County, in his ninetieth year.



From a photograph taken for *Leslie's Weekly*.

THE STATE HOUSE AT FRANKFORT, KY.

(The cross in the path marks the spot where Senator Goebel was shot.)

The Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.

In January Congress seemed on the point of cutting the Gordian knot and delivering the Nicaragua Canal project from the entanglements of intrigue and diplomacy which have so long victimized it. Committees of both houses had made unanimous reports favoring the prompt construction by the United States Government of an interoceanic ship canal upon ground to which our Government was to secure title by cession from Nicaragua and Costa Rica. This plan treated the canal as a part

of the navigable waterways of the United States, the link between our Atlantic and Pacific seaboards, an inestimable addition to our national defenses, and a means of doubling the utility of our navy. Overwhelming majorities, regardless of party, in the House and in the Senate alike, were prepared to give quick passage to this excellent measure brought forward by Mr. Hepburn, as chairman of the House Commerce Committee, and Senator Morgan, as chairman of the Senate's special committee on interoceanic canals. It was supposed as a matter of course that this line of policy—the success of which called for prompt action and harmonious coöperation, not only of both political parties, but also especially of all branches of the Government—had the entire approval of President McKinley and his Cabinet. It would not be easy, therefore, to overstate the bewildered surprise of Congress and the country when it was announced that Secretary Hay, on behalf of the United States, and Lord Pauncefote, on behalf of England, had signed a treaty the object of which was to put the United States under pledges, not only for this generation, but for all posterity to the end of time, that it would not fortify its own canal or make use of it in time of war to accomplish the very objects that the country had in mind as the reasons for constructing it. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty contemplates a canal at the expense of the United States of America for the equal benefit of international commerce, to be neutralized under the guarantee of the great commercial nations of the world. In plain English, Mr. Hay's plan specifically asks the concert of Europe to take political control of a canal built by our Government.



THE NEW COLOSSUS OF ROADS.

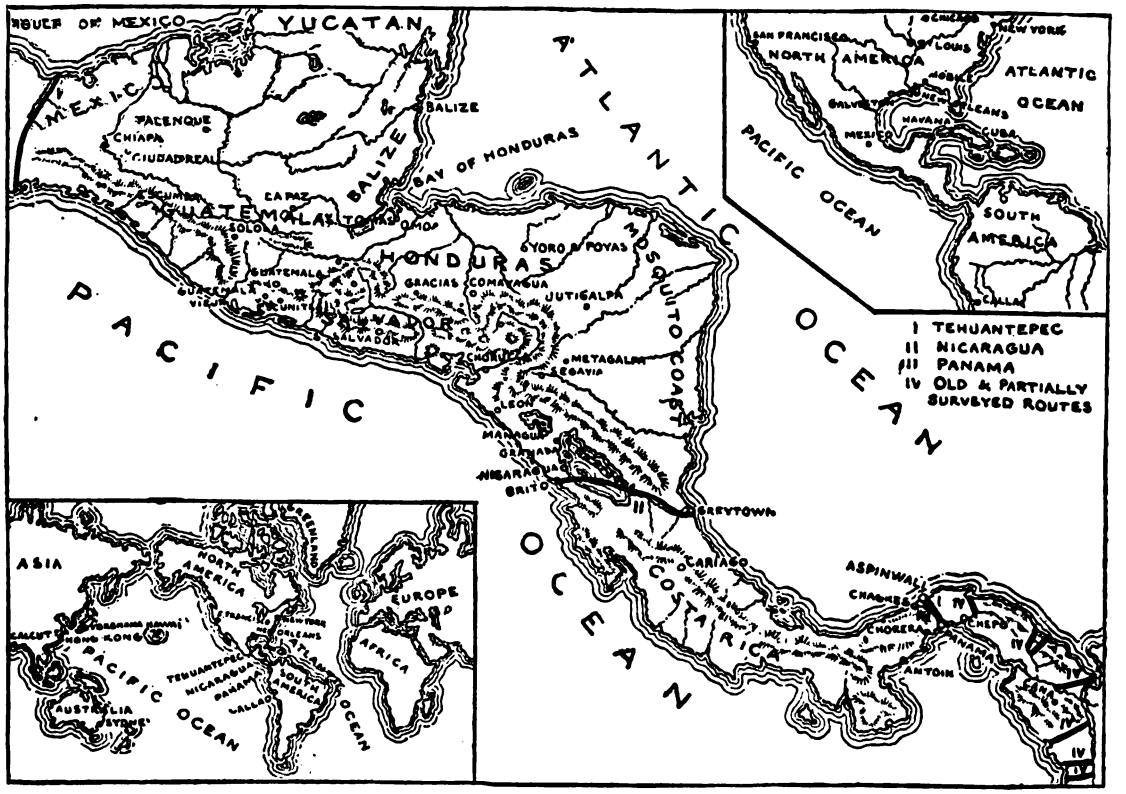
(What Congress had in mind before the Hay-Pauncefote treaty appeared.)—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

The Clayton-Bulwer Agreement.

Even if this treaty should be rejected by the Senate, its after-effects must embarrass the Hepburn-Morgan project. It purports to be a revision of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850; and its negotiation has meant the acknowledgment on the part of Secretary Hay of the unimpaired validity of an old arrangement which Mr. Hay's predecessors and American statesmen regardless of party for a quarter of a century have agreed in pronouncing obsolete and voidable, and "not worth the paper upon which it was written." This agreement, although in its phraseology it was given a perpetually binding force, had strict reference to a state of affairs existing at the time. Its provisions have been habitually disregarded by the British Government and treated as obsolete by our own. Those who are familiar with English legal and official opinion tell us that it has been taken for granted in England that nothing in that old treaty would stand in the way of the United States constructing the Nicaragua Canal when it found itself ready to do so. In reply, to questions in the House of Commons since the signing of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, the British Government has said in effect that the provisions of the new agreement which prevent the United States from ever fortifying its canal, and which place it under the guarantee of the powers of Europe, were not inserted by demand of England, but were express proposals of Mr. Hay on behalf of the United States. This seems rather difficult to believe, but it has not been contradicted at Washington, so far as we are aware.

Must Europe Forever Control the American Canal?

All modern international law writers recognize the fact that nations must and will, in the interpretation of old treaties, look at substantial equities and obligations rather than at mere phrases. The men of Mr. Clayton's time had a right to say to their English contemporaries that the particular interoceanic canal which everybody then expected European capital under private auspices would be digging inside of a twelvemonth would not be regarded in this country as necessarily under the exclusive political control of the United States. But if the people of the United States should now construct the Nicaragua Canal with



public money they will inevitably—treaty or no treaty—use that canal in future times for their own purposes of defense and protection. The law of self-preservation would be regarded as a higher law than a treaty negotiated in a short-sighted spirit of self-renunciation under which no *quid pro quo* had been asked or received. Of course the hands of the United States will not stay tied. No vigorous and growing country permits itself to be bound by perpetual treaties. It is immoral on the face of it for one generation to attempt to fix the policy of its successors. A few years ago the European nations were contending that because of the phraseology of their commercial treaties with Japan (which allowed them to sell their goods there by payment of a very low rate of duty), the Japanese, neither then nor at any time in all the centuries to come, would be at liberty to revise their own tariff and tax imports to suit themselves. One of the principal motives of the war with China was to enable Japan to test its ability to use modern military and naval machines, in order that its courage might be equal to a repudiation of the vexatious European commercial treaties. Those treaties are now a thing of the past; and everybody with a particle of instinct for equity knows that Japan was abundantly justified in resuming control over its own taxation system.

Our Work In This Hemisphere.

Europe rests on a basis of tremendous army and navy organizations. The whole western hemisphere, on the other hand, is upon a peace basis. From Alaska to Patagonia there are no large armies. We have an effective navy, but a small one. The benignant influence of the United States has kept the western hemisphere free from the necessity of making warlike preparation the principal end and object of national life. Let the rival armed camps of the other hemisphere deal with the affairs of Europe, Asia, and Africa, and let all peaceful commerce have access to the Nicaragua Canal on reasonable terms; but let America not have to ask the consent of anybody in Europe if it should ever find that its task of safeguarding the peaceful development of the western hemisphere would be more effectively served by fortifying its own interoceanic canal. Our State Department has tried to lay one old ghost by an arrangement which means a hundred new ghosts for subsequent Secretaries of State. In short, if our Nicaragua Canal project was destined to be plagued with treaties made for

momentary emergencies, but molded in the form of perpetual obligations, it would have been much better to have kept the old familiar Clayton-Bulwer treaty. But why should we have kept even that?

The Ethics of Old Treaties.

Even in the matter of a promissory note between individuals the law attaches high importance to the question whether or not there has been "value received." In other words, the law cares less for the written words which constitute a promise than for the substantial obligation that lies behind the promise. Back of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty there does not linger the slightest vestige of any substantial obligation on the part of the United States. There is nothing analogous to the duty of rendering a *quid pro quo*. Where nothing has been received there is nothing to pay. John Stuart Mill and numerous other writers on the equity of such treaties have made it perfectly plain that where a convention has been signed that is temporary in its very nature, yet is given the form of perpetuity in its phrasing, it will of necessity be abrogated when the temporary circumstances have been outlived and new conditions render it desirable to deal freely with a given situation. A simple and honest way to deal with the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is to inform England that the people and the public men of the United States have long considered it morally and practically a dead letter, and that it would be agreeable to us to have England's formal consent to its abrogation. Since there is nothing whatever in the treaty that is of real value and importance to England, there is no reason to suppose that there would be any hesitation on the part of Lord Salisbury to accept our view of the matter, especially as this is precisely what the best-informed English newspapers have been advising him to do.



TEARING UP THE CLAYTON-BULWER COMPACT.

JOHN BULL: "We won't quarrel about a little thing like this."—From the *Herald* (New York).

Diplomacy Should Have Been at Work Elsewhere.

There is not a trace of unfriendliness toward Great Britain and the British empire in the proposals for an American canal under the control of our Government. On the other hand, it is greatly to England's interest to have the canal built promptly and to have us own and control it. It would scarcely seem as if there could have been any reason for protracted negotiations with England on such a subject as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. But there was one field in which this administration ought to have been working with the utmost concentration of diplomatic energy and intelligence. That field is Central America. It ought to have been easy enough to convince Nicaragua and Costa Rica, if the right efforts had been made, that in no other way could they so certainly assure their prosperity and safety as in granting an out-and-out cession of a strip of territory for canal purposes over which we should exercise sovereignty in as complete a sense as over Puerto Rico or Hawaii. Having gained this point we should have been able, undoubtedly, to give England assurances that would have made her heartily ready to waive the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and lend her moral encouragement to our execution of a project that was bound to affect her interests favorably.

The Key to Our Future Development.

The only justification for any annexation policy whatever lies in carrying it to the point of a rounded and logical completion. The McKinley administration may perchance feel that it has already brought about as much annexation as it desires and a good deal more than it had anticipated. But that is no reason why the administration should propose to block the progress of American annexation for a hundred years to come. George Washington did not sign a perpetual treaty with all European nations that this country would never under any circumstances enlarge its domain by purchasing the Louisiana country. Mr. Webster, when he arranged the northwestern boundary line, did not gratuitously pledge the United States never to purchase Russian America. The one thing that we really need in the line of annexation is a strip of Central America; and why in the world should this administration embarrass future administrations by making it impossible for us ever to exercise sovereignty in the one spot that we need and that it is eminently appropriate we should possess? The country will at least insist upon knowing what is meant by this new move and what lies behind it before

running the risk of sacrificing the most vital point in American policy by a blind acceptance of a treaty wholly different in its character from anything that either England or America had asked for, expected, or desired.

The Canal, of Course, is Indefinitely Delayed.

In any case, the opponents of an interoceanic canal—who have been playing the Panama scheme off against the Nicaragua proposal for the sole purpose of delay—are naturally elated by the new and unexpected reënforcement they have received. Nobody can think it strange that the Southern Pacific and other transcontinental railroads should look with hostile eyes upon any ship canal whatever. They are building up an ever-increasing through business with the Orient, a considerable part of which they believe would desert them as soon as an all-water route for steamships should enter into competition. They have been far less apprehensive of the success of private canal companies than of the plan of direct construction by the United States Government; and they have perceived, especially since the war with Spain and the accession of new territory, that the political and naval argument was appealing much more strongly than the commercial argument in favor of a canal. But—now that Mr. Hay's new treaty at a stroke eliminates the political and naval advantages that were to accrue to us from the construction of the canal at the expense of the taxpayers of the United States, and carefully deprives Americans of any superior advantages of any kind—the question arises most forcibly, Why should the United States Government spend American money to dig a canal on alien soil over which it is pledged never to acquire or exercise sovereignty, in which its own warships are to have no advantage over those of an enemy, and through which American merchant ships are forever denied any better terms than those of all other countries?

Why Spend Public Money?

This plan puts the United States simply in the position of a private capitalist going abroad to invest money in a purely commercial undertaking. There may, indeed, be some good reason why our Government should build the canal, even on this basis. We are not prepared to say that the project ought to be abandoned or turned over to that great modern power, International Capital, which—whether localized in New York, London, Paris, Frankfort, or Berlin—knows absolutely no allegiance to any government. But the more ordinary dictates of prudence would seem to favor the comparatively conservative idea that the United States should buy up the railroad and telegraph lines which lie within its own sovereign dominions, rather than embark perhaps $200,000,000 of our public money in an enterprise which we carefully invite Europe in advance to guarantee that we shall never in the dire emergency of war be permitted to use for our own benefit. This is the only practical meaning that the so-called "neutralization" of the canal can have. Mr. Hay's treaty proposes that it shall be the absolute property of the United States, but that if in war-time we should choose to fortify our own Government's property or to exclude our enemy's ships from its use, we should have made it both the right and the duty of all the world to take up arms against us. This is why, in our opinion, the Hay-Pauncefote treaty will, if ratified, tend to war rather than peace. It gives Europe a control that America should keep. It would compel us to build a navy at least twice as large as we should otherwise need. If we were to become a party to the international compact that controls the Suez Canal, Europe would still control in fact, for this country would be in a minority of one. In like manner, if the Hay-Pauncefote plan is adopted, we shall have put ourselves in exactly that same minority of one in the control of a Nicaragua canal built for Europe at our expense and risk.

Read the Text of the Treaties!

In order that our readers may find it convenient to judge for themselves, we print elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW the full text of this new Hay-Pauncefote treaty, and also in the same connection reproduce the text of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which so many people have discussed and which so few people have read. The two documents, of course, need to be consulted together. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty, as a careful reading of it will show, was framed on the supposition that a canal was at once to be built, and on the theory that the treaty was not to be a dual, but an international compact, through the adherence of other governments, which were to be invited at once to become parties to it. But the agreement to urge participation upon other powers seems never to have been carried out; so that England and America remained the only signatories. Circumstances are so different now, however, that under Article III. of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty it is not easy to see why France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and all the other commercial and naval powers should not make haste to give in their adherence. If they had availed themselves of the opportunity to sign the treaty of 1850, the question of abrogation would have to be discussed not merely with England, but with a group of powers whose

policies—secretly, if not openly—are hostile to England and unfriendly to the United States. Is the present a felicitous moment for reopening the invitation to the world that was contained in Article VI. of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty—"to the end," as that document puts it, "that all other states may share in the honor and advantage of having contributed to a work of such general interest and importance as the canal herein contemplated"? Emphatically, it is not.

The Prelude to Anglo-American Alliance.

It will naturally be asked, Why should this Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which in form puts the Nicaragua Canal under the same control as the Suez Canal, be particularly acceptable to Lord Salisbury? The question is susceptible of a complete answer. There is nothing that the British Government so much desires as an alliance with the United States. Having bought a controlling interest in the shares of the Suez Canal Company, the British Government virtually owns that enterprise, using the word ownership in its commercial sense. But the well-known conditions pertaining to the history of the Suez undertaking, which we need not recapitulate, had brought about political neutralization under the joint guarantee of nine European powers. England really controls the canal, however, by virtue (1) of maintaining a navy incomparably stronger than any that could be combined against her and (2) by her fortified possession of the outer entrances to the Mediterranean and Red Seas and her other strongholds on the Suez route to India. Now, if the United States Government should become the private owner of a Nicaragua canal politically neutralized under European guarantees, our nominal position would be strikingly analogous to that of England at Suez. But our real position would be wholly different. Lacking a large navy and lacking strategical positions commanding the approaches, our only chance of keeping the Nicaragua Canal open against an unfriendly European coalition would lie in the good offices and friendly protection of the British navy. Lord Rosebery, on February 15, stated in the House of Lords that as recently as December the British Government "made vigorous overtures to two great powers—Germany and the United States—for an alliance, but these overtures were not received with such cordiality as to encourage the government to pursue them." Lord Rosebery is too responsible a statesman to have made this assertion without knowing it to be true. It may be said with the certainty of a mathematical demonstration that the adoption of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty must mean either the abandonment of a Nicaragua canal under the auspices of the Government of the United States or else an eventual alliance between England and this country. There are those in America as well as in England who desire such an alliance; but if it is to come we, for our part, should prefer to find other reasons than our open need of invoking the aid of England's sea power to help us maintain the general principle of the Monroe Doctrine.

In Praise of Our State Department.

All this, we need not tell our regular readers, is written in no spirit of hostility to England, and much less in a spirit of opposition to the administration at Washington. The high esteem in which we hold Secretary Hay is reflected in the character sketch of that accomplished and able Cabinet minister published by us only two months ago, and also in the praise accorded Mr. Hay in these pages last month for his magnificent achievement in securing for us the "open door" in China. This alone—even if he had not also brilliantly solved the Samoan complication and held the portfolio of State at a time when a great number of other questions belonging to our foreign relations were finding sound solutions under his direction—would assuredly place him permanently in the rank of our great Secretaries of State. He is entitled to confidence and admiration, and we heartily accord both. There is certainly nothing ignoble about this last treaty of his; and if the world were a hundred years nearer the wished-for period of disarmament and perpetual peace, the treaty would be as safe in practice as it is fine and magnanimous in theory. It simply belongs, in our opinion, to that good time coming when the Monroe Doctrine will have outlived its usefulness, and when the federation of man will have guaranteed not merely the free, equal, and peaceful use of all ship canals, but will also have dismantled the Gibraltars, abolished such heart-rending brutalities as the South African War, and forever removed the sad necessity of such a use of modern inventive genius as was displayed in the floating mechanisms that wrought the destruction in 1898 of the two Spanish fleets. That good time will surely come; but meanwhile America had better take charge of the Nicaragua Canal and annex the needed territory.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 20 to February 18, 1900.)



MAJ.-GEN. E. R. P. WOODGATE.

(In command of the Ninth Brigade of General Buller's army—wounded at Spion Kop.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 20.—Majority and minority reports of the committee to investigate the claims of Brigham H. Roberts (Dem.) to a seat in the House as a Representative from Utah are presented.

January 23.—Majority and minority reports are presented by the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections in the case of Matthew S. Quay (Rep., Pa.)....The House begins debate on the case of Brigham H. Roberts (Dem., Utah).

January 24.—The Senate adopts the resolution of Mr. Pettigrew (Sil. Rep., S. D.) calling for information about the treaty with the Sultan of Sulu....The House continues debate on the Roberts case.

January 25.—The Senate passes an urgent deficiency appropriation bill carrying about $9,000,000....The House, by a vote of 81 to 244, defeats the proposition to seat and then expel Brigham H. Roberts as a Representative from Utah and adopts the resolution for exclusion by a vote of 268 to 50, the final vote in the affirmative consisting of 166 Republicans, 97 Democrats, 4 Populists, and 1 Silverite.

January 31.—The Senate discusses the alleged recognition by the United States of the so-called Filipino republic....The House considers the Indian appropriation bill.

February 2.—The Senate considers the Hague peace treaty and the extradition treaty with Argentina.... The House passes a bill for the benefit of Cuban shipping.

February 3.—The House passes the Indian appropriation bill.

February 5.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the Hague treaty and the Argentine extradition treaty.

February 6.—An agreement is reached in the Senate by which the currency bill is to have precedence over everything except routine business....The House debates the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

February 7.—The House passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

February 8.—The Ways and Means Committee presents to the House three reports on the Puerto Rican tariff bill.

February 9.—In the Senate Mr. Jones (Dem., Ark.) introduces a free-silver substitute for the currency bill.

February 12.—The House passes a bill extending the bonding privilege to goods in transit in all parts of the United States.

February 14.—In the Senate a bimetallist amendment to the currency bill offered by Mr. Chandler (Rep., N. H.) is defeated; general debate on the bill is closed.... The House considers the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

February 15.—The Senate, by a vote of 46 to 29, passes the substitute for the House currency bill, amended in favor of international bimetallism and to provide for national banks with $25,000 capital in towns of not more than 4,000 inhabitants.

February 16.—The Senate begins consideration of the bill for the government of Hawaii....The House, in committee of the whole, strikes out the provision for the Civil Service Commission from the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

February 17.—The House passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill, having restored the provision for the Civil Service Commission.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 25.—Governor Roosevelt submits to the New York Legislature the report of the special canal commission recommending the expenditure of $60,000,000 on a barge canal from Buffalo to Albany.

January 27.—The United States Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections hears arguments in the contest over the seat of Senator Scott (Rep., W. Va.).

January 29.—Secretary Gage replies to a resolution of the United States Senate inquiring as to his relations with the National City Bank of New York....Governor Roosevelt nominates Francis Hendricks as New York State superintendent of insurance, to succeed Louis F. Payn.

January 30.—State Senator William Goebel, Democratic contestant for the Kentucky governorship, is shot and mortally wounded at Frankfort; Governor Taylor issues a proclamation adjourning the Legislature to meet at London, Laurel County, on February 6.

January 31.—The oath of office as governor of Kentucky is administered to Senator Goebel on his deathbed and also to J. C. W. Beckham, Democratic contestant for the lieutenant-governorship; State troops prevent the assembling of the Legislature in Frankfort.

February 2.—Republican members of the California Legislature (in special session) nominate Thomas R. Bard for United States Senator.

February 3.—The Kentucky courts grant an injunction restraining Governor Taylor from exercising the functions of his office.

February 6.—The California Legislature elects Thomas R. Bard (Rep.) United States Senator.... President McKinley appoints Judge William H. Taft head of a new Philippine commission to establish civil government in the archipelago.

February 8.—An attendance of 100,000 children is reported in the public schools opened in Cuba by the United States Government.

February 10.—Governor Taylor recalls the Kentucky Legislature to the capital and orders the troops home.

February 17.—Chairman Hepburn, of the House Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce, makes public his report on the Nicaragua Canal.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

January 20.—The German Reichstag passes the government's estimates after debate.

January 24.—A conference of the Australian premiers begins its session at Sydney....The Austro-Hungarian ministry appoints a special commission on the mining strike.

January 25.—The Emperor of China nominates his successor in the person of a boy of nine, son of Prince Tuan.

January 26.—The Dowager Empress dismisses Lung Lu, chief of the Chinese forces, on account of his supposed disapproval of the *coup d'état*.

January 27.—The Finnish Diet is opened with the reading of the Czar's speech from the throne.

January 28.—The elections to the French Senate result in the choice of 61 Republicans, 6 Liberal Republicans, 18 Radicals, 7 Socialists, 4 Monarchists, and 3 Nationalists; the composition of the Senate remains essentially unchanged.

January 30.—The British Parliament is opened with the reading of the Queen's speech.

February 3.—Four Brazilian naval officers and several marines are arrested in Rio de Janeiro for attempting to incite a monarchist demonstration.

February 5.—Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, secretary of state for the colonies, addresses the British House of Commons in reply to criticisms of the government's course in South Africa....M. Fallières is reëlected president of the French Senate by a large majority.

February 6.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 352 to 139, rejects an amendment to the Queen's speech censuring the government.

February 7.—A Mexican plebiscite is nearly unanimous for the reëlection of President Diaz.



BRITISH RIFLE BRIGADE PRACTICING HILL-CLIMBING WITH MAXIM GUN AT PIETERMARITZBURG.

(This picture gives a very good idea of the country the British soldier has to march over.)

February 9.—The British House of Commons adopts the address in reply to the Queen's speech by a vote of 229 to 39.

February 10.—Archduke Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, renounces his claim to the succession and marries Countess Chotek.

February 12.—In the French Chamber of Deputies a bill is introduced by the ministry providing for the punishment by imprisonment of ministers of religion who publicly attack officials....In the British House of Commons George Wyndham, parliamentary secretary of the War Office, makes a statement regarding war preparations.

February 13.—The French Chamber of Deputies discusses the Martinique mining strikes.

February 15.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 239 to 34, adopts the government's military scheme; in the House of Lords Lord Rosebery attacks the government's proposals on the ground of inadequacy; Lord Salisbury and the Marquis of Lansdowne reply.

February 16.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 213 to 32, passes the supplementary army estimates of £13,000,000.

February 17.—Gen. Sir Charles Warren is elected to the British Parliament for the Newark division of Nottinghamshire.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 24.—The commercial and navigation treaty between Germany and Uruguay is ratified at Berlin.

January 29.—The State Department at Washington orders an investigation of the report that six Americans have been shot in Mexico.

January 30.—Russia, through the Loan Bank of Persia, guarantees a loan of 22,500,000 rubles ($11,475,000) to the Persian Government.

February 1.—A joint note to the Chinese Government from the American, British, Italian, French, and German ministers at Pekin demands protection for all missionaries in China.

February 5.—A convention amending the Clayton-Bulwer treaty between the United States and Great

Britain is signed at Washington by Secretary Hay and Ambassador Pauncefote. (See page 332.)

February 6.—Adelbert S. Hay, United States consul at Pretoria, presents his credentials to the government of the South African Republic.

February 8.—A reciprocity agreement between the United States and Italy under the Dingley act is signed at Washington by Commissioner Kasson and Ambassador Fava.

February 12.—President McKinley nominates commissioners to the Paris exposition.

February 13.—Hearings on the reciprocity treaty between the United States and France are closed at Paris.

February 14.—Ex-Consul Macrum makes public his reasons for leaving his post as the representative of American interests in Pretoria.

February 15.—It is announced that Rabah, the principal chieftain of the Central Soudan, has been defeated in battle by a French expedition.

February 16.—Ratifications of the new Samoan treaty are exchanged simultaneously in Washington, London, and Berlin.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.

January 20.—In the British advance on Ladysmith Sir Charles Warren moves to the attack of Spion Kop; General Clery fights a thirteen hours' battle, suffering slight casualties.

January 22.—Fighting continues in the vicinity of Spion Kop, all of General Warren's forces being brought into action.



MAJ.-GEN. T. KELLY-KENNY.

(Commanding the Sixth Division.)

January 23.—A storming party of General Warren's men captures Spion Kop by a night attack; General Woodgate is dangerously wounded.

January 24.—The British force holds Spion Kop, but suffers severely from the Boer shell fire.

January 25.—The British troops withdraw from Spion Kop, having suffered a loss of 209 in killed, wounded, and missing; the Boer loss is 53 killed and 120 wounded.

January 27.—All of General Buller's force is withdrawn to the south side of the Tugela River.



GEN. NEVILLE GERALD LYTTELTON.

(Who commanded a brigade in General Buller's attempts to relieve Ladysmith.)

February 5.—General Buller's troops recross the Tugela at two points.

February 9.—Being unable to make headway against a strong Boer position at Vaalkrantz, General Buller's troops retire across the Tugela, and the third attempt to relieve Ladysmith ends in failure.

February 12.—The British troops under General Wood seize Zoutpan's Drift; the Boers make successful attacks on the British lines near Rensberg....Lord Roberts' invasion of the Orange Free State begins at a drift on the Riet River.

February 13.—General French, with a cavalry brigade, advances to Modder River, capturing five Boer laagers.

February 14.—General Buller begins his fourth advance to the relief of Ladysmith.

February 15.—General French, with his cavalry, reaches Kimberley; the Boer troops under General Cronje abandon their trenches at Magersfontein and retreat eastward toward Bloemfontein; the British fall back from Rensberg to Arundel; Lord Roberts occupies Jakobsdal.

February 16.—General Brabant's horse force the Boers from a strong position at Dordrecht, Cape Colony.

February 17.—General Kelly-Kenny continues the pursuit of the Boers in the direction of Bloemfontein.

February 18.—General Buller takes several Boer camps northeast of Chieveley.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

January 20.—As the result of a fire started in the Asiatic quarter of Honolulu as a measure against the bubonic plague, the whole Chinese quarter, covering 13 blocks, is burned to the ground, and 4,500 persons are made homeless.

January 26.—The carpenters employed on the Paris exposition strike for higher wages.

January 30.—M. Zola is acquitted in the libel action brought against him by the editor of the *Petit Journal*, who accused M. Zola of forgery in the defense of his father's memory.

January 31.—The census taken by the United States Government shows the present population of Cuba to be 1,572,840 and of Puerto Rico 957,679.



THE LATE RICHARD D. BLACKMORE.

February 2.—The plague at Honolulu is believed to be well under control; the deaths to date number 46; about 10,000 persons are isolated by the quarantine; 10 blocks of buildings outside of Chinatown have been burned.

February 3.—The temperature at Buenos Ayres is 120° in the shade; 102 cases of sunstroke are officially reported, of which 93 are fatal.

February 4.—A fire in the business portion of St. Louis destroys property to the amount of $2,000,000.

February 5.—Filipino insurgents estimated to number 5,000 attack the American garrison at Daroga, in the province of Albay, Luzon; they are repulsed after they have burned much of the town.

February 8.—The annual convention of the National American Woman Suffrage Association opens in Washington.

February 10.—Seven thousand workmen employed on Chicago buildings refuse to work on Saturday afternoon....Roland B. Molineux, accused of the killing of Mrs. Katharine J. Adams by a poison package sent to Harry Cornish, is convicted of murder in the first degree in New York City.

February 12.—Viceroy Curzon states that those now receiving famine relief in India number 3,784,000....An "anti-trust" conference is held in Chicago.

February 16.—An expedition under Generals Bates and Bell leaves Manila to drive the insurgents out of the province of Camarines, Luzon.

February 17.—Six hundred Finlanders sail from Liverpool for Canada, making about 8,000 who have emigrated in the past six months.

OBITUARY.

January 20.—John Ruskin, 81. (See page 289.)

January 21.—Richard Doddridge Blackmore, author of "Lorna Doone," 75....The Duke of Teck, 63....Prof. D. E. Hughes, the electrician, 69....Rev. J. Henry Sharpe, D.D., a prominent Presbyterian clergyman, 58.

January 22.—Ex-United States Senator John P. Stockton, of New Jersey, 73....Theodore Bacon, a prominent lawyer of Rochester, N. Y., 66.

January 23.—Prof. Henry Allen Hazen, one of the chief forecasters of the United States Weather Bureau, 51....Gen. Thaddeus H. Stanton, U. S. A., 65.

January 25.—Dowager Duchess Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein, mother of the German Empress, 65.

January 26.—Mrs. Mary Elodie Gruber, one of the oldest residents and a descendant of one of the founders of St. Louis.

January 28.—James Watson Gerard, author of legal works, 78....Maj. Thomas A. Brander, a well-known ex-Confederate officer of Virginia, 60.

January 29.—Prof. Charles Francis Dunbar, of Harvard University, 70....Rev. William W. Eddy, D.D., for many years a missionary in Syria, 74.

January 31.—General Correa, formerly Spanish minister of war....The Marquis of Queensberry, 55....Albert Kimberly Fulton, Baltimore journalist, 64.

February 1.—Cardinal Vicar D. M. Jacobini, 63....Mrs. Kinsey Thomas, a well-known Maryland woman.

February 2.—Mrs. Annie Wittemeyer, who became famous as an army nurse in the Civil War, 73....William Stanley Haseltine, the artist, 65.

February 3.—William Goebel, contestant for the governorship of Kentucky, 44....Ex-Postmaster-General David McKendree Key, 76....Sir Thomas Grainger Stewart, the noted Scotch physician, 62....Gen. William Woods Averell, a conspicuous Union cavalry leader in the Civil War, 67.

February 4.—Joseph Lyman Partridge, of Brooklyn, N. Y., the oldest living graduate of Williams College, 96.

February 5.—William Henry Gilder, the arctic explorer, 62....Rev. Edward Griffin Porter, D.D., president of the New England Genealogical Society, 62.

February 6.—Rev. John Kennedy, a leading English Nonconformist, 87.

February 7.—Charles François Felu, the armless Belgian painter, 70.

February 8.—Dr. George W. Smith, formerly president of Colgate University, 38....Beriah Brown, for half a century engaged in newspaper work on the Pacific coast, 86.

February 9.—Col. Richard W. Thompson, the veteran Indiana politician, 90.

February 10.—Rev. William Henry Green, D.D., of Princeton, 75.

February 12.—Ex-Gov. Henry Horatio Wells, of Virginia, 77....Dr. Edward L. Holmes, former president of Rush Medical College, Chicago, 72.

February 17.—Judge Richard A. Buckner, of Kentucky, 87.

February 18.—Miss Sarah Porter, head of the famous school for girls at Farmington, Conn., 86.



KENTUCKY.—From the *World* (New York).

SOME POLITICAL CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



KENTUCKY'S HIGHEST COURT OF APPEAL HOLDS A SHORT SESSION AND ADJOURNS.—From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



THE TEMPTATION OF ST. BRYAN.

COCKRAN: "Cast off free silver and I will support and vote for you."

ST. BRYAN: "Nay, nay, Bourke, my boy—the leopard cannot change its spots."—From the *Tribune* (New York).



PREPARING FOR A "HARMONY" DINNER.

BEER FOX: "Let's get together, Mr. Rooster.
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn).



THEORY AND PRACTICE.

AUNTY DEMOCRACY: "See, Mr. Bryan, I have brought two of the dear little Filipinos to see you."

BRYAN: "I can't see 'em, aunty—I can't see 'em! I'm too busy writing this resolution of sympathy for the poor, downtrodden patriots."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



MR. BRYAN IN THE EAST.

From the *Record* (Chicago).



A BIT OF MR. M'KELWAY'S SATIRE.

"Oh, Young Lochinvar has come out of the West.
On all the wide border his steed was the best."

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn).



ANYTHING TO OBLIGE MAJOR M'KINLEY—JUST A FRIENDLY SUGGESTION.

(This may be the reason for the approaching return of General Otis—at least a Washington dispatch says that the general is coming back to these States.)

From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



THE SITUATION AT WASHINGTON.

HAY: "Me lud!"

PAUNCEFOTE: "Eh? What's that?"

MCKINLEY: "Me noble lud!"

PAUNCEFOTE: "Now, what do you want? Another treaty?"

MCKINLEY: "Me lud, please deliver our consul's letters after you read them."

PAUNCEFOTE: "Oh! Certainly, my good fellow, certainly!"—From the *Journal* (New York).



ANOTHER ADMINISTRATION SCAPEGOAT.

The unhappy situation of Secretary Gage, who is said to be destined to follow Gen. Alger into retirement as a result of his dealings with a certain New York bank.

From the *Verdict* (New York).



THE ADMINISTRATION GUARDIAN.

"Who said investigation?"—From the *Verdict* (New York).

JOHN RUSKIN: POET, PAINTER, AND PROPHET.

BY LUCKING TAVENER.

OF all the brilliant Englishmen whose light made the mid-day of this century so glorious, Martineau and Ruskin alone remained to watch its subdued sunset. Gladstone, Tennyson, Browning, Carlyle, Darwin, and Turner passed away as its evening shadows began to fall. Perhaps no one, even of these, influenced the age more than did the subject of this sketch. Born on the eighth day of February, 1819, John Ruskin lived till January 20, 1900, among the beautiful hills and dales around Coniston Lake. Though his voice had been silent for years, his real influence is greater now than ever. This is due, however, to the fact that what he wrote and what he accomplished in his earlier years are better understood now than then. As is the nature of most men of genius, he had a full share of extravagances; but to-day these are taken for what they are worth, and the underlying truth of his teaching is being accepted. We are yet much too near him properly to assign his place among the great leaders of modern thought. Several results of his life-work, however, are undoubted. Orthodox art, literature, economy, and religion have each been shaken in his powerful grasp, and their respective professors dare not say that their departments are the same since Ruskin spoke. Public libraries, government schools, state workshops, and polytechnics are common institutions to-day, of which no one would deny the use; but John Ruskin was considerably laughed at when, in 1861, he advocated them. Though he would repudiate socialism, his political economy was built upon such broad principles that much of the socialistic tendency of to-day is based upon his economic teachings. As a writer his style was so beautiful and his workmanship so perfect that it has to be acknowledged that he is the greatest master of English prose. What, then, it may be asked, are the circumstances which molded this nineteenth-century genius?

I.—THE MAKING OF RUSKIN.

PARENTAGE AND EARLY TRAINING.

The father of John Ruskin was an upright and successful wine merchant, with an intense love of pictures and a decided religious bias. For business purposes he had to drive every year through the principal country roads of England, Wales, and southern Scotland. On these expeditions the wine merchant was accompanied by his wife, and when John was four years of age he also went, and was very deeply impressed with what he saw. Not only was he thus enabled to see some of the loveliest bits of British scenery, but he also had an opportunity of examining the picture collections in most of the castles and mansions of our land. Thus while quite a child nature and art began to teach John Ruskin some of their greatest lessons. These drives also brought home to him some political and economic truths which he did not easily forget. "As soon as I could perceive any political truth at all," he says, "I perceived that it was probably much happier to live in a small house and have Warwick Castle to be astonished at than to live in Warwick Castle and have nothing to be astonished at." Still, these old historic buildings, with their art treasures and literary associations, had a great attraction for him, and he felt that "at all events it would not make Brunswick Square in the least more pleasantly habitable to pull Warwick Castle down."

His mother was a very pious though severe woman. She dedicated her son to the Christian ministry before he was born, and intended to make his training her life's mission, regarding him from the first as a "sacred trust, never as a plaything or a pastime." No child was ever treated more seriously than he, every detail of his education and early influence being the result of deliberate plans, all of which arrangement may have been very praiseworthy on the part of the mother, but it was far from enjoyable for the boy. Through this over-carefulness John Ruskin cannot be said to have had a childhood in the ordinary sense of the term. He had no toys, Mrs. Ruskin believing that the best teacher a boy could have was personal experience. That is the reason she left him to his own resources for amusement, compelling him to think out things for himself. As a baby he cried for the bright copper kettle which was on the fire. He was allowed to touch it in order that he might know such things were not intended to be played with. As a boy he found recreation in fancying people among the pattern of the parlor carpet, watching the water-carts filled from a street pipe on the pavement opposite, and inventing things with a bunch of keys.

His mother was his only educational guide till he was fourteen years of age, watching him every moment of his waking hours, punishing him severely if he cried, disobeyed, or fell, and never on any account giving him outward expression of maternal love, though her affection for him must have been great.

She allowed him to choose his own reading for week-days, but on Sundays he was restricted to the Bible, "Robinson Crusoe," and the "Pilgrim's Progress." His own choice was made from Scott, Homer, and Byron.

The father desired John to be poet laureate, but Mrs. Ruskin had planned that her boy should be an evangelical bishop. His mother's evangelicalism was not attractive to her son, and as she had a sister who was even more evangelical than herself, John Ruskin did not grow up to be an evangelical clergyman.

Though he was the son of a wine merchant, he was an author born. Before he had entered his teens he was writing descriptions in prose and verse of every scene through which he passed, and illustrating them with Turner-like vignettes drawn with a fine crow-quill pen in imitation of the delicate engravings which were issued with Rogers' "Italy." His first book was produced when he was seven years of age, and consisted of a story in imitation of Miss Edgeworth. The MS. occupied three volumes and was entirely written in characters of type. A specimen of his early verse must be given. It is dated January 1, 1828. I select this one because it was chosen by himself, when a man, as representative of his early poetry, and reprinted by him in "Athena." It describes a frosty day in Glen Farg; and though the writer was only nine years of age, this childish rhyme is a prophecy of "Modern Painters" and "The Stones of Venice."

Papa, how pretty those icicles are,
That are seen so near, that are seen so far;
Those dropping waters that come from the rocks,
And many a hole, like the haunt of a fox.
That silvery stream that runs babbling along,
Making a murmuring, dancing song.
Those trees that stand waving upon the rock's side,
And men that like specters among them glide:
And waterfalls that are heard from far,
And come in sight when very near.
And the water-wheel that turns so slowly round,
Grinding the corn that requires to be ground;
And mountains at a distance seen,
And rivers winding through the plain,
And quarries with their ragged stones,
And the wind among them moans.

So precious a treasure as this boy could not be trusted to the tender mercies of a public school. Tutors were accordingly engaged for home training, and these were very carefully watched by the anxious and ambitious mother. When I mention that the Rev. Canon Dale, Copley Fielding, and Harding were among these, it will be seen that the selection was of no mean order. That two such artists were chosen is proof also that the father considered the fine arts a specialty in his son's education. Mr. Ruskin, senior, was an amateur painter himself and possessed a very fine collection of pictures.

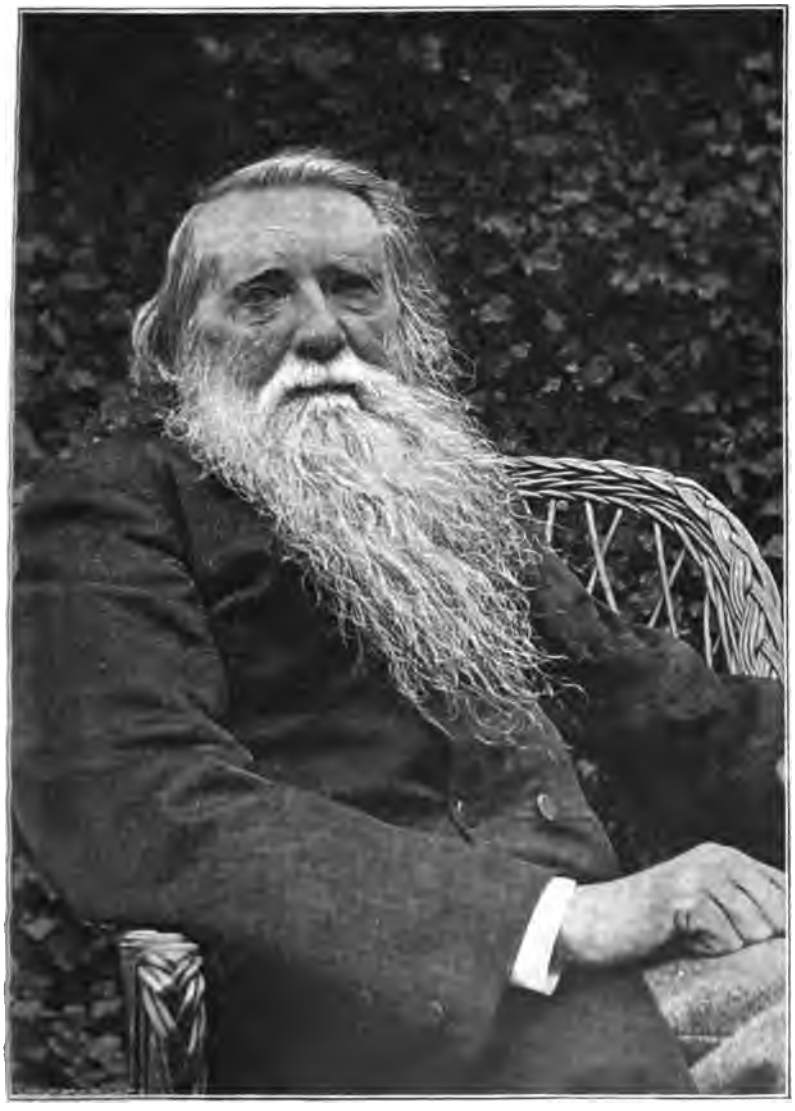
In due course John Ruskin went to Oxford. He entered Christ Church as a gentleman commoner and, as would be expected from such a youth, paid very diligent heed to his studies. In 1839 he carried off the Newdigate prize for English poetry. The poem consisted of a description of the cave temples of Elephanta peopled with the deities of Hindoo mythology. These are represented as struggling with the powers of Christianity; the ultimate downfall of idolatry and the complete triumph of Christianity are predicted. He published this poem in 1840, two years before he took his M.A.

RUSKIN AND TURNER.

It was while Ruskin was a student at Oxford that the art world was startled by the work of Turner. It is, of course, idle to speculate what course events would have taken if something had not happened which did happen. But the whole of Mr. Ruskin's after life and work hangs entirely on the influence of Turner's pictures upon his mind during his Oxford days. To remove Turner from Ruskin's influences is to render his life a blank; consequently it is impossible to guess in the remotest degree what the "Graduate of Oxford" would have been if he had not seen Turner's pictures and read the strongly worded condemnation of that artist in *Blackwood's Magazine*. Other criticisms had been given, and John Ruskin had taken no notice. This one seemed more than he could let pass. He therefore attempted to answer it in an article of similar length, but found that it was a longer matter to defend against attack than to attack. He considered his article inadequate and did not send it to press, but extended it to pamphlet size, intending to call it "Turner and the Ancients." To be as thorough and accurate as possible, he found it necessary to go to the continental galleries. He wintered in Rome and spent much time in other cities of Italy and northern Europe, and included his fresh impressions in his work, publishing it as a portly volume under the title of "Modern Painters." This was in 1843, when the author was only twenty-one. It was not long before the second volume followed, consisting of the matter collected in the Italian tours and crowded out of the first. It was mainly occupied with consider-

ations of nature and the quality of beauty, but, incidentally, it introduced to Englishmen two Italian artists who were then almost unknown in England, but have since become favorites—Fra Angelico and Tintoret. While writing the third, fourth, and fifth volumes of "Modern Painters" many other subjects engaged the author's attention, but most of these were the outcome of the preparation for his main work. The careful and elaborate comparisons which Mr. Ruskin made between the works of artists and the aspects of nature occupied too much space, and so easily grouped themselves under different heads that they readily suggested other and separate publications. The Venetian notes were issued as "The Stones of Venice;" the architectural chapters as "The Seven Lamps of Architecture;" the Florentine sketches as "Mornings in Florence;" and the botanical notes, chiefly made in English lanes and on Swiss mountains, were brought out under the title of "Proserpina."

Thus the English-speaking race has to thank the anonymous author of the forgotten article in *Blackwood's Magazine* indirectly for its very finest specimens of English prose, for it was through his venomous attack on Turner's pictures that we had revealed to us the greatest master of modern prose literature. Speaking of the writing of the book, Mr. Ruskin said: "It has been written of necessity. I saw an injustice done and tried to remedy it. I heard falsehood taught and was compelled to deny it. Nothing else was possible to me."



JOHN RUSKIN.
(From a photograph taken in 1897.)

THE INFLUENCE OF THOMAS CARLYLE.

The influence of Turner in the building of the character of our subject, great though it was, gave way to the stronger power of Thomas Carlyle. The vigorous writings of the Chelsea sage had been frightening the lovers of peace and quietude with bombshell-like explosions in the political, social, economic, and business arenas of English life and thought. All men were more or less moved by them. Some violently hated the writer and others as violently worshiped him. Among the latter was John Ruskin, who came very early under the magic spell of the author of "Sartor Resartus" and "Past and Present." For years this influence had been telling upon him, but when he had arrived at the age of forty, so completely was his attitude changed that he wished he could undo all the work he had already done and begin afresh on entirely

different lines. It might truly be said to have been Ruskin's new birth. Mr. Collingwood says in his "Life and Work of John Ruskin:"

> Until he was forty Mr. Ruskin was a writer on art; after that his art was secondary to ethics. Until he was forty he was a believer in English Protestantism; afterward he could not reconcile current beliefs with the facts of life as he saw them, and had to reconstruct his creed from the foundations.

John Ruskin was far too earnest a man to allow such a conversion to operate in matters of faith only. If it was of any value, it must operate in the minutest details of life. For years he had been getting annoyed that people were praising his books on account of their pretty and picturesque pieces of writing, instead of obeying his teaching. It was therefore no hasty resolve that made him wish to withdraw "Modern Painters" and publish some economic writings about which there could be no mistake as to their purport. In these he would refrain from making beautiful paragraphs. He would speak the utmost practical truth he knew. Accordingly he allowed "Modern Painters," "The Stones of Venice," and "The Seven Lamps of Architecture" to get out of print. Not that he disagreed with those writings, but that he now considered them of much less consequence than the economic doctrines he had learned from Carlyle.

It must not be imagined that the teaching contained in Mr. Ruskin's books on art was contrary to the gospel of Carlyle and the more practical work of his own later writings. Carlyle's books and Ruskin's art works were making for the same goal, but had vastly different starting-points. Carlyle sorrowed over the sins, shams, and strifes of city life, and with strong and sarcastic language urged people to come out of Babel and be true, pure, and united. Ruskin gloried in the beauty, purity, and unity of nature, and tried, in smooth and beautiful sentences, to persuade men to put in practice the spirit found there as the only true principle of life. But Ruskin felt that Carlyle's method was more direct and his gospel deeper, consequently he adopted it. The action taken on the perception of the supposed greater truth was similar in each case. It will be remembered that when Carlyle had been so deeply pained at what he had seen of life in London and Edinburgh, he retired to the lonely moor of Craigenputtock quietly to think out the problems raised by such experiences, and there work out his thoughts in "Sartor Resartus." Ruskin, in his turn, retired from the bustle of the big and busy metropolis to the silent rocks of Switzerland to ponder over the same weighty problems, giving to the world as a result "Unto This Last" and "Munera Pulveris."

II.—RUSKIN THE REFORMER.

PERSONAL REFORMATION.

One of the earliest hints of his disapproval of the relations existing between poverty and wealth arises from his contemplation of the luxury possible to himself after his father's death. In "Præterita" he says:

> I have round me here at Denmark Hill seven acres of leasehold ground. I pay £50 a year ground rent and £250 a year in wages to my gardeners, besides expenses in fuel for hot-houses and the like. And for this sum of £300 odd a year I have some peas and strawberries in summer, some camellias and azaleas in winter, and good cream and a quiet place to walk in all the year round. Of the strawberries, cream, and peas I eat more than is good for me, sometimes, of course, obliging my friends with a superfluous pottle or pint. The camellias and azaleas stand in the anteroom of my library, and everybody says when they come in, "How pretty!" and my young lady friends have leave to gather what they like to put in their hair when they are going to balls. Meantime, outside of my fenced seven acres numbers of people are starving, many are dying of too much gin, and many of their children dying of too little milk.

At the time of writing this Mr. Ruskin was a rich man. His father had left him £157,000, besides some property in houses and land and a very valuable collection of pictures. It is evident from the extract just quoted that the wealth did not make him happy. The problem of the poor was continually upon his mind, and his conscience forced him to the conclusion that he had no right to enjoy this wealth, as he had not earned it.

But what was to be done? He could not prevent his father's bequest. He had possession of the money, and he could not disclaim it. But he was determined he would not reap the benefit of it. So he looked about him for cases of need, which, it is needless to say, he soon found. Among his own relatives many thousand pounds were distributed; much of the money went in substantial art and educational gifts to Oxford and Sheffield; and the last £3,000 was spent on those visits to the continent which proved so useful in his later work. Perhaps few will admit this to be the wisest way of disposing of his wealth, but every one will admit that if wisdom was not shown earnestness was. His faith was that no man had a right to eat food or enjoy pleasure which was not the reward of work done with his own hands and brain. None but the most brave and earnest would accept a creed like this, especially if it was first of all to act upon self. By thus attempting to live out his creed he had made it impossible to live without teaching, writing, or otherwise working.



THE HOUSE AT HERNE HILL WHERE RUSKIN WAS BORN IN 1819.

SOCIAL EXPERIMENTS.

And what is more, he had determined that the sons of the aristocracy who came within the range of his influence should know what real work meant. Not only did he think that it would be healthy for the lads themselves, but it would help to dispose of the prevalent thought that manual labor was a very easy thing and required no skill to accomplish it.

Accordingly, when he was Slade Professor at Oxford his road-making expeditions were as popular as his drawing classes. Besides road-making parties for Oxford, he organized gutter-sweeping gangs for St. Giles's, London; and before he began such organizing he himself learned of the navvy and the scavenger. "Half of my power," says he, "of ascertaining facts of any kind connected with the arts is in my stern habit of doing the thing with my own hands till I know its difficulty."

The same principle actuated him when, before he led his undergraduates to the new road at Hincksey, he went stone-breaking on his own account. His own words are:

I sat with an iron-masked stone-breaker on his heap to break stones beside the London road, just under Iffley Hill, till I knew how to advise my too impetuous pupils to effect their purposes in that matter, instead of breaking the heads of their hammers off (a serious item in our daily expenses).

Similarly, when he had determined to employ his gang of aristocratic scavengers for eight hours each day to keep the gutters between the British Museum and Seven Dials as clean as a ship's deck, he made the experiment first himself:

I learned from an Irish street-crossing sweeper what he could teach me of sweeping, and again and again I swept bits of St. Giles's foot pavements, showing my corps of subordinates how to finish into the depths of gutter.

As was natural, the public generally ridiculed these experiments as silly. But ridicule, and public opinion for that matter, had very little effect upon Mr. Ruskin. The degradation of the toilers and the sufferings of the poor had sunk deeply into his soul, and he was determined to see if anything could be done. He would experiment again and in another direction. He perceived that the workingman's rent was the great item in his expenditure which, more than anything else, kept him poor. Mr. Ruskin therefore set up as lodging-house keeper in a London slum and tried to provide a decent home accommodation at a moderate rate. The property in the neighborhood was yielding its landlord 12 per cent., but the new landlord was content with 5. At another time he opened a provision shop to sell to the poor a good tea at the lowest possible price. This was very well as local philanthropy, but it was not of far-reaching good.

A WEAVING ENTERPRISE.

Again, the conditions under which woolen goods were manufactured made him so indignant that he bought a number of hand looms for certain old cottagers, and formed a little center of industry in the lovely English lake district, thinking that old people should have easy and pleasant work, and that this should be done, if possible, in the midst of beautiful surroundings. This concern is still flourishing, and the *Daily News* said some time ago that the only drawback to it was that these homespun woolen goods, unlike the machine-made articles, would never wear out.

UNIQUE PUBLISHING.

The publication of Mr. Ruskin's books is an experiment which should not be omitted. It is well known that the author was his own publisher for many years, but the details of the concern are not generally known. There was no special friction between the Messrs. Smith & Elder and the author of "Modern Painters" which led to the change. It was a matter of principle, far deeper than could possibly be involved in a passing dispute. It was simply that the author felt that the men who actually produced books did not get their proper share of the rewards and that the public did not get the full value of their outlay. And the reason, he felt, was that too great a proportion was swallowed up in the transit from author to public. Therefore it seemed clear that the remedy should be found in the establishment of closer contact between writer and reader. Here was his problem, and he resolved to experiment.



JOHN RUSKIN.
(From a photograph taken in 1866.)

Fortunately Mr. Ruskin had discovered a man after his own heart on whom he could rely for help. This man was a workingman student he had met in his drawing class at Great Ormond Street, in whom he thought he saw possibilities of better work. He had at once taken him in hand, and later business developments have shown the instinct to have been a right one. It was in 1854 that the professor and his future publisher first met, and during the three succeeding years their relationship was of the closest kind. George Allen was taught engraving and etching by Mr. Le Keux, who had done some exquisite work for Mr. Ruskin, and then some mezzotint instruction was given by Thomas Lupton, who had been engraver to Turner.

Having obtained his engraver and otherwise useful man, the next thing was to get his printing press and make arrangements for binding. These were well established in the beautiful and quiet village of Orpington, in Kent, and the master personally presided over the works for several years. It was a gigantic undertaking, and critics laughed at the publishing business "planted in the middle of a country field;" but it became a phenomenal success.

The first book issued was "Fors Clavigera," and an early number of that work contained the following explanation:

It costs me £10 to print one thousand, and £5 more to give you a picture, and a penny off my sevenpence to send you the book; a thousand sixpences are £25; when you have bought a thousand "Fors" of me I shall therefore have £5 for my trouble, and my single shopman, Mr. Allen, £5 for his; we won't work for less, either of us. And I mean to sell all my large books henceforward in the same way, well printed, well bound, and at a fixed price; and the trade may charge a proper and acknowledged profit for their trouble in retailing the book. Then the public will know what they are about, and so will tradesmen. I, the first producer, answer, to the best of my power, for the quality of the book—paper, binding, eloquence, and all; the retail dealer charges what he ought to charge openly; and if the public do not choose to give it they can't get the book. That is what I call legitimate business.

In an article of this kind it is impossible to give minute details of such a department of the subject as this publishing concern. It must suffice to mention that in an interview published in the *Pall Mall Gazette* for March 23, 1887, Mr. George Allen stated that he had £27,000 worth of goods stored away in a shed at the side of the

back garden. After that the business steadily increased, and when such big undertakings as the production of a new edition of "Modern Painters" and "The Stones of Venice" were proceeded with, the accommodation of the Kentish village was found insufficient, and a London house had to be opened. The main work, however, of the making of the books of Mr. Ruskin continued to be done amid the pleasant surroundings of the village of Orpington.

ECONOMIC REFORMATION.

Most of these efforts at reformation we have mentioned were of a local character, but each experiment added its quota to the experience of Mr. Ruskin. He had also studied the professed leaders of political economy, and had been always on the lookout for facts and thoughts in this direction during the progress of his many other varied studies. He had now abandoned his art writing and devoted himself to advocating the establishment of government, trade, and society on sounder and more righteous lines. The causes of most of the evils, he thought, were to be traced to misconceptions of the meaning of such terms as wealth, value, and political economy. He thought that if the truth of these important things were known a great difference would soon arise in the relations between rich and poor. He therefore did his level best to teach the truth on these subjects. "Unto This Last" is an attempt in this direction. It consists of four chapters, which were originally published in the *Cornhill Magazine* for 1860, when Thackeray was editor. Two chapters were so violently reprobated by the readers of that magazine that the editor begged the writer to desist. The book is an attack upon the science of political economy. The author declares the so-called science is not political economy at all, but mercantile economy. *Polis*, from which we derive our word "political," means the state. Political economy should have for its end the good of the whole community; but the orthodox science of that name makes the merchant rich and has no regard for other members of the state.

The chief doctrine of this science is said to be: "Buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest." In commercial circles it will be admitted that there is no safer doctrine than this. But see what Mr. Ruskin says of it:

So far as I know there is not in history record of anything so disgraceful to the human intellect as the modern idea that the commercial text, "Buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest," represents, or under any circumstances could represent, an available principle of national economy. Buy in the cheapest market? Yes; but what made your market cheap? Charcoal may be cheap among your roof timbers when your house and home has been made a ruin by fire. Bricks may be cheap in your streets after an earthquake. But would you therefore say that fire and earthquake are national benefits, because you can buy things cheap after their reign of havoc and destruction? And you can rest assured when an article is cheap that behind it, if you could but tear away the veil of commercialism, there would be seen some destructive fire of human joy or some earthquake of human happiness. Sell in the dearest? Yes, truly; but what made your market dear? You sold your bread well to-day: was it to a dying man who gave his last coin for it and will need bread no more; or to a rich man who to-morrow will buy your farm over your head; or to a soldier on his way to pillage the bank in which you have put your savings?

Again, Mr. Ruskin maintains that we do not even know what it means to be rich. One side



RUSKIN'S LECTURE-ROOM AT THE TAYLORIAN, OXFORD.



JOHN RUSKIN.

only of the question do we know. "Rich" is a relative word—it implies its opposite; just as north implies south, rich implies poor. It is impossible under existing conditions for everybody to be rich. If everybody had enough—and there is enough for everybody—there would be no poor, and there would be no reason for anybody to be rich. But now, if a man is rich, some one is or some people are poor in consequence. Says Ruskin: "The force of the guinea you have in your pocket depends wholly upon the default of the guinea in your neighbor's pocket. If he did not want it it would be of no use to you; the degree of power it possesses depends accurately upon the need or desire he has for it—and the art of making yourself rich, in the ordinary mercantile economist's sense, is therefore equally and necessarily the art of keeping your neighbor poor."

The true wealth of a nation, then, is not to be estimated by the riches of a few merchants, whose riches might mean widespread poverty, but in the general well-being of the mass of the people. This view is the one our author insists upon as the true one for wealth. Wealth means well-being—weal; and the nation which can and does support the largest number of healthy and happy people is the wealthiest nation. It can in no way be a benefit to a nation to increase the riches of a few at the sacrifice of the common health, comfort, or happiness.

The work of the government of a nation is, therefore, to determine the noblest type of man possible and to steadfastly aim at maintaining the largest possible number of persons of that class. *Money* from this point of view is to be considered merely as a system of counters by which labor is exchanged for the means of living. When accumulated, it is mostly at the cost of life—or by the hastening of deaths.

Such were some of the conclusions contained in "Unto This Last" and "Munera Pulveris." The principles involved were so sweeping that commercial men and politicians were amazed and asked what the author was driving at. Accordingly, in the preface of "Unto This Last" he summarized his practical suggestions.

First, he would have training schools all over the country, established by the government, maintained at government cost, and under government discipline. They should be free to every child born in the country, and in them each should be taught (1) the laws of health, (2) gentleness and justice, and (3) the calling by which the scholar is afterward to live.

In the next place he would have government manufactories and workshops for the production and sale of every necessary of life and for the exercise of every useful art. Good material only to be used and proper wages always given.

Thirdly, anybody out of employment should be received at the nearest government school, where personal examination should be held, then work given of a kind the person was fit for. If ignorance be the cause of lack of employment, the person should be taught; if laziness, then work should be found from the class of work which most men shrink from, painful and degrading, but necessary—such as mining and other work of danger; but in every case the utmost care should be taken to render the work as little dangerous as possible. Due wages should be allowed—deducting the cost of compulsion—these wages to be at the workman's command as soon as he has come to sounder mind respecting the laws of employment. When sickness is the cause the sick one should be tended.

Fourthly, for the aged destitute comfort and home should be provided, which provision should carry with it no disgrace to the receiver when the misfortune has not come through guilt.

These suggestions appear quite rational to us in 1900, but they came as a great shock to the readers of 1860. The capitalists urged that Mr.

Ruskin was considering the workman's side only, and that the workman would squander higher wages if he had them. Mr. Ruskin replied that whatever disposition the workman had, the responsibility rested with those in better ranks of society. In the chapter called "Ad Valorem" in "Unto This Last" occurs this passage:

Alas! it is not meat of which the refusal is cruelest or to which the claim is validest. The life is more than meat. The rich not only refuse food to the poor—they refuse wisdom, they refuse virtue, they refuse salvation. Ye sheep without a shepherd, it is not the pasture that has been shut from you, but the Presence. Meat! Perhaps your right to that may be pleadable, but other rights have to be pleaded first. Claim your crumbs from the table if you will, but claim them as children, not as dogs; claim your right to be fed, but claim more loudly your right to be holy, perfect, and pure.



THE ROAD AT HINCKSEY, OXFORD.

(From a drawing by one of Ruskin's pupils.)

III.—RUSKIN THE ARTIST.

HIS DRAWINGS.

The world knows John Ruskin first and foremost as an art critic, and it has a right to ask what of practical work he has done to prove his competency to criticise. Surely we are not asking too much of any critic when we desire to know whether he has the necessary knowledge to enable him to produce works of a kind he criticises. No one will dispute Mr. Ruskin's knowledge of the theory and history of art. It is because of his thoroughness under these heads that we take as gospel his teaching with regard to the schools of art of the past. But when he ventures to tell us where living artists fail and succeed, we have a right to know whether he can himself draw and paint. Is he an artist as well as an art critic? An answer in the affirmative comes from everything he has done. He is an artist in every fiber of him. Even when he deals with political economy the artist is seen in his using the real materials at present around him to evolve therefrom an ideal for the future; and every one of his readers will readily admit that he is a consummate artist in words, while the water-color pictures and pencil drawings he has made prove that if he had done more work of this kind he would have risen to the front rank in the painting world.

The making of his books of necessity took too much of his time and attention to allow this to be accomplished. The museums of Sheffield and Oxford, however, give ample evidence of the richness of his art quality and the delicacy of his handling, while his beautiful and poetic illustrations to "Modern Painters," "Seven Lamps of Architecture," and "Proserpina" prove what he could have done had he so desired. An exhibition of his drawings was held in the rooms of the Fine Art Society in 1878. The *Artist* for July of last year published a collection of eighteen specimens of his work, and a portfolio was issued some time ago by George Allen called "Studies in Both Arts." All these drawings are splendid examples of his own theories. They show both broad Turner-like treatment of landscape and exquisite detail work of flowers and brambles, together with glorious color effects on such subjects as a stranded crab all wet with seawater and glowing in the strong sunlight of a sandy beach, and the marvelous blending of tints in the plumage of a partridge. The superficial student will from this be in doubt as to whether Mr. Ruskin belongs, as an artist, to the impressionist school or to its opposite—those who labor on detail and finish. His landscapes are very impressionist, while his studies in brambles and rocks, for instance, are done with the utmost care precision, and attention to detail. The reason is that he is above the narrowness of any school, and perceives partial truth alike in impressionism and in pre-Raphaelism. His principle is that when the object of a picture is gained without microscopic painting, it should be considered complete. All work must be as direct and simple as possible. If many pieces of finely worked-up secondary details tend to take away the force of the meaning of the composition, they should be avoided. For the broad landscapes, then, bold treatment is required, but for foreground, flower, or such like studies no care over detail can be too great. Consequently some of his pictures would bring delight to the one school, while just as many could be found to please the other. Hence it is that the pre-Raphaelites considered Mr. Ruskin their champion, while the friends of Mr. Whistler, so widely different, thought they were showing the world how splen-

didly the critic's theories worked. Mr. Ruskin, however, criticised Rossetti and Holman Hunt, and also used language in describing the work of Mr. Whistler strong enough to induce the latter gentleman to enter upon a libel action. On looking at many drawings by Mr. Whistler, one is somewhat surprised at the animosity of Mr. Ruskin to the painter. Mr. Whistler has certainly mastered the problem of directness. He knows how to express subtle effect with the least possible labor. A few strokes of the brush or lines of the etching-needle made by his hand convey extraordinary expression. All his work reveals the power of conveying the utmost meaning by the simplest means. He does not feel that his work lies in the direction of objects that require much detail, and this lack, I assume, is sufficient reason to have kept Mr. Ruskin out of sympathy with the artist's work.

HIS PEN-PICTURES.

Mr. Frederic Harrison wrote in the *Nineteenth Century*:

The world has long been of one mind as to the beauty of Ruskin's writing; but even yet full justice has not been rendered to his consummate mastery over our English tongue—it has not been put high enough, and some of its unique qualities have not been perceived. In certain qualities, in given ways, and in some rarer passages of his, Ruskin not only surpasses every contemporary writer of prose (which, indeed, is obvious enough), but he calls out of our English tongue notes more strangely beautiful and inspiring than any ever yet issued from that instrument. No writer of prose before or since has ever rolled forth such mighty fantasies, or reached such pathetic melodies in words, or composed long books in one continued strain of limpid grace. . . It cannot be denied that Ruskin, especially in his earlier works, is too often obtrusively luscious, that his images are often lyrical, set in too profuse and gorgeous a mosaic. Be it so. But he is always perfectly, triumphantly clear, absolutely free from affected euphuism, never laboriously "precious," never grotesque, never eccentric. His besetting sins as a master of speech may be summed up in his passion for profuse imagery and delight in an almost audible melody of words.

This is no fit place to print any of the master's exquisite word-pictures. So beautiful are the descriptions of the sea approach to Venice, St. Mark's, Holman Hunt's pictures, the mountain scenery of Switzerland, of Turner the man and the pictures from that artist's brush that they have been reprinted again and again. It goes without saying that in his beauty of word-painting, in his accentuation of the view from his own standpoint, he sometimes became extravagant. To say this is only to say that he is an artist. But there was a danger in this, as he found. In after years he repented that the beauty of his language caused him to be regarded as artist when he wanted to be regarded as teacher. In the glamour of his intense coloring the vital truth had been lost, and when he discovered it he upbraided his readers for paying more attention to his pretty sentences than heeding the lessons he tried to teach.

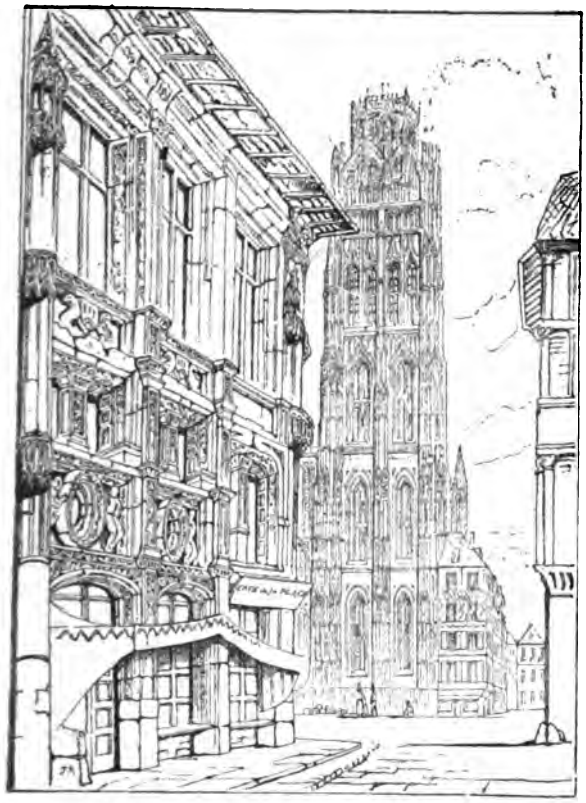
"All my life," he once said—"all my life I have been talking to the people, and they have listened not to what I had to say, but to how I said it; they have cared only for the manner, not the matter. For them the kernel is nothing; it is the shell that attracts."

He is correct when he hints that the power of picturesque writing has been with him all his life. We have seen it in his juvenile rhymes, and it is conspicuous in the letters he addressed to his friends from college. I must make one quotation:



A VIEW OF "OLD MAN" AS SEEN FROM BRANTWOOD.

Have you ever sat meditatively in a pastry cook's shop . . . to watch the pale faces and sunken eyes which pass lingeringly before the window and fall upon the consumers of the fruits of the earth, half in prayer and half in accusation? They have no conception of the meaning of the various devices for exciting and pampering the gorged appetite; they never tasted such things in their lives; they are so used to hunger that they do not know what *taste* means! But they gaze as they would on some strange paradise when they see the shadows of unknown delights—calls upon senses whose possession they scarcely knew. Have you watched them turning away, sick with famine, weak with desire, with the mild sorrowful look of subdued reproach at the fixed features and hard brows within (for they are mere children and have not learned their lessons of re-



THE CATHEDRAL SPIRE, ROUEN.
(From a pencil drawing by John Ruskin in 1835.)

bellion against God and man), and then reflected that there was but the width and weight of a penny between them and the door? Have you seen some less pitiable urchin, one who has some slight conception of what is meant by the word "tart," pause before the "refuse" chair at the door to eye the variegated, blackburned tin tray, with its arranged square of elliptical raspberry tarts—the slightest, the very shadow of an amicable adherence existing between them and the tray by means of the rich distillation of crimson, coagulated juice and their cramped, undulating edge of paste, shaded with soft brown by the touch of the considerate fire, sinking gradually beneath the transparent, granular, ruby-tinted expanse of unimaginably ambrosial jam, and considered that a penny would enable you to sever that juicy connection with the tin, and send the boy away with bright eyes and elastic step and mouth open with wonder, silent with gratitude, watering with anticipation?

IV.—RUSKIN THE ART CRITIC.

It is obvious that an art critic in the habit of using language so intense would be sure to make strong friends and bitter enemies. The school of art which worked according to his principles would certainly receive from his pen high commendation, while those who did not heed those principles would be strongly, if not violently, condemned. Artists did not look with any degree of delight upon his work, but feared the coming of his criticism, while the public paid so much attention to his writing as to lead the *Daily Chronicle* to say that even "a cold word from his pen could send back an important picture unsold to the painter's studio," and *Mr. Punch* voiced the artist's lament in these words:

I paints and I paints,
Hears no complaints,
And sells before I'm dry;
Till savage Ruskin
Sticks his tusk in,
And nobody will buy.

Several incidents are recorded of the effects of these awkward relations between artists and the critic. For instance, Mr. Ruskin had criticised, in his fearless and frank way, a picture of a well-known painter, who was very much grieved at the effect. The writer, on hearing of the sorrow, wrote to the artist to say that he regretted he could not speak more favorably of the picture, but hoped it would make no difference in their friendship. The artist, it is said, wrote in reply the following note:

DEAR RUSKIN: Next time I meet you I shall knock you down, but I hope it will make no difference in our friendship.

His criticism, besides the comments on old masters included in his large books, often took the form of a letter addressed to the *Times* newspaper, dealing with some picture which had especially arrested his attention in the annual exhibitions; but usually the things he had to say upon the work of modern men were conveyed to the public in the form of a shilling pamphlet called "Notes on Some of the Principal Pictures Now Being Exhibited in the Rooms of the Royal Academy." These were begun in 1855 and came to a sudden stop in 1860, the reason for the stoppage being the libel action already alluded to and based upon the strong criticism contained in these "Notes." Mr. Whistler gained the day and was awarded one farthing damages. Mr. Ruskin found that his friends had paid all his costs, and everybody considered the verdict was a moral victory for the critic, but he refused to continue the "Notes" for years. When, in 1875, they were resumed, the author made reference to the incident in the preface. He said:

Among various minor but collectively sufficient reasons for the cessation of these notes, one of the chief was the exclamation of a young artist moving in good society, authentically, I doubt not, reported to me: "D—— the fellow! Why doesn't he back his friends?"

Then he goes on to say that he never has used



JOHN RUSKIN.

(From a photograph taken about twelve years ago.)

his power of criticism to such end, "but," he continues, "I write now and have always written, so far as I am able, what may show that there is a fixed criterion of separation between right art and wrong."

It is certain from this 1875 issue that the circumstances had not made him abate his purpose or soften his words. In that number he described the character of the Royal Academy exhibition as "nothing more than a large colored illustrated *Times* folded in saloons." The classical painters are severely dealt with. He praises the artistic skill and classic learning shown by Mr. Alma Tadema's "Sculpture Gallery," but says that "the artistic skill has succeeded with all its objects in the degree of their unimportance. The piece of silver plate is painted best, the griffin bas-relief it stands on second best, the statue of the empress worse than the griffin, and the living personages worse than the statue."

V.—RELIGIOUS DEVELOPMENT.

As I have already exceeded the space allowed me, the religious development and the personality of our subject must be but slightly sketched. A hint has already been given of the strict Puritanic character of his early discipline and training, with its intense belief in the inspiration of every word of the Bible and strict observance of the Sabbath. John Ruskin grew into manhood under this influence, but received several shocks which broadened his faith considerably. The first I find record of is that received in the monk's cell of the Grande Chartreuse. He visited the Carthusian monastery with his father, and his love for nature's sublime beauty being so deep and religious, he expected to find the monks who lived among the beautiful scenery of mountainous Switzerland in a state of much deeper religious fervor than would be found in city life. But the monk who showed the Ruskins round seemed tired of the place and its surroundings. The party paused at the window of one of the cells, and John said something in the style of "Modern Painters" about the effect of the scene outside upon religious minds, whereupon, with a curl of the lip, the monk said: "I've not come here to look at mountains." In "Præterita" we read: "The monk's speech was of significance enough to alter the course of religious thought in me afterward forever."

Later on we know what sympathy he had with the general work of the Working Men's College, but he was too narrow for the religion its founders professed. He attended a Bible class conducted by F. D. Maurice, and described that clergyman's handling of Jael's assassination of her guest as religious infidelity, and described Maurice as "by nature puzzle-headed and, though in a beautiful manner, wrong-headed."

Though the broad views of Kingsley and Maurice did not satisfy him, he was no more pleased in attending a low-church evangelical meeting in the drawing-room at the Earl of Ducie's in Belgrave Square. He clung to the old Scotch Puritanism of his mother, and tried to persuade himself that the religion of Bunyan, Knox, and Dr. Watts was perfectly in harmony with music, painting, and sculpture, which were so much part of his nature.

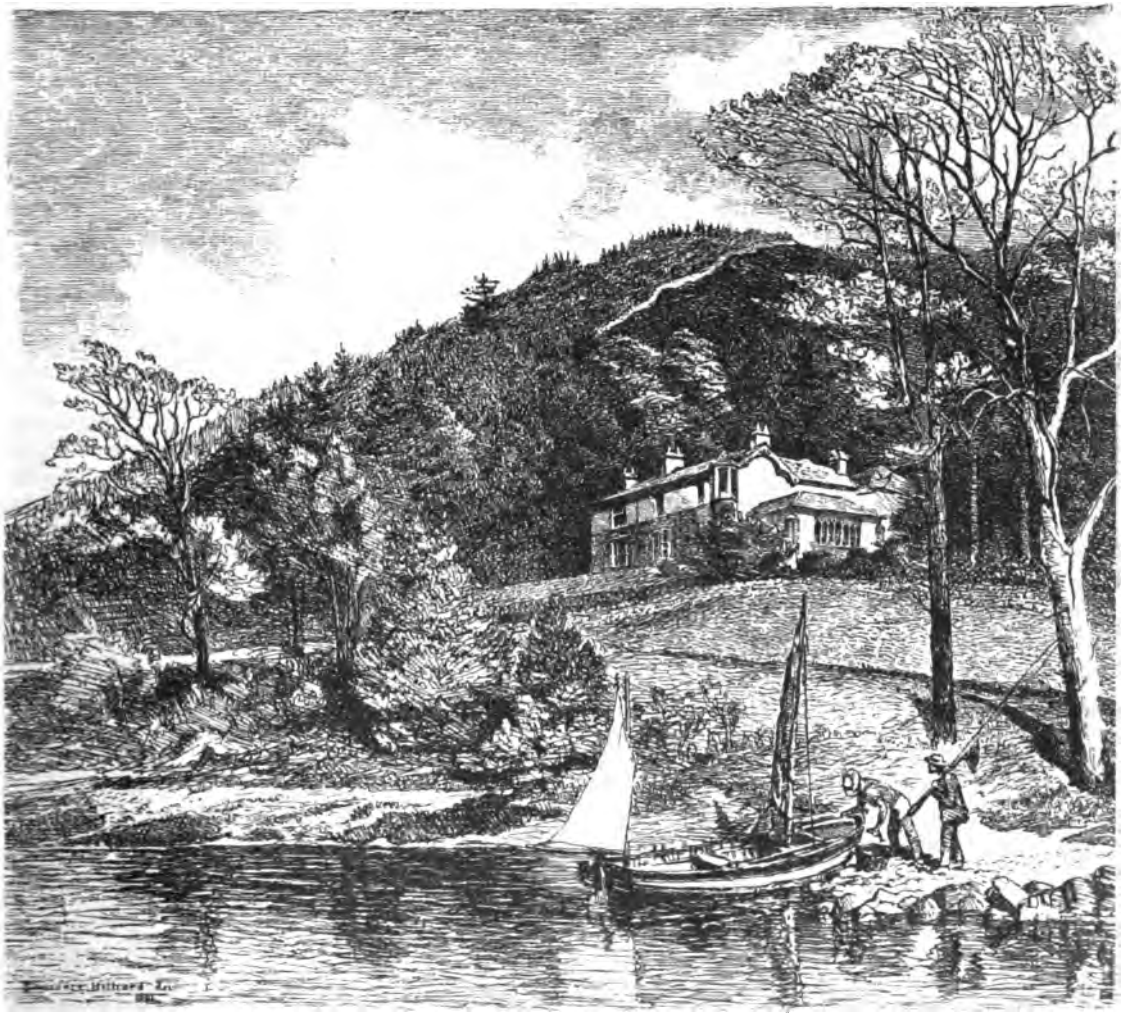
Through his works can be traced a growing

breadth toward a catholicity of thought which could find no expression in any creed of any sect. After his Protestantism died he never joined the Church of Rome, though many rumors became current to the effect that such a thing might be looked for But he denied the rumors. He loved beautiful services, but rejoiced more in good work. The latest phase of his religion seemed to be a blending of evangelicalism with Carlyle's gospel of work, and he believed that "the peace of God rested on all the dutiful and kindly hearts of the laborious poor, and that the only constant form of pure religion was in useful work, faithful love, and stintless charity." In every phase of his life's work there was running a deep, earnest, and faithful trust in the government of the world by God; a seeking after the understanding of the will of God and an attempt to fulfill it. One of his latest bits of published writing is worth noting. It was a message to his friends, printed as a preface to a reprint of Sir Henry Acland's lecture on "The Oxford Museum." It was dated 1894 and ran:

Say to my friends in the Oxford Museum from me, may God bless the reverent and earnest study of nature and of man to his glory, to the better teaching of the future, to the benefit of our country, and to the good of all mankind.

VI.—RUSKIN THE MAN.

Mr. Ruskin was usually very frank with the public about his developments and experiences. His works were all so personal that his readers were taken completely into his confidence. There was very little mystery or reticence about him, ex-



MR. RUSKIN'S RESIDENCE, "BRANTWOOD," CONISTON.

cept on one subject, and that subject was his love affairs and his relations to his wife. Just *the* topic which gossips would have liked him to be most free about. I would like to leave the matter quite alone, seeing Mr. Ruskin himself considered it too private a matter to tell the world anything about. However, so much error had been circulating concerning it that it comes to be a positive matter of duty in any sketch of this kind to state the facts, or silence would give plausibility to the thought that there is something to cover.

The affair, after all, is very simple. In 1841 John Ruskin wrote "The King of the Golden River" for a pretty Scotch girl with plenty of spirits and vigorous health. She grew up into a real beauty, and the parents of John thought she would make a fit companion for their son. He was retiring and perhaps a little morbid, and they imagined the girl's brightness and gayety would form the proper complement to his nature. They persuaded him, in 1847, to propose marriage to her. She was wealthy and beautiful, and the parents of both sides considered the match a capital one. But it was by no means a good match, for the pair were ill-suited. He was twenty-eight and she nineteen. She loved the gay world and all things which constitute brilliant and pleasurable society life. Mr. Ruskin cared nothing for these, but loved his books, minerals, and art, and took no interest in the ordinary pursuits of society. Those who had the opportunity of seeing the unfortunate man about seven years after the marriage say how miserable he always seemed. It was real suffering in mind and body that he had to undergo when he tried his utmost to do his duty toward the young lady he had thus married.

The unhappy pair soon realized they had nothing in common except the fact that their parents had arranged the match. All this was unknown to the public, and when small paragraphs appeared in the papers to the effect that Mrs. Ruskin had left her husband, everybody except his intimate acquaintances was astonished. Mr. Ruskin felt it was his own affair and did not concern anybody else. He refused to contradict even such silly rumors as that which said he had run away with somebody else's wife, or to correct other misstatements, or to offer any explanation whatever to the busy public or busier press concerning the unfortunate affair.

The lady afterward became the wife of a famous painter. All these circumstances were, of course, very painful to a man of Mr. Ruskin's character. Two other love affairs, equally unfortunate, are recorded. When he was seventeen he fell desperately in love with a French girl and wrote sonnets to her, but she never returned his love and married a French baron. Later in life Mr. Ruskin became just as violently enamored of a young lady pupil, but it brought him no happiness. She seemed at first to return his affection. Accordingly he proposed to her, but was refused. His sweetheart was more strict in her evangelical creed than either his mother or aunt. Her religious notions carried her to foolish lengths. When her lover declared that he loved no one better than he loved her she was horrified, because she thought such a declaration implied that he had forgotten God. She knew that he was not in sympathy with her evangelicalism, and she had read his scoffs at the faith she held dear in "Fors Clavigera." She thus concluded that if she accepted him she would be unequally yoked to an unbeliever. She was attached to him, nevertheless, but thought her conscience bade her resist her desires. Though a painful thing to her, she took the path of refusal resolutely, and there can be no doubt that it cost her her life. She became ill and was gradually sinking for about three years after the proposal, when it was clear to everybody concerned that she was on her death-bed. John Ruskin begged to see her once again. Her reply was to the effect that he could come if he had learned to say that he loved God better than he loved her. He could not, even now, bring himself to say this, and consequently her door was closed upon him forever. She died soon after.

Ruskin was once described as "small in person, careless in dress, and nervous in manner." He is also said to have had "a spare, stooping figure, a rough-hewn, kindly face, a mobile, sensitive mouth, clear, deep eyes, sweet and honest in repose, earnest and eloquent in debate." A visitor at Denmark Hill said that "he was emotional and nervous, and his voice, though rich and sweet, had a tendency to sink into a plaintive and hopeless tone. His large light eye was soft and genial, and his mouth was thin and severe. The brow was prominent and the chin receding."

But it is, after all, only idle curiosity which asks for details of eyes and mouth. The character of the man and his message are the important things connected with him. No writer of our generation has uttered more important truths or set a higher ideal of life for his fellows. He has done his best to make it possible to establish what he considered to be the kingdom of God, here and now; and this kingdom he believed was to be seen in just government, honest commerce, noble labor, adherence to truth, and righteous living.

THE SOUTHERN MOUNTAINEER.

OUR KINDRED OF THE BOONE AND LINCOLN TYPE.

BY WILLIAM GOODELL FROST, PH.D.

(President of Berea College, Berea, Ky.)

THE purpose of this article is to invoke a considerate judgment for the "mountain men" who have recently attracted so much attention in Kentucky, and for the army of our kinsmen who are behind them in the vast mountain region of the central South.

The writer is burdened by the weight of his discoveries in this unknown land. The condition of the mountain people, their numbers, and their possible value to the nation—all these are subjects upon which the general public, and even our statesmen and scholars, have but slight information.

Literature has begun to take note of this untrodden field and gives some more just interpretations than the newspapers. The "Craddock Stories" introduced the east Tennesseeans to our reading public, and John Fox, Jr., has made important studies in the mountains of Kentucky and the Virginias. William E. Barton has commemorated mountain loyalty in his "Hero in Homespun."

Some of the more sensational manifestations of mountain life occasionally appear on the borders of their sylvan realm and then vanish like an apparition, and such apparitions have been numerous of late.

Frankfort, the capital city of Kentucky, has just had a visitation from a horde of these highlanders. They are described by amused and awe-struck reporters as "shaggy, shuffling, and of more than ordinary size." Their broad-brimmed soft hats and homespun trousers seemed appropriate to the knives in their boot-legs and the Winchester rifles in their hands.

The outbreak of the Spanish war diverted attention somewhat from another war which broke out at the same time between the Howard and Baker families in Clay County, but for some weeks this mountain feud was more sanguinary than the national duel with Spain. And the mountain war is still in progress.

The desultory warfare constantly going on against illicit distillers—"moonshiners" as they are styled in the poetic speech of the mountains—occupies a small army of revenue officers, and is somewhat analogous to the present stage of the conflict with the Filipinos.

The mountain problem in our Southern States is due to a geological accident—the fact that this vast and rugged section, extending from the Ohio River to Birmingham in Alabama and Atlanta in Georgia, has no coast line, no navigable stream, and no inland lakes. The extent of this region has been concealed by the fact that it was parceled out among nine different commonwealths. Each of these States has a mountainous back yard, and these bunched together form one of the grand divisions of the continent. For convenience we are giving this inland mountain realm the name of "Appalachian America."

Appalachian America has great diversities of surface and climate, from the "dissected plateau" of eastern Kentucky, across the "blue ridge," down through "the land of the sky" to the "knobs" of northern Georgia. But as a place of human habitation it has one characteristic—it is a land of saddle-bags! This single circumstance—the lack of any Erie Canal or other waterway—has barred the progress of the inhabitants.



MAP SHOWING THE APPALACHIAN TERRITORY.

The shaded mountain area of the map includes, of course, some towns and valleys quite in touch with the modern world.

Here is the typical family history (given under an assumed but common name):

Jesse Kindred was a soldier of the Revolution, and soon after the war, with his wife, Rebecca McComb, and three children, he "went West." It seemed a matter of indifference whether they should go to western New York, Pennsylvania, or Virginia, but in choosing the latter they unconsciously stepped outside the lines of commerce and of intellectual progress.

His son, Archibald, learned to read, write, and cipher from his mother, and at twenty-one mar-

ried Matilda Lincoln and took up a claim a hundred miles west of his father in another rich valley. The wedding journey was made with pack-horses, and they carried no books except the Bible and the Catechism and a small "patriotic reader." Archibald was a comrade of Daniel Boone, and was killed by the Indians while clearing the forest.

His son, Pleasant Kindred, never saw a school-house and never learned to read. And he never visited his kinsfolk in "the settlements." There were two reasons for this: first, the long journey, and, secondly, the fact that he shrank from being seen, and felt a social repulsion from the slave-holding aristocracy now dominant in Virginia.



A MILL AND AQUEDUCT IN THE HILLS.

His children, sixteen in number, met new fortunes. Their father had lost the art of reading, but had been a man of property. His children lost this distinction and advantage, for the valley land was exhausted and they were forced to make homes on the thin soil and steep sides of the mountains. They lived in conditions not unlike those of England in the time of King Alfred. Several were killed in quarrels. The one whom we trace, Marion Kindred, is now keeping a "moonshine" still near the headwaters of "Middle Fork."



A MOUNTAIN PREACHER.

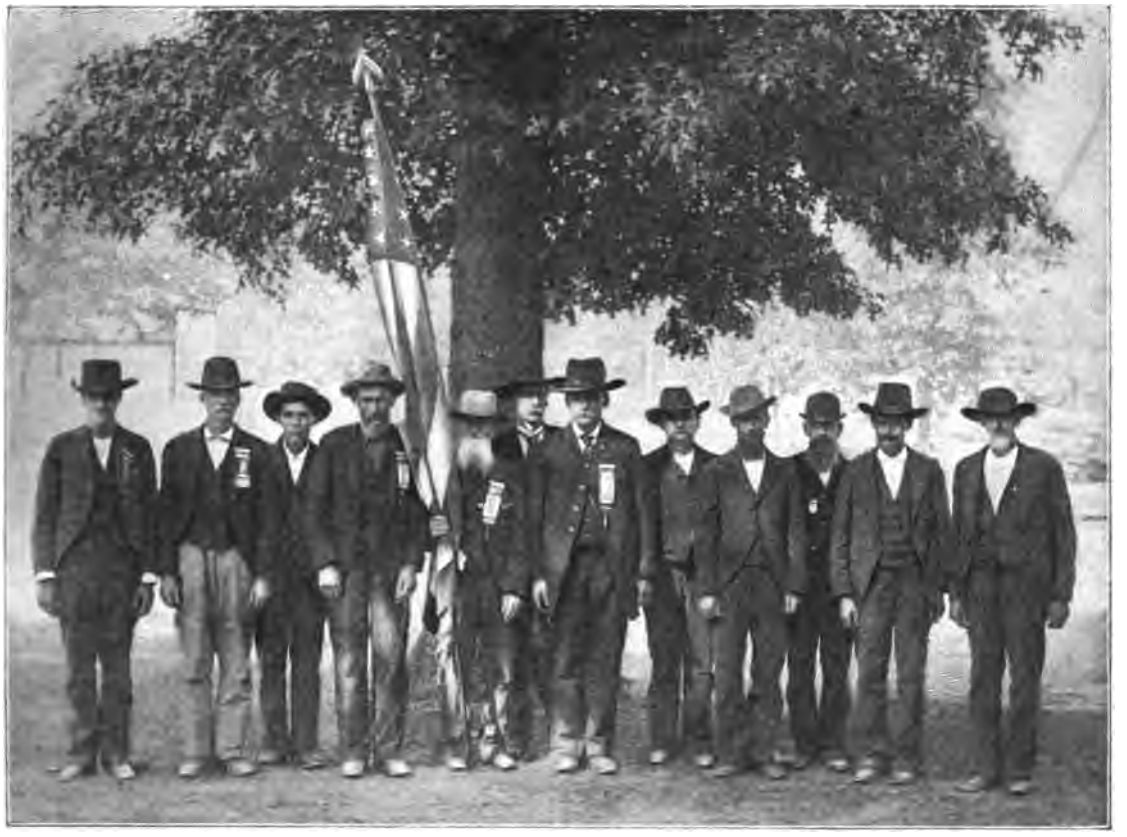
(He has never been to school and is not paid for his preaching.)

THESE SOUTHERNERS WERE UNIONISTS.

His son, Shird Kindred, drove some cattle to the lowlands in 1861 and found that a war was in progress. His sympathies were with the nation and he enjoyed fighting. As a Union scout, "bummer," and sharpshooter he performed important services for his country.

The loyalty of this region in the Civil War was a surprise to both Northern and Southern statesmen. The mountain people owned land, but did not own slaves, and the national feeling of the Revolutionary period had not spent its force among them. Their services in West Virginia and east Tennessee are perhaps generally known. But very few know or remember that the whole mountain region was loyal. Gen. Carl Schurz had soldiers enlisted in the mountains of Alabama, and the writer has recently seen a letter written by the Confederate governor of South Carolina in which he relates to General Hardee the troubles caused by Union sentiment in the mountain counties.

It is pathetic to know how these mountain regiments disbanded with no poet or historian or monument to perpetuate the memory of their valor. The very flag that was first on Lookout Mountain and "waved above the clouds" was



UNION VETERANS FROM THE SOUTHERN MOUNTAINS.
(The flag was the first planted on Lookout Mountain.)

lost to fame in an obscure mountain home when Berea discovered and rescued it from oblivion and destruction.

Shird Kindred came back from the army with larger ideas than his father or grandfather ever had, and when the public-school system was organized he became a school trustee.

At first he united with the other trustees in selling the school to a man who could not teach and pocketing the money. Then he "aimed" to use the product of an extra lot of hogs for educating his daughter Cynthia as a teacher, but there was a disease among the swine and the whole matter was deferred.

THE MOUNTAIN HOME.

Shird Kindred's establishment is worth visiting. As we ride up to the horse-block he greets us in nasal Saxon:

"Howdy, strangers? 'Light an' hitch yer beast-es. Ef yeou-all ken stand fer one day what we-all hev ter stand the year round, jes' kem in."

He has two log boxes eighteen feet square and fifteen feet apart, with a roof that covers also the space between, and this space, open in front and rear, constitutes the general reception and dining room. Three small adjuncts are near at hand—a loom-house, smoke-house, and spring-house.

The "fambly" are supplied from their own "boundary" with abundance of corn-meal, string-beans, dried fruit, "long sweetening" (syrup), and hog meat. Also wool and flax, and possibly a little cotton. They barter feathers and "sang" at the "store house" on court day for supplies of coffee, boots, and patent medicines.

NO PRINTING PRESS IN TWENTY COUNTIES.

This is the best type of isolated mountain life. Beside it are types less hopeful. And even this idyllic condition must be further described by some reference to the early marriages, gambling, idleness of the vacant winter months, and other evils which beset a people who have few resources in books and education. Saddest of all is the bewildering lack of educated or well-informed leaders. There may be twenty counties in one group which do not contain a printing

press. The average preacher of the mountains is inclined to be suspicious of the "book larnin'" which he has failed to acquire. Religion itself is a melancholy affair chiefly connected with funerals and sectarian squabbles. And we thus have the startling anomaly of illiterate Protestants —Americans who are behind the times.

WHY THE MOUNTAINEER FIGHTS.

The fighting propensities of the mountaineers are to be classed with the other survivals of old-world temper and ideals. It is well to remember that the whole South is still far nearer than the other parts of the country to the age of chivalry, when all gentlemen wore side arms and felt that the Government was simply to defend them from foreign foes, while they were to rely upon their own prowess to protect their households and their honor. So far, then, as the backwoodsmen are affected by the example of those who have enjoyed superior advantages, they have been continuously taught to avenge their own wrongs rather than to appeal to law. And, quite naturally they have shown less restraint and good taste in such matters. It is to be added that the administration of justice in the mountain counties is attended with even more delays and uncertainties than elsewhere. Add to this the fact that the mountaineer has the independent spirit born of solitude, constant practice in the use of firearms, and that the Civil War, in which the mountains were plundered by both armies, rekindled the belligerent spirit of their ancient blood. It gives us hope for their future that the frequent homicides are not committed wantonly nor for purposes of robbery, but in the spirit of an Homeric chieftain on some "point of honor."

With the exception of the terrible feud now going on in Clay County, Ky., the mountains are probably more quiet than at any time since the war. This Clay County affair, however, has been signalized by some features of "blindshooting" and cowardly "ambushing" which call forth the condemnation of the most noted fighters in the region.

"MOONSHINE" WHISKY.

The making of "moon shine" whisky is another example of a crime often committed without the moral degradation which comes from violating one's conscience. The tax on the manufacture of one's own corn into whisky seems to them a very arbitrary affair, and many of them evade it with more excuse than can be pleaded for the tourist who eludes the custom-house officer in New York. The making of "moonshine" is a very simple affair. A half barrel, bottom upward, clapped over a soap-kettle will make a satisfactory retort, and the only special apparatus necessary is the copper tube for condensation. "The revenues" always endeavor to destroy this tube, and the common description of their work is "they cut up the still."

The sin which does trouble the mountain conscience is not the evasion of the tax, but the making of the whisky at all! The evils of drinking are fully recognized. Several counties might be named in which "moonshine" stills exist, but which have "gone dry" and rigorously exclude saloons. It is more than likely that the temperance orator will anticipate the revenue officer in suppressing the illicit still.

WHY THEY ARE REPUBLICANS.

The politics of the mountains are complicated. Fundamentally the people are Republicans, because they were "fer the Guverment" in the Civil War. And the more pronounced policies of the Republican party since the war have been understood and approved by the mountain folk. Their sense of justice made them favor "sound money." The argument which carried Kentucky and West Virginia for McKinley was:



A CHARACTERISTIC MOUNTAIN HOME.
(The loom-house is adjacent to the dwelling and the spring-house just beyond.)



LUNCH-TIME AT A MOUNTAIN SCHOOL.

"Ef I lend yeou a bag o' flour I don't allow I'm a-goin' ter be paid in meal." So, too, the mountaineers generally favor railroads and other improvements, partly because they realize that they will develop the country and partly because they will not have to pay for them.

Their conception of politics other than national, however, is very defective. Like other Southern men, they show the lack of the training of the "town meeting." Their exaggerated individuality is only offset by a spirit of clannishness with which they gather around a leader in the old feudal way. County politics are usually a barefaced scramble for the offices, though the counties which are so fortunate as to have a few able and high-pincipled men often keep them in the public service with commendable fidelity.

Many mountain men "expect something" from their leader at election time! This is not, in their eyes, a bribe. They would on no account so demean themselves as to sell their vote to the opposite party. But they will stay at home on election day unless their leader shows himself "a generous feller." If they fight and vote for their chieftain he owes them some feudal largess in return!

The diversity of thought, if not of interests, between mountain and lowland complicates the political operations of all parties in a number of States.

BEREA COLLEGE.

The present writer began acquaintance with the mountain folk in 1884 by a walk through West Virginia, which was undertaken for health and geology, but which was soon wholly absorbed in the study of character and social conditions. In 1893 he was called to the presidency of Berea College, in the mountains of Kentucky. This brevet college, which is really a kind of social settlement, Cooper Institute, and extension bureau of civilization, claims the distinction of being the discoverer of the mountain people. Its early founders and teachers were the first to take note of peculiar conditions which marked off this population from the so-called "poor whites" on the one hand and the aristocratic "first families" on the other. The earliest and fullest publications relative to this region came from Berea, although its duty in this regard has been too



A BEREA GIRL, WEARING HOMESPUN DRESS AND MITTS.



HOME-MADE "KIVERS."

much neglected. But the institution has the most favorable location and history, and is undertaking to deal with the mountain problem in a thorough and comprehensive manner. The present seems a favorable time to secure for this great enterprise the attention and coöperation which it deserves.

I traversed large portions of this wild country and sent "extension workers" through still wider areas of it. I have also consulted with the few persons who have knowledge of this people—the generals like Schurz and Cox, who commanded mountain troops in the Civil War, and Wheeler, whose mountain Confederates got away from him and went over to the Union side; the historians who have studied their record from the battle of King's Mountain—John Fiske, and Woodrow Wilson, and Theodore Roosevelt; and the scientists—Shaler and Hayes—who have made tours through the region studying the people as well as the rocks; and the chief specialists upon Southern education.

TWO MILLION BELATED AMERICANS CHALLENGE OUR ATTENTION.

With this preparation I make bold to say that there are at least 2,000,000 native Americans in Appalachian America who are living practically in the conditions of colonial times. The chief difference is that the colonial people were consciously in motion and felt themselves to be in the front of the progress of their time, while the mountain people have a depressing sense of being behind.

It should be said further that these people are now more destitute of all the opportunities that go with education than any other people of our race in the world.

And above all I wish to have it known that this condition has come about through natural causes, so that we cannot blame the people as negligent nor despise them as inferior. If the scions of our own families which settled in western New York had gone instead to western Virginia they too would have been groping in the mountains to-day.

And there is one other affirmation which I have the right to make: these people need us and we need them.

NEED OF THE MOUNTAINEERS.

They need the friendly guidance and the financial aid in educational beginnings which have been so freely and so wisely given to the West. And they are a patriotic, capable people, with unjaded nerves and red blood, who may reënforce the vigor of the nation.

This article is an invitation for the far-seeing and patriotic people of America to help their fellow-countrymen who have been lost in the woods. The need of the negro was universally known and recognized, and all that has been given for his education has been abundantly repaid. The need of the West has been known also, and through natural channels of commerce and kinship we have helped each Western State in its educational foundations.

My clients in the Southern mountains are at once more needy and more hopeful, and they



A MOUNTAIN GIRL WITH HER "FANCY WORK."



GROUP OF MOUNTAIN BOYS AT BEREA.

have been almost utterly neglected because they were unknown. They have not the natural means of communication with the older and more favored parts of the land. They can only make their condition known through some ambassador like myself.

In asking assistance for them it is fitting to discuss somewhat the proper methods of our aid. We are entering upon a new and strange field, and may well pause to consider with fullest attention the question of aims and adaptations. Schools may be found which have existed on the borders of this region for many years, and yet have been so imperfectly adapted to the strange conditions that they have had but slight effect on the life of the people.

BEREA'S PROGRAMME.

Our first principle, then, is adaptation. To secure this we must actually know the people in order that we may put ourselves in their place and give them the right elements of advanced civilization in the right order; or rather that, while ourselves aware of the advanced civilization, we may develop their civilization in the same direction, leading them rapidly through the stages of progress which our families have already traversed. It is not our aim to set them in motion toward the strife of the cities, but to make them sharers in the essential blessings of civilization in the mountains. We would make them, like the people of Scotland, intelligent without being sophisticated.

With this in view we are encouraging the fireside industries which are adapted to their present mode of life and studying the possibilities of log architecture.

THE "EXTENSION" SERVICE.

Perhaps our most important adaptation is the "extension" service—sending out traveling libraries and lecturers who speak on elementary subjects like United States history, mountain farming, and the management of the public schools.

The people will often adjourn court to hear one of these lectures, and a year later they will repeat the principal points in such a discourse. This method surpasses even the industrial conference in that it reaches the people at their homes, and arouses those who have not yet enough interest to bring them to any large but distant convocation. If means permit we plan to distribute through this extension service 100,000 copies of simple works on government, like the admirable book by Charles F. Dole, and thus reënforce the growing sentiment for "law and order." The need of such instruction was brought home to us when we found a bright student who supposed that it was "all right" for any kinsman of a murdered man to make way with the slayer provided it was done "right soon!"

We cannot wait for the mountains to come to school, but by methods like this we can leaven a very wide region with the ideas and ideals which will protect the people from adverse influences and prepare them for a better day.

NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL WORK.

Another principle constantly in mind is to help toward self-help. Under this head come both our normal and industrial work.

The normal department—now the largest—raises up teachers and strengthens the new and struggling public school. If the public-school system can be made to work and the people taught to believe in it and won to its support, it will be a strong force pulling in the right direction permanently.

The need of industrial guidance is sufficiently evident. The resources of science must be placed at the disposal of these children of the wilderness, and they must be helped to make the great transition from the age of hunting and barter to the age of skilled labor. We need only allude to our promising work in elementary forestry, agriculture, and stock-raising (stock is a farm product which can walk to market), woodwork, as well as domestic science and nursing—all carefully adapted to local conditions—to show the practical and comprehensive nature of our programme.

One other general principle should be mentioned. There has been a suggestion from many quarters that the educational aid extended to our new possessions should be non-sectarian. We have anticipated this suggestion in our work for these mountains. The old idea that each religious body should have a wholly independent work, including college, press, and all the machinery of civilization, has at least proved very expensive. Berea College was organized on a different basis, prohibiting control by any one denomination, but expecting to coöperate with all. Aside from the economy of this arrangement are the great advantages of the momentum of a larger institution and the practical object-lesson of coöperation.

THE BRAVE EFFORTS OF THE STUDENTS.

The response which the mountain people themselves make to these efforts proves that we are not greatly mistaken in our aims, or hopes, or methods. It does one's heart good to help a young Lincoln who comes stalking in perhaps a three days' journey on foot, with a few hard-earned dollars in his pocket and a great eagerness for the education he can so faintly comprehend. (Scores of our young people see their first railroad train at Berea!)

And it is a joy to welcome the mountain girl who comes back after having taught her first school, bringing the money to pay her debts and buy her first comfortable outfit—including rubbers and suitable underclothing—and perhaps bringing with her a younger sister.

Such a girl exerts a great influence in her school and mountain home. An enthusiastic old mountaineer described an example in this wise: "I tell yeou hit teks a moughty resol*ute* gal ter do what that thar gal has done. She got, I reckon, about the toughest deestric in the ceounty,



BEREA STUDENTS LEARNING TO WORK IN WOOD.

which is sayin' a good deal. An' then fer boardin'-place—well, there warn't much choice. There was one house, with one room. But she kep' right on, an' yeou would hev thought she was havin' the finest kind of a time ter look at her. An' then the last day, when they was sayin' their pieces an' sich, some sorry fellers come in thar full o' moonshine an' shot their revolvers. I'm a-tellin' ye hit takes a moughty resolute gal."

It is such resolution that brings young people from their far-off homes, and has made the number of our mountain students double and double again.

Almost without exception these boys and girls go back to their mountains to help "build up the country." A lad who has been at Berea two or three years will be needed for some office in his native county. The most attractive homes you will see in a long ride are presided over by young women who were once pupils at Berea. We are perfectly sure that if our present work can be sustained and extended many of us will live to see the wide region transformed, these vigorous people brought clear over from the ranks of the doubtful classes and added to the useful and reliable strength of the nation.

The whole "case" of the mountaineer may be summed up in the story of Abraham Lincoln. His great career hinged upon the fact that his mother had six books. In that circumstance he differed from the other boys of the region.

Is it too much to say that but for that ray of light his great soul would have been strangled in the birth?

THE EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY AT BEREA.

IN Dr. William Goodell Frost, who contributes the foregoing article on the mountaineers of the Appalachian Belt of the South, those people have found an educational leader who has a truly marvelous fitness for his work. He is a brilliant scholar, was formerly professor of Greek at Oberlin College, Ohio, and might now be comfortably settled in any one of a dozen Northern or Eastern universities. But he has great enthusiasm for the people of the Southern mountains, and he knows how to inspire and help them. Berea College is situated on the line between the Kentucky "blue-grass" region and the mountain country. Its students have been increasing by leaps and bounds during the past few years.

In hardly any place else in the world are good educational results obtained upon so economical a basis. The number of students now approaches 800, and the thousand mark will certainly be reached within two or three years. Opportunities are given students to support themselves in part by work while they are studying. President Eliot, in a speech at Boston six weeks ago, in indorsement of Berea College, set forth with his wonted lucidity the reasons why the mountain population of the South is well worth working for, and the further reasons why Berea College is especially fitted, by virtue of its history, plans, and excellent management, to be sustained by those who would like to help educate the neglected Americans of that isolated region. On the point of expense President Eliot made the following interesting statement:

> I find that a boy or a girl can be a member of Berea College about forty weeks of the year at a total cost for board, lodging, fuel, lights, books, and fees of from $90 to $120 for the entire academic year. I am almost ashamed to mention that a man cannot go to Harvard for less than $400 a year. Berea will receive and teach an east Tennessee or east Kentucky youth the whole academic year, board and lodge him, and give him light, heat, and books for from $90 to $120. For this reason the college is worthy of our help.



WILLIAM GOODELL FROST.
(President of Berea College.)

Southern educators say with truth that Dr. A. D. Mayo, of Boston, understands Southern educational conditions as no other Northern man understands them; and we know that Dr. Mayo always speaks with a keen sense of the weight and meaning of words and of responsibility for the opinions that he utters. It is, therefore, interesting to obtain his views of the work at Berea based upon a recent investigation. From a longer unpublished statement by him we may quote the following paragraphs:

It emerged from the eclipse of war into new and vigorous life, and has gradually made its way to public attention by solid service during the past thirty years. I know of no college in the South that can show a better record of honest work, done by superior teachers, under circumstances involving great sacrifice and sometimes peril, than the long and honorable record of Berea. During the brief administration of President Frost it has made prodigious advances in all lines. It now comes before the people as a national enterprise, not as something proposed to be done, but as a unique and characteristic educational success.

If I were a man of wealth, with my present knowledge of the educational necessities of the entire South and keen interest in every kind of good work now going on there, I would give to Berea College to the extent of my ability. I would do this because I believe so much depends upon just the kind of work which this institution is doing for the plain white people. The colored race, also represented at Berea, will rise or fall according as this great body of the Anglo-Saxon population is brought into line with the American ideals of good citizenship.

At present Berea has, without question, the lead in all efforts making for this happy consummation. It only needs that the people of all sections should be informed of this rare opportunity to bless a region as large as more than one European kingdom, by furnishing the money which shall place Berea College in the assured position it has so abundantly earned.

Berea's resources—outside of its experience and the ability of its workers—consist of grounds, buildings, and the tools of education to the value of $150,000 and an old endowment fund of about $60,000. Receiving no aid from any State or society, it has carried on its work by annual gifts from individuals. Its rapid increase of responsibility ought not longer to be met in this way. The trustees—among whom are Hon. C. F. Burnham, of Richmond, Ky., D. B. Gamble, of Cincinnati, Hon. Addison Ballard, of Chicago, and J. Cleveland Cady, of New York—are moving for an endowment fund of $500,000. Dr. D. K. Pearsons, of Chicago, has given generous aid, selecting Berea as the sole object of his benefactions in the South. Two hundred thousand dollars have been paid in, and above $100,000 more is pledged on condition that another total of $200,000 shall be secured in the next few weeks.



A GROUP OF BEREA GIRLS.



VIEW OF BUILDINGS AT THE CRAIG COLONY FARM.

A NEW YORK "COLONY OF MERCY."

BY SYDNEY BROOKS.

IT is only within the last few years that anything has been done in America for epileptics as a class. Up to 1890 practical philanthropy had neglected the problems of their care—problems which the nature of epilepsy makes of exceptional difficulty. The peculiarity of the malady, as every one knows, is that the sufferer from it is robbed of his consciousness for a mere fraction of time at varying intervals. What is not so well realized is that both before and after the seizures his condition is virtually normal, and his ability to work and play his part in social life as active and unquestionable as that of any ordinary healthy man. And it is just this conjunction of moments of unconsciousness with whole tracts of time during which reason and vigor and ambition are undisturbed that makes up the distinctive pathos of the disease and the difficulty of providing properly for its victims. For the patient's fate in life is decided not by the long periods of health, but by the few odd minutes of sickness. Fully possessed during most of the time with the faculties and instincts of health, he has to pay a life-long penalty for the transitory moments when those faculties and instincts are in abeyance. Willing to learn, he is yet debarred from learning, for no school will take him. Not less anxious than others for companionship, he is shunned like a leper. Eager to work and knowing that in work lies his best hope of relief, he is nevertheless condemned to idleness. From every form of employment, as from every form of pleasure, he is hopelessly excluded. A morose and unsocial childhood, passing into a despairing manhood and ending through slow processes of degeneration often in insanity, at times in a life to which even insanity would seem preferable—this was the common lot of the 120,000 epileptics in the United States up to six or seven years ago. The hospitals would not receive them, and anyway could not give them the attention they needed. No choice was offered them between leading a hopeless existence in their own homes, a torture to themselves and those around them and an easy prey to quacks, or taking refuge in an almshouse, where the life, atmosphere, and diet were most unfitted for them, or being committed to an insane asylum, often without proper justification.

Dr. Frederick Peterson, of New York City, was the first American to set himself to the removal of the twofold stigma which the neglect of this unhappy class had placed upon society and the state. A service of several years in the Hudson River State Hospital for the Insane and in the Vanderbilt Clinic proved to him how much ought to be done for epileptics; a visit to Bielefeld, in Westphalia, and other European institutions in 1886 showed how much could be done. The Bielefeld charity was started in 1865 exclusively for the care of epileptics, and the wisdom of its directors evolved what is now recognized as the best method of dealing with epileptics on a large scale—not housing them together in one large building, but scattering them over a farm in small detached cottages. Returning home, Dr. Peterson made known the work that was being done at Bielefeld and threw himself into the advocacy of like charities in the United States. The two institutions already

founded in America, one at Gallipolis. Ohio, and the other at Sonyea, N. Y., as well as the measures now being taken in several other States for the foundation of similar charities, are as much a proof of what can be accomplished by one strong, able, and untiring man as of the extreme and enviable readiness of Americans to give trial to any experiment that promises relief where relief is wanted.

Ohio, by the opening of its institution at Gallipolis in 1893, was the first State to identify itself with the new movement; but whether from motives of economy or to flatter local pride by the creation of large and imposing buildings, the central idea of the Bielefeld "colony" system, which is all against such barrack-like edifices and all in favor of small and scattered cottages, was somewhat missed. New York was considerably more fortunate in its venture. The agitation led by Dr. Peterson soon gathered to itself the support of such philanthropists as the late Oscar Craig, of Rochester, and the Hon. William P. Letchworth,* both for many years presidents of the State Board of Charities. The Legislature was won over in 1892 to the establishment of a colony for epileptics, and an almost ideal site for such a colony was quickly found. A body of Shakers who had been settled for over fifty years on a slope of the historic Genesee Valley were anxious to sell their property and join their falling numbers to a larger branch of co-religionists elsewhere in the State. This property was a fertile, undulating stretch of meadow and woodland, about 1,900 acres in area, well watered by two streams, and containing, besides several acres of sound timber, some serviceable quarries of building stone and deposits of brick clay. The State was allowed to buy it for $115,000—about equal to the value of the improvements alone. At the instance of Governor Flower the institution planted on it was named Craig Colony, in memory of one of its most zealous advocates.

Though modeled on the plan of the Bielefeld charity, Craig Colony has many points peculiar to itself besides the grand distinction of being a State institution under State control. It is restricted to the epileptics of New York State alone, and primarily also to those of them who are proved to be indigent. Of these the State contains at least 2,000. Its total epileptic population is put at 12,000, but until the 2,000 dependents have been provided for no pay-patients will be received. For each indigent patient received into the colony the State provides a maintenance fund of $250 a year, and the counties contribute $30 for the clothing expenses of each person taken from their areas.

It is one of the aims of the board of managers to make Craig Colony as far as possible a self-supporting institution. For this reason patients who have become insane are not admitted, and any colonists who may lose their reason after admission are transferred to asylums. Those only are received who stand a reasonable chance of profiting by the life to be provided for them, the directors believing that at any rate in the early and tentative years of the colony the end proposed cannot be reached without a careful selection of the means.

In most other respects Craig Colony is a reproduction of the Bielefeld charity. The basic principle of the two institutions is identical. Both pin their faith to the colony system as the most satisfactory method of management in an epileptic community, and where the New York settlement seems likely to surpass the older foundation

* This most kindly and philanthropic gentleman, whose life has been one long charity is the author of "Care and Treatment of Epileptics" (Putnam), a valuable and well-ordered book which completely covers its subject.



THE CRAIG COLONISTS AT A GAME OF BASEBALL.



PATIENTS WEAVING STRAW MATS.

in usefulness is less in the originality than in the prosecution of its policy, in a more thorough and business-like completeness, in its powers of expansion on an almost unprecedented scale, and especially in its opportunities for scientific research. The colony was thrown open to patients in January, 1896. The previous two years had been spent in putting the old Shaker buildings in repair, in introducing steam heat and electric light, in providing for an ample water supply and the disposal of sewage, in purchasing farm stock and utensils, in the thousand-and-one problems of severe detail that have to be arranged for in preparing a village for the reception of its inhabitants. The directors came out of the trial more than successfully. They did nothing extravagantly and yet did everything well. They held fast to the idea of letting the colony work out its own development and stood out against the easy temptation to do too much.

Craig Colony is many things in one. It is a farm, a school, a laboratory, a workshop, a hospital, and an asylum; but above everything else it is a home. The atmosphere of comradeship, of mutual interest and sympathy is so evident and genuine as to infect one instantly. Whatever can be done to make life at the colony free and natural, both in work and play, has been done. The vigilance of the nurses and attendants can hardly relax for a moment, yet it is never observable. An obtrusive guardianship would destroy the very quality of ease and liberty which the directors most desire to foster; and the visitor, while he knows he is surrounded by a system of untiring watchfulness, will scarcely even feel its presence, much less have it visibly brought before him. The final impression one takes away is that of a spirit of kindliness and common brotherhood as strong between the patients and those in charge of them as among the patients themselves. It is seen, to take one of a hundred proofs of it, in the wise and generous encouragement of every kind of sport and amusement—a sure test by which to judge any charitable institution.

It is, of course, from its system of employment that the colony expects its greatest results, not only for the health of its patients, but for its credit as an economic success. On all who are physically fit for it some form of occupation is laid as a duty, and, thanks to the carefulness used in admitting patients, about 80 per cent. of them are always available. It must be remembered the colony has not only to feed, clothe, and nurse its patients, educate them, study them, provide amusement for them, but has also to work a farm of nearly 2,000 acres. So far much of the work done has been purely constructive; but even so, the value of the farm and garden products for 1896 (the opening year of the colony) came to not less than 50 per cent. of the maintenance fund; in 1897 to slightly over 56 per cent.; and in 1898 to a fraction over 57 per cent. While agriculture and market gardening are the staple occupations, they are not the only ones. About a score of patients are regularly employed in the brick yard, others in the printing office or blacksmith or carpenter shops. Others become tailors or cobblers or are put to work at upholstery and the weaving of straw mats. There is a large and well-directed Sloyd school, which turns out work of quite surprising excellence. The women patients are mostly engaged indoors, though some of them work in the gardens and around the lawns. The ordinary housework is entirely in their hands. They are also employed in the kitchen and laundry, and the more intelligent among them drilled to be waitresses. The matron's reports show an almost appalling number of articles made, mended, and sewed. They run up into the thousands and include most imaginable things from pillows, bandages, and sheets down to towels and coat straps.

The greatest care is given to the training and education of the children, for it is on them that the colony relies to prove its final usefulness. A little old Shaker schoolhouse was made ready for them in the first year of the colony's life, and there with infinite patience they are taught to read and write and work the simplest sums in



DINNER-TIME AT THE CRAIG LUMBER CAMP.

arithmetic. Even when the effects of their early years of neglect have been partially overcome, the residuum left to work upon is, after all, a perverted and unfinished product. It is not possible to supply what is lacking; all that is aimed at is to make the best use of what there is, in the hope that gentle discipline in the supervision of what is found to interest them may gradually lead to the forming of those qualities of application and self-control which will fit them for a useful after life. As a rule, it is found that the children take more readily to manual work—such as clay-modeling, basket-weaving, sewing, and drawing—than to purely mental exercises.

A layman cannot pass upon the scientific treatment of the patients at Craig Colony; but it is hardly possible to read the reports of the medical superintendent without finding in them a growing conviction that the usefulness of drugs is of secondary value when compared with the beneficial effects of the general life offered by the colony. It is on the efficacy of a carefully chosen dietary and especially of steady and interesting labor that the directors have taken their main stand. By one of the best provisions of its charter the colony is obliged to establish a department of scientific research; and for this it has collected an amount of material probably unequaled anywhere in mere quantity and unsurpassable in its minuteness, method, and arrangement. With its training school for nurses, its laboratory, its unique system of records, and its exceptional opportunities for studying epilepsy at first hand, the colony is not unhopeful of leading the whole scientific world in the extent and value of its researches.

The colony's economic justification lies in its conversion of a number of helpless, burdensome people into active, self-supporting citizens. Even Turgot would assent to this phase of its work. But how far has it accomplished its chief purpose—that of benefiting the victims of epilepsy? The answer for those who have not seen with their own eyes the work that is being done must come from the official reports. Of the 68 patients discharged between January, 1896, and October, 1898, 36 were declared sufficiently improved to take up ordinary life again, and 7 were sent away because they had completely recovered. The cases in which admission to the colony has been followed by a reduction of over 50 per cent. in the number of seizures in less than six months and by a corresponding improvement in physique and mental vigor are too numerous to be worth detailing. Not three patients in a hundred fail to show some visible benefit from the new influences brought to bear upon them.

The colony is still in an unfinished state. It does not profess at present to be more than an

indication of what a model institution should be, of what it itself will eventually become. By October of this year it will contain a population of over 800; but it will not cease to grow till at least 2,000 patients are within its fold. Its classification of patients is still tentative and unsatisfactory, chiefly because of a lack of buildings. For this, too, time and money only are wanting. The final home-like touch has not yet been given to the houses; the living rooms and dormitories contain little beyond the bare necessities. The State comptroller is still some distance from the heights whereon the obligation of providing rooms with mats, rugs, pictures, ornaments, and the thousand-and-one little comforts of a home is frankly acknowledged—a defect in the governing powers at Albany which private charity, when it hears of it, might very well supply. Nor, of course, have the grounds one tithe of the picturesqueness they are sure to develop hereafter. But the probationary days are over, and from the way in which they have been weathered one can gauge the full harvest of useful charity that awaits Craig Colony in the future.

THE BALANCE-SHEET OF A SMALL MARYLAND PEACH FARM.

BY WORTH B. STOTTLEMYER

ONE of the most profitable agricultural industries of Maryland is that of peach-growing. Thousands of acres on both eastern and western shores are given to the cultivation of peaches in order to meet the great demand created by Baltimore and Philadelphia markets. Not more than twenty years have elapsed since the birth of this thriving industry, for it is only possible since transportation has been facilitated by a network of railroads, yet within this period perhaps half of the farms in many counties of the State have abandoned wheat and corn and the ordinary agricultural products, except for home consumption, and are now entirely devoted to peach-growing.

Although the peach orchards of some sections are occasionally destroyed by diseases to which fruit trees are addicted, yet the industry has ever been on the increase as it proceeds from one section to another. This alone would seem to be convincing evidence of its profitableness.

The first thought that comes into the mind of the prospective peach-grower is the location of his orchard. It is advantageous to have it situated within a radius of three miles of a railroad station, else the expenses for transportation will play too important a part to be carried on very successfully.

The quality of the soil hardly enters into consideration in respect to location, as peach trees are adapted to almost any kind of soil, but a poor soil is to be preferred. Trees planted in poor soil do not grow so rapidly, are therefore much more hardy, and will endure severer winters than trees planted in rich soil.

But far more vital than either distance from station or condition of soil is the inclination of the land. In order that a surer crop may be expected the land should slope gently toward the northwest. Land thus situated is exposed to the most rigorous western winds, and the sun has less effect upon the trees in the way of driving forth the incipient buds which are thus kept in check. Consequently they are less liable to be frozen while in the incipient state by lingering spring frosts.

Our peach orchard of thirty acres is situated in the western Maryland peach belt, two miles from station, and has best slope for sure crop. These thirty acres were purchased in 1885 at $70 per acre and planted in peach trees at once.

Of course varieties had to be selected, and to the uninitiated this would be a difficult task, as so many things have to be taken into consideration. For this section of the country we had previously learned that late varieties were the best in quality, stood shipping well, and commanded the highest prices in the city markets. Among the preferable late varieties selected we planted the Salway, Crawford's Late, Heath Cling, and Heath Freestone. We used great care in the purchasing of trees. This is of vital importance, for trees that are unsound when young will soon produce a diseased orchard. Many of the prevalent diseases are due to the careless nurserymen.

The Legislature of Maryland has enacted laws prohibiting the importation from foreign nurseries of trees that have not been fumigated. In spite of this legislation trees are shipped into Maryland that have not been fumigated, and as a result many diseases are now prevalent. This

process of fumigation for the purpose of destroying the germs on trees sent from the nursery is of recent origin, and it is a subject of general discussion as to whether the remedy is not oftentimes worse than the disease. In the winter of 1898–99 many trees that had undergone the process of fumigation were frozen. It was claimed by many that in the process of fumigation the trees were subjected to a very high temperature and thus rendered very much more tender. On the other hand, the friends of fumigation claim that the large percentage of frozen trees was solely due to the unusually low temperature that winter. Time only will be needed to solve this question.

Our trees cost $45 per thousand, though at the same time we would have been able to have procured the same varieties at some other nurseries for a great deal less. The shipping and planting cost us $60.78 for the thirty acres. We planted one hundred trees to the acre, thus giving sufficient room for cultivation. Our outlay, including machinery and incidentals, thus far was as follows:

Land	$2,100.00
Trees	135.00
Planting, etc	60.78
Machinery	170.07
Incidentals	4.04
Total	$2,469.89

For four years the orchard was cultivated thoroughly, while only slight crops were realized the third and fourth years. However, from a careful account made during the time we found that the cost of cultivation was a little more than covered by the receipts from vegetables that were raised upon the land in the meantime. While the trees are in their first, second, and third years the orchard can be planted in vegetables of various kinds without any perceptible injury to the trees. At the same time the cultivation of the vegetables cultivates the trees also.

The fifth year we realized a fairly good crop, and during fourteen years we secured six crops from the orchard. The average age of a healthy peach orchard in this section of the country ranges from ten to sixteen years, and generally a good crop is realized every other year.

By careful records kept we find that the average amount of fruit grown upon each tree for the six crops was two and eight-ninth crates, or a little over two and a half bushels. Of course the quantity varies very much. A large healthy tree often yields five, eight, ten, or even more bushels, but during the fourth year hardly any of the trees yield more than a peck apiece. Thus on an average each one of our trees produced fifteen bushels during its lifetime. In fact, the orchard produced 44,364 bushels of salable fruit.

From the sale of these 44,364 bushels we realized a net gain, over picking, crating, shiping, commission, express, etc., of $46,361.07. The net profit per bushel would thus be a little over $1, but in fact this varies from 5 cents to $6 and $8 per bushel.

Our expenditures were heavy, for the trees had to be well cultivated and fertilized during the ten years of productiveness. Cultivation, including superintendence, amounted to $1,320, while the fertilizer bills footed up $769. Our expenses included also interest on capital and taxes during the period of fourteen years.

The following gives an exact statement of expenditures and net returns:

Net returns for peach sales		$46,361.07
Land	$2,100.00	
Trees	135.00	
Planting, etc	60.78	
Machinery	170.07	
Cultivation	1,320.00	
Fertilizers	769.00	
Taxes	312.06	
Interest	2,520.90	
Incidentals	11.88	
Total		7,399.69
Profits		$38,961.38

Taking the difference between these two columns, we have an almost fabulous gain of $38,961.38. This may seem a large gain to one not acquainted with the business, but we feel confident that other peach-growers realized very much larger returns from their healthy orchards than we did.

It is true that very many orchards die a premature death from that dreaded disease "the yellows," yet this is generally so only with negligent growers.

When we see peach trees planted by the hundred acres, orchards extending for miles, hundreds of hands busy picking the luscious fruit and crating it for market, all on a single farm, and whole train loads hauled from a single station; when growers order their own cars for daily transportation; when a peach-grower can send his wife to bank with $3,500 in check returns for a single day, who has netted $65,000 from a single crop; when we candidly reflect upon the remarkable increase in the consumption of this fruit, almost to be regarded as a staple, we can truly exclaim, "The end is not yet."

THE AMERICAN MERCHANT MARINE.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

IN that vast material expansion of America which is a wonder and glory of the nineteenth century one great, honorable, and ancient interest for many years has had no share.

While American manufactures have increased fivefold since 1860, commerce threefold, agriculture threefold, and coastwise and domestic shipping twofold, the American deep-sea fleet, carrying cargoes in the foreign trade, has shrunk to one-third of the tonnage of forty years ago. This exceptional result must have been produced by exceptional causes. Those causes and the best means for checking their disastrous operation justify all the keen attention which they have received in the past few years from the statesmen in Washington and the merchants of the Atlantic and Pacific seaboard.

No other nation in the world is in such a humiliating plight as ours. No other with any pretension to mercantile or maritime greatness depends upon its foreign rivals for the transportation of nine-tenths of its oversea trade. It is a conservative estimate that the United States is now paying every year to foreign ship owners for freight, mail, and passenger service the great sum of $150,000,000—almost equivalent to our entire customs revenues and four times the interest on our national debt. No country but a very rich and prosperous one could long do this, and such an annual expenditure has come to be a very serious drain on even our immense resources. As a matter of sentiment it jars on the national susceptibilities that nine out of every ten deep-sea ships in our harbors fly foreign flags. Moreover, it is recognized by thoughtful men that by yielding up to foreigners almost all of our carrying trade we not only strengthen our commercial competitors, but help to build up abroad sea power which may be used against us in time of war.

PERIL AS WELL AS COST.

This consideration has gained force from our very recent experience. In our war with Spain we saw great German steamship companies which have grown rich from American patronage deliberately sell several of their fast steamers to the Spanish Government, to be used to harry our coasts and our commerce. Thousands of American travelers had crossed the Atlantic in these vessels. They had run for years out of the port of New York. They had carried our goods and our mails and had been liberally paid for it, and yet but for the quick ending of the war they would have been turned loose to "burn, sink, and destroy" every unarmed ship under the American flag, like later *Alabamas*. What was done with these German liners in 1898 is liable to be done in a similar emergency with any of the hundreds of foreign craft which almost monopolize our North Atlantic traffic.

The American people are now open-eyed as never before to these ugly facts. The restoration of the American merchant marine is one public issue where there is no party in opposition. There may seem to be such; there may seem to be opposition in the country and the press to the important legislation which has been introduced this year in Congress; but if it is closely examined it will be found that the opposition to Senator Frye's comprehensive bill relates to methods and details and not at all to purpose.

The general character of the new measure is very frankly protective. But there is something in the fundamental conditions of the world's merchant shipping which lifts it beyond the interminable controversy over tariffs. A merchant marine is so desirable, so essential, indeed, to national security as well as to national prosperity, that it is fostered and encouraged by all governments, whether they be protectionists in their general policy or adherents of free trade.

FORTY YEARS OF NEGLECT.

Among these governments, however, there has been in the past forty years one conspicuous exception. This is the United States. It is a strange fact that this era, beginning with the election of Lincoln, which has witnessed the general exaltation of the protective idea and a continuous and most successful State fostering of American manufacturing, has been a period of unprecedented neglect of American ship-owning. Ship builders, of course, have been indirectly protected by the exclusion of foreign-built ships from American registry and from the coasting trade, but the prime factor in a merchant marine is not the builder of ships, but the owner of ships. Unless the ownership and operation of merchant tonnage are profitable, no merchant vessels will be built. The first imperative step toward the creation or restoration of a merchant marine is to make ship-owning prosperous. If that is done, ship-building under such a policy as

ours will take care of itself. If it is not done, no legislative ingenuity can succeed in making business permanently active and profitable for the ship yards.

THE EXAMPLE OF THE FATHERS.

In America this has not been done. The sons have been deaf to the teachings of experience, blind to the example of the fathers. We had a merchant marine, and a great one, once. It will help us mightily to launch a new fleet if we turn back to the pages of history and note how this old fleet was constructed. We shall find that it was a protected interest, but it was the ship owners who were protected. The very first law of the first Congress under the Constitution, passed propitiously on July 4, 1789, established a discrimination of 10 per cent. in duty in favor of goods imported in American vessels, and the very next law gave American ship owners additional protection by providing that the tonnage dues of American ships should be 6 cents a ton and of foreign ships 50 cents.

The effect of this legislation was marvelous. In 1789 we had only 123,893 tons of American shipping registered for oversea trade, and only 23 per cent. of our commerce was carried in American bottoms. In 1790 our deep-sea fleet had increased to 346,254 tons and was carrying 40 per cent. of our commerce. In 1791 our tonnage was 363,110 and our proportion of carriage 55 per cent. By 1800 the American fleet had increased to 667,107 tons, with a proportion of carriage of 89 per cent. In 1810, when our trouble with England began to be acute, American tonnage registered for foreign trade had attained the high-water mark of 981,019, with a carriage of 91 per cent.

At that time we had 13.43 cubic feet of shipping *per capita* of our population—the highest point ever reached. Of course it is not to be contended that the protection given by the discriminating duties and tonnage dues was the only cause of this unexampled maritime prosperity. The Napoleonic wars which absorbed the energies and blocked the ports of Europe gave American enterprise a chance which even orders in council and Milan decrees could not wholly smother. But it is a significant fact that after the War of 1812 we were never relatively so strong upon the seas as we were before it. Immediately after peace came, in 1815, Congress, by a series of acts and treaties too elaborate to be described in a brief space, began to strip away bit by bit the protection beneath which American shipping had so wonderfully flourished. This was done with the plausible but delusive expectation that foreign governments would meet ours in a spirit of full and honest reciprocity, and that whatever carrying trade we might lose to and from our own seaports we should regain in the open trade of the rest of the world.

THE FIRST FALLING AWAY.

The first results were far from encouraging. American tonnage registered for foreign trade swiftly shrank from 854,295 in 1815 to 581,230 in 1819. This was due in part to a shrinking of our import trade, which for a brief period after the war was enormous. Our shipping *per capita*, which in 1810, as has been said, was 13.43 cubic feet, had fallen in 1819 to 6.08 cubic feet—a decrease of one-half in the sea power of the young republic. But in 1820, with the rapid growth in population and the gradual recovery in trade and industry, there set in a slow increase in our tonnage. In 1821 it was 593,825. In other words, the American merchant fleet, now partially protected, was about as large as it had been in 1796, twenty-five years before, when it was completely protected. In 1796 American ships carried 92 per cent. of our foreign trade and represented 12.53 cubic feet *per capita*. In 1821 they carried 88 per cent. and represented 5.88 cubic feet *per capita*. Even at that time it was obvious that our merchant fleet was not growing with the natural growth of the nation.

But Congress, absorbed chiefly in other things and still bewitched by the *ignis fatuus* of a reciprocity that was not reciprocity, stripped still more protection from our maritime interests by the act of May 24, 1828. At once our merchant shipping, which in that year, with its 757,998 tons, had laboriously reached the total of 1805, shrank again as if stricken by paralysis. In 1829 our total tonnage was 592,859, or less than that of 1797. In 1830 it was 537,563, or about that of 1795.

Here again several causes were doubtless operative, but it is agreed by all observers of the day that the result of more maritime "reciprocity" was simply more disappointment. After a while our tonnage slowly revived. It rose from 538,136 in 1831 to 762,838 in 1840—the total of the year 1805 under full protection thirty-five years before. But the proportion of American commerce conveyed in American ships began to fall in 1828, and it has been falling ever since. In 1827 it was 90 per cent.; in 1840 it was 82 per cent. Even then, when all ships were of wood and the motive power was sail, foreign ship owners with their cheap-wage crews were cutting steadily into the trade that earlier laws had reserved for American ship owners and sailors.

THE CLIPPER ERA.

Our apparent increase in tonnage, which went on from 762,838 in 1840 to 1,168,707 in 1848, was to a large degree deceptive. It did not prevent a still further decrease of the American proportion of carriage from 82 to 77, to 75, and to 72 per cent. But in 1849 came an event which for a few years gave the American merchant marine the practical effect of restored protection. It was the gold development of California. American ships only could engage in the Cape Horn coastwise voyaging. Speed was at a premium. The glorious clippers, which none but Yankee skill could build or sail, appeared upon the seas, and from the friendly vantage of the California trade reached out for the old trade of the Orient. Our tonnage under the fortuitous but powerful impulse shot up to 2,159,918 in 1854. Then as the California boom began to fade there came the Crimean War, absorbing for transport service all of the spare British tonnage and much of our own, and offering for a brief period protection as potent as act of Congress or of Parliament. So the American merchant marine came up to the outbreak of our Civil War.

NEITHER WAR NOR TARIFF.

The decrease of American shipping is often erroneously said to date from 1861. Some writers attribute it to the war; others to the protective tariff. But both theories are mistaken. The real beginning of the present decline of our deep-sea tonnage dates not from 1861, but from 1855—from a year of peace for our country and not from a year of war—from a period of tariff for revenue only, not of tariff for protection.

The real truth is written indelibly in the figures of American ship-building. In 1855 we launched 2,027 vessels of 583,450 tons, and 381 of these were full-rigged ships or barks. In 1859 we launched only 875 vessels of 156,602 tons, and only 89 of these were full-rigged ships or barks for deep-sea voyages. As the present Commissioner of Navigation has well said, this was "a steady and rapid decline without equal in our marine history"—and it occurred under the most thoroughly non-protective tariff in our economic history. In 1860 there was a slight rally in American ship-building, lifting our output to 214,797 tons. But (another ominous fact) Great Britain launched in that year 301,535 tons of shipping, much of it iron and steam. In 1850 we had launched 279,255 tons and Great Britain had launched 133,695 tons. Thus in this memorable decade the positions of the two chief rivals for the mastery of the ocean had become completely reversed.

IRON SHIP AND SUBSIDY.

Two new and powerful factors had contributed to this change—the iron ship of steam and sail and the British subsidy. Contrary to prevalent belief, the first good mercantile steamships were built in the United States. More than half a century ago a foreign authority declared that the American steam merchant fleet, which was then larger than the British fleet, was more than equal in war strength to all the navies of Europe. But Great Britain in 1839 started the Cunard line of trans-Atlantic steamships with a subsidy of $425,000 a year, which was afterward doubled. Seven or eight years later our Government tardily followed the British example.

For a decade it was a fight of subsidy versus subsidy. The longer purse finally won. The Collins Company, the chief American line, lost two of its ships and fell into misfortune. Then the world had an illuminating example of the relative tenacity with which the two great maritime nations upheld their shipping interests. The Royal Mail Company, with a line to the West Indies, having lost several of its ships, had its subsidy promptly increased by the British Government, and was loyally tided over its period of discouragement. But soon after the loss of the *Arctic* and *Pacific* the United States Congress withdrew the American ocean mail subsidies. The Collins line was abandoned and the other American trans-Atlantic steamers disappeared.

It was a tremendous victory for British maritime protectionism. The results were promptly reflected, in 1857, 1858, and 1859, in an extraordinary shrinkage of American ship-building, and Great Britain entered upon that substantial monopoly of North Atlantic carrying which she has held to the present time.

Of course the Civil War, the destruction of 100,000 tons of our best shipping by Anglo-Confederate cruisers, and, more important still, the transfer of 750,000 tons to foreign flags, gave a vast impetus to the decline of our marine; but the great significant fact which the student of maritime history perceives is that this decline had set in long beforehand. It was as if a victim of consumption in its earlier stages had his end hastened by a blow from a saber. So long as our merchant marine was protected by national legislation it prospered. It even outlived this protection (for the so-called maritime "reciprocity" was not formally completed until 1849) because of the temporary stimulus afforded by the California gold discovery and the Crimean War.

But when this stimulus had lost its brief effect and our unprotected ships of wood were forced to compete with the iron-built or subsidized British ships, they melted like mist from the face of the ocean.

A BIT OF MARINE FICTION.

In those earlier years of keen competition practically all of the British steam tonnage was under subsidy. British iron sailing ships were protected by a discrimination of Lloyds' against which we had no power to retaliate. A very pretty fairy tale is sometimes told how, in 1849, Great Britain repealed her "antiquated" navigation act and permitted her subjects to buy and bring under the British flag the superior American-built wooden clippers, thus establishing a "free-ship" policy. This is a yarn which deceives no marines, though many landsmen. As a matter of fact, Lloyds' by a technical ruling immediately made that vaunted privilege null and void, and did not lift its ban from American wooden ships until 1854, when iron ship-building in England had become firmly established, and with a long-term insurance rating for iron ships there was no longer fear of Yankee ship yards.

That plausible statement with which the extreme present-day "free-ship" argument is usually prefaced—that British merchants bought great fleets of Yankee clippers and, examining them, learned how they were built and then built others—leading up to the familiar suggestion that we in our turn ought now to go and do the same thing with British "tramps," is chiefly a figment of the imagination. Great Britain made her large purchases of American vessels long afterward, during our Civil War, having meanwhile forced down prices to a ruinous point by means of her *Floridas* and *Alabamas*. From 1850 to 1860, as indeed always, the great bulk of British merchant tonnage was British-built. Navigation act or no navigation act, ship-building has ever been the most jealously guarded of British industries.

It will have to be confessed that a review of the fortunes of the American merchant marine in these later years is not calculated to produce an edifying idea of the acuteness or the patriotism or the consistency of American statesmanship. Great Britain was quite within her rights in persuading us to strip off our discriminating duties and tonnage dues and embark on maritime "reciprocity." She was quite within her rights in lavishly subsidizing her steamships year after year, while we went about it in a half-hearted way and finally allowed our lines to be driven off the Atlantic. Lloyds' discriminations perhaps were unfair blows in the back, but for this the British Government was not responsible.

WHERE THE TROUBLE LIES.

Between 1850 and 1860 our national policy was not protectionist, and the men in political power were no friends of American ship builders and ship owners. But the marvel is that in all the years since 1860, with a national policy which has protected every other living American industry and brought new industries into being, we have never applied the precedents of our earlier and successful maritime experience. Our merchant shipping is the one American interest which has been left out in the cold by a paternal government. It is the one interest which has lagged and withered.

In 1830 the proportion of American commerce carried in American ships was 89 per cent.; in 1840 it was 82 per cent.; in 1850, 72 per cent.; in 1860, 66 per cent.; in 1870, 35 per cent.; in 1880, 17 per cent.; in 1890, 12 per cent.; and in 1898, 10 per cent. There is an unpleasant regularity in this decline. The American merchant tonnage registered for foreign trade is now 837,229, while our population is 75,000,000. Away back in 1810 we had 981,019 tons, when the country had a population of 7,000,000. These figures furnish cause for sober thinking. Have we Americans lost our old aptitude for the sea? Let the echoes of Manila Bay and Santiago answer. And look upon our thriving (because protected) coastwise fleet, the best built, the best handled, and the most efficient in the world, with a tonnage three times that of England and five times that of any other nation.

THE BATTLE OF THE DOGMAS.

Our builders are not at fault; our sailors are not at fault. From the superb *St. Paul* and *St. Louis* to the clipper barkentines in the coffee trade modern American ships are as swift and efficient as they were in the old days of our maritime glory. They cost, as they always have cost, more to build and more to man, just as an American machine shop or woolen mill is apt to cost more to operate.

But we have determined that in spite of this it is worth while to have American machine shops and woolen mills and that in the long run it is profitable. There are cheerful signs of a similar determination that it is worth while to have American ships. One powerful reason why we now have no more of them is that since the close of the Civil War two sets of *doctrinaires* have been quarreling as to the kind of treatment that should be adopted to resuscitate the merchant marine. Neither party has been able to

enforce its policy; they have been just strong enough to fight each other to a standstill. The result is that between the squabbling of these *doctrinaires* nothing whatever has been accomplished.

One school clamors for "free ships;" the other for subsidies. These two ideas have come to be regarded as essentially antagonistic, as irreconcilable alternatives. Just here the *doctrinaires* have wrought their sharpest mischief. There is no valid reason why either policy should be applied with iron-like rigidity to the complete exclusion of the other. It is very much more reasonable to recognize what is sound and practical in either plan and to reject what is unnecessary and extravagant. The "free-ship" theory in its entirety might perhaps have been adopted with profit in the years before the Civil War, when Britain had cheap iron and many iron ship yards and we had almost none. But it must be acknowledged that conditions are now radically altered; that it is now America which has the cheap steel in abundance, and, moreover, several of the largest and most successful steel ship yards in the world.

A SENSIBLE COMPROMISE.

But because "free ships" have undoubtedly proved a failure in the experience of all the Continental nations and are not necessary for us, it by no means follows that we must swing to the other extreme and deny American registry absolutely to all foreign-built tonnage, as if a foreign ship *per se* were a thing accursed. It is generally believed that we drove a good bargain when we naturalized the *New York* and *Paris* and thereby secured the building in a native ship yard of the *St. Louis* and *St. Paul*, and this policy would seem to lend itself to extension—at least to such foreign-built ships as are actually owned now by American citizens. True, it will be a confounding of the *doctrinaires* on both sides, but it is full time that the *doctrinaires* dropped this shipping problem, which they have only bungled for three decades, and gave way to moderate men.

One source of the strength developed in Congress and the country by the shipping bill of Senator Frye, of Maine, is that it embodies a compromise—that it is a consensus of the views of men who are both moderate and practical. This measure brings 300,000 tons of foreign-built shipping under the American flag, but these are excellent steamers actually owned by American capital. They will be just as effective and all the handsomer for hoisting the Stars and Stripes. Their owners, in consideration of this privilege, engage to build new ships in America, and because of the assumed lower cost of their foreign-built craft, these latter vessels will receive only a portion of the speed or tonnage subsidies provided by other sections of the bill for ships that are native American.

WHAT THE FRYE BILL DOES.

The title of this measure reads: "To promote the commerce and increase the foreign trade of the United States and to provide auxiliary cruisers, transports, and seamen for government use when necessary." Our hundred days' war with Spain demonstrated that we did not possess in our present marine a sufficient number of auxiliary ships for a contest with even a puny antagonist. We were compelled to purchase or to charter many foreign vessels after the Government had secured all available American steamers. This was a shock to the country and a salutary one. It meant that under conditions of modern war a merchant marine is more indispensable than ever, and that we lack this auxiliary of national defense.

Naturally, as the motive of the Frye bill is in part defensive, it sets a premium upon merchant steamers of high speed like the twenty-one-knot ships of the American trans-Atlantic line and the eighteen-knot ships now building at Newport News for the Pacific Mail service. The bill adopts as the basis of its protection a subsidy of 1.5 cents a gross ton for each 100 miles of the first 1,500 miles and 1 cent a gross ton for each 100 miles above 1,500 miles covered by American vessels, sail or steam, in the foreign trade. This subsidy is intended as an offset to the greater cost of construction and the higher rate of wages and maintenance of American ships—in other words, the cost of operation. Elaborate calculations by the Treasury Department show that it will almost exactly accomplish the purpose.

SPEED AND TONNAGE PREMIUMS.

But this would not enable our ship owners to meet the competition of foreign steamship lines which, in addition to a natural advantage in the way of lower labor cost, have the artificial advantage of subsidies and bounties from their governments. Great Britain and Germany thus protect their fast mail lines. Several other nations subsidize all their steam lines, fast or slow, and also their sailing vessels. To offset these subventions and to give our steam marine the stimulus necessary to attract more American capital into the trade, the Frye bill provides for "steam vessels which may be suitable for carrying the mails of the United States and as auxiliaries to the power of the United States in time

of war or other need" an additional subsidy based on speed and tonnage. For ships of the class of the *St. Louis* or *St. Paul*, of more than 8,000 tons and twenty-one knots or over, this subsidy will be 2.3 cents a ton for every 100 miles sailed, and for twenty-knot ships 2 cents a ton. For vessels of 3,000 tons or over the subsidy will be 1.8 cents a ton for every 100 miles sailed by nineteen-knot ships, 1.6 cents for eighteen-knot ships, 1.4 cents for seventeen-knot ships, and so on down to the slower steamers, which will have 1 cent a ton. But this speed and tonnage premium is to be given to no steamer below 2,000 tons gross tonnage, the modern limit for efficiency in oversea trade, and all steamers receiving subsidy must carry the United States mails free of charge.

The subsidies offered by the Frye bill are to be paid for twenty years, the period for which a well-constructed vessel usually retains a first-class rating. This twenty-year guarantee is very little longer than the duration of foreign subsidy contracts, and it is believed to be essential if capital is to be induced to undertake the risks involved in new shipping enterprises. But in order to receive a subsidy owners of existing shipping must engage to build at least 25 per cent. of new tonnage in this country, thus insuring an immediate impulse to ship-building as well as to navigation.

Foreign-built ships actually owned to the extent of 80 per cent., or in certain special cases less than this, by American citizens are admitted to American registry by the terms of the Frye bill on these two conditions, that such foreign-built ships shall receive only 50 per cent. of the subsidy paid to American-built ships, and that their owners shall engage to construct within a specified time an equivalent tonnage in American ship yards. This provision, it is understood, will bring to the American flag the British ships of the International Navigation Company and the Belgian ships of the Red Star line, with several other steamers of excellent character.

WHAT THE COST WILL BE.

Of course no measure so progressive and comprehensive as this bill of Senator Frye's could, in a country of free speech, entirely escape criticism. It has been objected, for instance, that it conferred undue favor upon a few great corporations owning very fast steamships which carry mail and passengers, but relatively little freight, and that therefore it would be of small benefit to American commerce. To this the friends of the measure have effectively replied by an amendment limiting to $2,000,000 the subsidies which can be paid in any one year to swift steamers of twenty or twenty-one knots. They insist that this will provide an adequate Atlantic mail service. By another amendment the minimum requirement for the speed premium for steamers has been reduced from the original figure of fourteen knots to ten knots, in order to encourage the production of a relatively slow but very efficient and desirable type of cargo vessel for the long voyages of the Pacific trade, where coal economy is all-important.

To the accusation that the total cost of the subsidies would be excessive, that it would be a serious drain upon the Treasury and an extravagant price to pay for the recovery of our carrying trade, the framers of the Frye bill have answered in a stipulation that the annual expenditure shall never exceed $9,000,000. They submit careful estimates to show that the net cost the first year with our present tonnage will be only $2,700,000, and that in order to earn as much as $9,000,000 in subsidies our present deep-sea marine will have to be multiplied several times over.

AS TO BRITISH SUBSIDIES.

So far as the speed and tonnage premiums for fast large steamers are concerned, it is very easy to discern that the American subsidy rate or degree of protection is no larger than that now granted by the "mistress of the seas." The Navigation Bureau of the Treasury Department has prepared a table showing the tonnage actually employed on the chief British ocean mail routes, the pay which this tonnage actually receives from the British Government, and the pay which steamers of the same type would receive under the speed and tonnage laws of the Frye bill:

Companies.	British Subsidies.	American Subsidies.
Peninsular and Oriental	$1,660,297	$1,146,941
Orient and Pacific Steam	413,100	465,531
D. Currie and Union	456,840	498,410
Royal Mail	291,600	196,742
Canadian Pacific	291,600	140,586
Cunard and White Star	796,029	1,132,722
	$3,909,466	$3,580,932

The Cunard and White Star lines, it should be remembered, receive also in mail pay about $180,000 every year from the United States. In this enumeration of subsidized British steamers all but nine of the deep-sea vessels of sixteen knots and more under the British flag are included. This illustrates the liberality with which Great Britain fosters and protects the best ships of her merchant fleet.

PRICE LITTLE, GAIN GREAT.

This American legislation is very closely guarded. It bestows help upon our merchant marine

only where our ships are harassed by state-aided or low-wage foreign competition. It does not affect our coasting trade, or our lake trade, or our trade with Canada, Hawaii, or Puerto Rico. No ships can be sailed for the subsidy merely, for, as Senator Frye has shown, this would not amount to one-fourth of the lowest estimate of operating expenses in ballast—and no ship owner would pay 75 cents for an opportunity to earn 25 cents. Vessels qualifying for a subsidy must be wholly officered by American citizens and be manned by crews at least one-fourth of whom are Americans, with a certain number of American boys as apprentices. Thus the merchant fleet will develop a genuine naval reserve.

The Frye bill simply aims to extend in another form a protection equivalent to that bestowed through discriminating duties and tonnage dues in the first half century of our national existence. This earlier protection, as this paper has shown, was entirely effective and very profitable. Of course our treaties of reciprocity prevent us from renewing the protection in its original shape. The average American will be likely to agree with ex-Senator Edmunds that even $9,000,000 would be a small price to pay for a chance to recover some of the $150,000,000 which now goes out of the country every year into the pockets of foreign ship owners.

Whatever differences of opinion there may be over the exact height of tariff schedules, this proposition to give fair play (for that is essentially what it is) to the American interest that is at once least prosperous and most deserving appeals very strongly to the patriotic impulses of our people of all shades of party faith.

THE POLICY OF STEAMSHIP SUBSIDIES.

BY PRESIDENT ARTHUR T. HADLEY, OF YALE UNIVERSITY.

TWELVE years ago there was under discussion in Congress, in the newspapers, and among economists and financiers a variety of practical problems growing out of the existence of the large surplus revenue. At that time the editor of this REVIEW prepared and published a little volume entitled "The National Revenues," which contained a number of chapters specially contributed by students of political economy and finance, nearly all of whom were professors in universities and colleges. The chapter contributed by Professor (now President) Hadley, of Yale, dealt with "Steamship Subsidies as a Means of Reducing the Revenues." Apropos of the pending discussion in Congress, the editor had occasion last month to read over again Dr. Hadley's observations, and was struck with the fact that they seemed as applicable in the year 1900 as in 1888. The volume being now out of print, President Hadley was asked to give his approval to the republication of his chapter in the present number of the REVIEW. In order to make it clear that his general position has undergone no change, Dr. Hadley writes the following letter:

YALE UNIVERSITY, NEW HAVEN, CONN.,
February 8, 1900.

MY DEAR MR. SHAW:

Let me thank you for your letter of yesterday.

You are fully authorized to say, in connection with the reprint of the article, that my views with regard to the granting of large subsidies have remained unchanged. What constitutes a large subsidy in a particular case is, of course, a matter for the technical consideration of experts; but I believe that in this department of government activity, as in others, a policy of economy is the wisest for us.

Perhaps the safest thing for you to do would be to reprint the paragraph on page 443 of my "Economics." I inclose herewith copy of the paragraph in question.

Sincerely yours, ARTHUR T. HADLEY.

The book to which reference is made in the foregoing letter was published by the Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons in 1896, under the title "Economics: Relations Between Private Property and Public Welfare." Dr. Hadley's work as an economist certainly needs no indorsement; yet some of our readers may be grateful for this incidental reminder that before becoming so deeply absorbed in the large and varied problems that now confront him as administrative head of the great university at New Haven, Dr. Hadley had embodied the results of years of deep thinking, wide reading, and close observation in a very compact and able volume dealing with the practical problems as well as with the theory of economics—a volume that a great many American voters might read to their advantage in this Presidential year. The paragraph from his book to which Dr. Hadley refers reads as follows:

These subsidized steamers are useful in providing a reserve in case of war. The commercial success of the policy is more doubtful, whether we look at its effect on the profit of the ship owners or upon the commerce of the nation. French experience seems to indicate that

the system of bounties, by calling unnecessary ships into operation, diminishes the regular earnings of the business to a degree for which the government bounty furnishes scant compensation; while the old proverb that "trade follows the flag" is hardly borne out by recent events. It may have been true in old times that goods went where ships most desired to take them, but with modern facilities of communication the owners of the goods make up their minds where they want them to go, and the ships must take them there or nowhere. All things considered, it would be hard to show any commercial gains from subsidies which compensate for the sums spent in this way.

Without further preface we reproduce Dr. Hadley's argument of 1888 against steamship subsidies as a means of relieving congested public treasuries.—THE EDITOR.]

SUBSIDIES AS A MEANS OF REDUCING THE REVENUES.

THE United States has in two instances tried the policy of steamship subsidies on a large scale—with the Collins line in 1850–1858 and with the Pacific Mail in 1865–1875. In neither case was the result satisfactory.

The subsidy to the Collins line was in large measure due to the efforts of Mr. King, of Georgia, for some time chairman of the House Committee on Naval Affairs. As early as 1841, only two years after the first contract of the English Government with Samuel Cunard, he urged the United States to follow the example of England. The first act of Congress on the subject was passed in 1845; the amounts devoted to the payment of steamship lines were gradually increased until 1852, when they amounted to nearly $2,000,000 annually. At the close of that year there were American steamship lines running from New York to Liverpool, Havre, and Bremen; also from various American ports to the West Indies and the Isthmus of Panama, with connections thence to Oregon.

Much the most important of these enterprises was the Collins line, which made fortnightly trips from New York to Liverpool, for which it received a subsidy of $858,000. The history of this line is an instructive one, because it shows clearly the dangers of the subsidy system even under the most favorable circumstances. The boats were designed, built, and managed by thoroughly competent men. They were the finest specimens of steamship construction then existing; they were probably the best sea-going wooden steamships which have ever been built. They were much more comfortable and much faster than the English boats with which they came into competition; and though the Cunard line was forced by the influence of their American rivals to build newer and better boats than they had before, they were far from equaling the Collins line in speed or comfort. Nor was the American line dishonestly managed. Mr. Collins was largely influenced by patriotic motives. So far from making any money out of his connection with this enterprise, it ultimately caused his financial ruin.

But the fact that there was no intentional dishonesty makes the absence of good economy all the more apparent. The managers believed that they had the public treasury to fall back upon. They indulged in all sorts of expenditures, necessary and unnecessary. Changes were made while the vessels were in process of construction which greatly increased their cost, in many cases without corresponding advantage. The capital stock was insufficient. The company was heavily in debt from the first. The care in management which was the only thing that could have enabled them to carry this load of debt was altogether wanting. If any one desired an illustration of the danger of paralyzing individual thrift by government aid, he could hardly find a better one than the early history of the Collins line. Under such circumstances the apparent prosperity of the business could not last long. The rage for making fast passages rather than safe ones occasioned the loss of two steamers; a change of feeling in Congress caused the subsidy to be withdrawn, and the company was found to have nothing left to stand on.

The Pacific Mail had a much longer life; but its history was in many respects worse than that of the Collins line. It was less harmed by the discontinuance of the earlier subsidies in 1858 than by the renewal of the policy in 1865. The $500,000 a year which was paid them for their China service by the contract of 1865 proved but a poor compensation for the unsound methods which were introduced into the management—in part, apparently, as the result of that contract. Up to 1865 the Pacific Mail had been a sound concern. Its shares stood above par. After that it fell into the hands of speculators; it lost 9 vessels in as many years; its shares dropped below 40. An additional subsidy of another $500,000 was voted in 1872. But the company was unable to get the new vessels ready for service within the time stipulated; and while the Government was hesitating what to do, a series of disclosures showed that the contract of 1872 had been obtained by wholesale corruption. Public opinion was strongly aroused against the

system. The contracts of 1865 were allowed to expire and were not renewed. It was felt that the trade which had been encouraged had not been that of merchants in China, but of speculators and lobbyists at home.

Such facts as these furnish a strong argument against the attempt to build up an American steam marine by means of subsidies. But there are special circumstances which render the lesson doubly important at the present time.

In the first place, the difficulties of building up an American carrying trade in this manner to-day are exceptionally great. The cost of ships in America is greater than it is elsewhere. No foreign-built ship is allowed to carry the American flag. Our ship owners are thus compelled to buy in a dear market and then compete on even terms with those whose plant is cheaper. But this is not all. Even if we were allowed, by a change in the navigation laws, to buy our ships wherever we pleased, we should not be on an equality with our competitors in this matter. In order that American capital may be attracted into the foreign carrying trade, it is necessary that the rate of interest obtainable in that business should be about as high as that which can be had in other lines of business which offer chances for investment. That is not the case at the present time. Shipping profits have been cut down by large investments of European capital, artificially stimulated by subsidies. They have been so much cut down that there has been for two or three years practically no money to be made in the business.

If the current rate of interest in France on business ventures of a certain class is 5 per cent. and in America 7 per cent., America cannot compete with France on equal terms in that business unless she has a special advantage in the conduct of the business equal to 2 per cent. on the invested capital. Forty years ago we had such an advantage, on account of our superior facilities for building ships and superior skill in sailing them. To-day both of those advantages have been neutralized. Iron has been substituted for wood, steam for sail. Nothing short of a subsidy equal to the difference in current rates of profit in the two countries would put us on an equality in this matter; and that would only do it in case France gave no subsidies at all. But France does give subsidies, on a very large scale—so large as to have stimulated an overproduction of French ships, which has done the French nation much more harm than good. To accomplish anything effective we should have to counterbalance the difference in the rate of profit and the French subsidies put together. Were this done we should doubtless have a great many foreign steamship lines of our own; but they would be running for the subsidy rather than for the trade.

There is a tradition that "trade follows the flag;" that where our ships run we shall develop a trade. This may have been true before the invention of the telegraph, when the cargo was so often a matter of private enterprise on the part of the ship owner. But there can be no doubt that it is every day less and less true; and it is probably furthest from the truth on those lines of communication where subsidized steamships would be likely to run. The notion that such lines would act as drummers for New York houses has very little basis in fact.

If, under this condition of things, we are asked to grant steamship subsidies as a patriotic way of getting rid of the surplus, the presumption is strongly against the wisdom of any such policy. In all the affairs of life, whether public or private, it is a dangerous thing to spend money simply because you have it. It is almost certain that such money will be unwisely spent. This is conspicuously true of government expenditures. The really wise ones have not been made where an overflowing public treasury was used to help individual enterprise, but where some specific need was felt, and the Government set about to have that need met in the most efficient way.

England has at times given large steamship subsidies, but she has done it on business principles. It was a political necessity for her to have communication with her colonies, and to have steamships which could furnish her with a naval reserve and a transport service in case of war. In order to do this she had to pay for it. She tried to pay as little as she could for the service rendered; but she could not, without political suicide, dispense with such service. She had the same reasons for subsidizing steamships that we have for maintaining postal communication on lines which do not pay. It was the same reason which has led Germany and Russia to build military railroads or which led us to grant liberal aid to the Union Pacific in 1862 and 1864. In all these cases it was a matter of business for the Government to secure its end. The fact that the returns could not all be measured in dollars and cents did not prevent its being sound business policy. In fact, it furnished a strong reason why the Government might properly make the expenditure, because there was an advantage to be gained of which individual enterprise could not reap the benefit.

But where subsidies have been given, as has been recently the case in France or as was done in America in the instances already described,

as a means of encouraging private commercial enterprise, it has not proved good business policy. It has caused waste instead of economy, loss rather than gain; it has not proved a source of naval strength or commercial prosperity for the nation which has adopted it. It has turned out to be simply an inducement to extravagance.

It is undoubtedly desirable to reduce the treasury surplus; but why? Just because it offers a temptation to extravagant uses of the money. To make the existence of such a surplus a justification for subsidies is simply to court the evil of which we are afraid. If we spend our money recklessly we shall not have so much left to spend, and in that way the immediate danger may be diminished; but meantime we shall have done the very harm which we wished to avoid. More than this, we shall have laid the foundation for future evil of the same sort; for any such lavish expenditure of money conceals the need of wise measures to prevent its accumulation.

THE EMANCIPATION OF SLAVES UNDER MOSLEM LAW.

BY PROF. D. B. MACDONALD, OF HARTFORD THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY.

IN the President's message an outline is given of the agreement under which the sovereignty of the archipelago of Sulu has passed to the United States. Article X. deals provisionally with the emancipation of slaves, and provides that any slave shall have the right to purchase freedom by paying to his master his market value. It may be of interest, in view of this agreement, to sketch the legal position of slaves as to emancipation under Moslem law.

The Sultan of Sulu and his subjects are Mohammedans of the legal rite of ash-Shafi'i. There are four generally recognized schools of jurisprudence in orthodox Islam—the Malikites, the Hanafites, the Hanbalites, and the Shafi'ites. To this last, founded by the Imam Mohammed ibn Idris ash-Shafi'i, who died at Cairo in January, A.D. 820, the Mohammedans of Sulu, nominally at least, adhere. It is to the law books, then, of this school that appeal must be taken in the event of any dispute, and it will easily be seen that an exact knowledge of this code is a necessity for us in our dealings with the people of the Sulu Archipelago. The following is a very brief outline of the attitude of this code toward the emancipation of slaves:

There are four ways by which a slave may be emancipated: (1) by the simple word of the master, the emancipation following at once; (2) by promise, to come into effect after the death of the master; (3) by a writing on the petition of the slave; (4) of necessity on the death of the master in the case of a slave woman who has borne a child to him.

1. Immediate emancipation is an act of piety which is highly commended. It can be performed by any master who is in legal control of his property, and it can take place through some direct expression, such as "Thou art free," even though the master does not intend what he says. If a metaphorical expression is used intention must go with it. Emancipation of part of a slave involves emancipating the whole. If the slave is a joint possession, the master who emancipates his part must, if he is a man of wealth, buy the other share so as to emancipate the whole slave. If he is poor the slave is only part free. Emancipation involves as a consequence a state of clientage. If an emancipated slave dies without heirs, then his property passes to his former master, or if he is dead to the males of his house. But this right of inheritance cannot be sold or gifted.

2. It is also a pious act for a master to promise a slave freedom at death. For the rest of the master's life the slave remains at his absolute disposal, but at his death, if the slave still belongs to him, he is free. It is, however, open to the master to sell his slave, and that annuls the promise. Further, a man can dispose of his property in this way only to the extent to which the law allows him to dispose of it by will—*i.e.*, one-third. If all his property consists of three slaves he can only promise freedom to one; or rather the law after his death will only permit the emancipation of one—two-thirds must go to the heirs.

3. A slave may petition his master to give him a writing promising him freedom after he has paid a certain fixed sum at certain fixed terms, at least two in number. It is a highly approved action for the master to assent. But there are conditions. The slave must be trustworthy and capable of earning money. If the

master is in health when he gives the writing he may in this way do away with all his possessions—*i.e.*, if he possesses slaves only he may give such writings to them all, but if he is sick he can only do it to the extent of one-third of his possessions. The contract is then binding absolutely on the master, but the slave may give it up at will. The slave has a right to employ freely all the property he has. The master must remit a certain amount to him of the stipulated sum, but the slave is free only after the sum has been paid up, less the amount remitted.

4. If a slave woman bear a child to her master he is forbidden to sell, pledge, or give her away during his life, and she is free at his death. She continues to be his slave, but inalienable. Her freedom follows at his death before any debts or legacies are paid, even though she has formed his entire property.

In the three last cases, just as in the first, the right of patronage exists.

It will be noticed that the third of these methods is strikingly similar to that described in the President's message. The principal difference is that the treaty with the Sultan of Sulu makes it incumbent on the master to accept the price of his slave, while Moslem law according to the code of ash-Shafi'i regards it only as highly approved. But all the codes have not viewed the matter in the same way. The basis is Koran, xxiv. 33: "And those who desire a writing, of those whom your right hands possess, give them a writing if ye know good in them, and give them of the wealth of God which he has given to you." This has been interpreted by some commentators and by one of the legal schools as an absolute command; by the majority of the commentators and by three of the schools as a simple recommendation. Ahmad ibn Hanbal, the founder of the Hanbalites, who died A.D. 855, following the laws of strictly literal interpretation which he professed, made the command absolute, but left it open to the master to exact whatever sum he chose. It may be safely said, however, that the passage in the Koran on its face meaning is an absolutely sufficient basis for the position taken by this country in the treaty, quite apart from our own views of the wrong of slavery. Unless we go further, we have only gone as far as Mohammed himself.

But there is another side to this, as to almost all questions of Moslem law. The four schools of jurisprudence spoken of above state what may be called the canon law of Islam. This canon law is based on four things: the Koran, traditions of the practice of Mohammed, analogical deduction from these, and the agreement of the Moslem community. It governs all the life of a Moslem, public and private. and prescribes his course of conduct under any contingency. A Moslem must belong to one or other of these four schools, which are regarded as having equal rights and validity. It can easily be understood that such a system as this must in the end break down. Laws suited to the patriarchal conditions of early Islam were a failure when applied in the broader world. The will of absolute rulers could not brook any restraint, and the law that opposed that will went to the wall. So there entered at a very early date a split in the legal life of the Moslems, and now no Moslem believes in the possibility of the full observance of this canon law. It was observed once, they will say, for thirty years after the death of Mohammed, under "the four just Khalifas," and it will be observed in the reign of righteousness to come in the future under the Mahdi; for the present Islam is ruled by kings who act as they see fit.

The result of this is that in all Moslem countries there are two separate courts of justice. The one administers canon law and has jurisdiction over personal and family affairs only. It regulates marriage, divorce, and inheritance, and gives advice to those who seek it on the ceremonial law. The other has charge of all the more public side of life, and pays little or no attention in its decisions to the arguments and claims of the canon lawyers. Yet in spite of this these continue to teach and develop their absolutely theoretical system in all its branches. When the Mahdi does come he will find lawyers who know the true law of the Moslem community. In the meantime they are reverenced by the people as the exponents of sacred things and endured by the rulers, so long, at least, as they do not teach flat rebellion, but are content with reproving the shortcomings of their time and with lamenting the good old days.

But it must not be imagined that this doubling of law courts is in any way a result of European influence. It sprang up in the bosom of Islam itself, and is to be found in Morocco and in Mecca, where there can be no thought of such working. Being native in this way to Islam, it is the one hope of the future.

It will be seen, then, that it is possible, on good Moslem precedent, to act with a very free hand in legal matters in dealing with the people of Sulu so long as there is no interference with the private and personal side of their life. Slavery, being a more public matter, can be done away with to-morrow, but the laws governing such things as marriage and inheritance can only be touched with the greatest caution.

neutrality and security when completed, always understand that this protection and guarantee are granted conditionally, and may be withdrawn by both governments, or either government, if both governments, or either government, should deem that the persons or company undertaking or managing the same adopt or establish such regulations concerning the traffic thereupon as are contrary to the spirit and intention of this convention, either by making unfair discriminations in favor of the commerce of one of the contracting parties over the commerce of the other, or by imposing oppressive exactions or unreasonable tolls upon the passengers, vessels, goods, wares, merchandise, or other articles. Neither party, however, shall withdraw the aforesaid protection and guarantee without first giving six months' notice to the other.

ARTICLE VI.—The contracting parties in this convention engage to invite every state with which both or either have friendly intercourse to enter into stipulations with them similar to those which they have entered into with each other, to the end that all other states may share in the honor and advantage of having contributed to a work of such general interest and importance as the canal herein contemplated. And the contracting parties likewise agree that each shall enter into treaty stipulations with such of the Central American States as they may deem advisable, for the purpose of more effectually carrying out the great design of this convention, namely, that of constructing and maintaining the said canal as a ship communication between the two oceans for the benefit of mankind, on equal terms to all, and of protecting the same; and they also agree, that the good offices of either shall be employed, when requested by the other, in aiding and assisting the negotiation of such treaty stipulations; and should any differences arise as to right or property over the territory through which the said canal shall pass between the states or governments of Central America, and such differences should in any way impede or obstruct the execution of the said canal, the Governments of the United States and Great Britain will use their good offices to settle such differences in the manner best suited to promote the interests of the said canal, and to strengthen the bonds of friendship and alliance which exist between the contracting parties.

ARTICLE VII.—It being desirable that no time should be unnecessarily lost in commencing and constructing the said canal, the Governments of the United States and Great Britain determine to give their support and encouragement to such persons or company as may first offer to commence the same, with the necessary capital, the consent of the local authorities, and on such principles as accord with the spirit and intention of this convention; and if any persons or company should already have, with any state through which the proposed ship canal may pass, a contract for the construction of such a canal as that specified in this convention, to the stipulations of which contract neither of the contracting parties in this convention have any just cause to object, and the said persons or company shall moreover have made preparations, and expended time, money, and trouble, on the faith of such contract, it is hereby agreed that such persons or company shall have a priority of claim over every other person, persons, or company to the protection of the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, and be allowed a year from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this convention for concluding their arrangements, and presenting evidence of sufficient capital subscribed to accomplish the contemplated undertaking; it being understood that if, at the expiration of the aforesaid period, such persons or company be not able to commence and carry out the proposed enterprise, then the Governments of the United States and Great Britain shall be free to afford their protection to any other persons or company that shall be prepared to commence and proceed with the construction of the canal in question.

ARTICLE VIII.—The Governments of the United States and Great Britain having not only desired, in entering into this convention, to accomplish a particular object, but also to establish a general principle, they hereby agree to extend their protection, by treaty stipulations, to any other practicable communications, whether by canal or railway, across the isthmus which connects North and South America, and especially to the interoceanic communications, should the same prove to be practicable, whether by canal or railway, which are now proposed to be established by the way of Tehuantepec or Panama. In granting, however, their joint protection to any such canals or railways as are by this article specified, it is always understood by the United States and Great Britain that the parties constructing or owning the same shall impose no other charges or conditions of traffic thereupon than the aforesaid Governments shall approve of as just and equitable; and that the same canals or railways, being open to the citizens and subjects of the United States and Great Britain on equal terms, shall also be open on like terms to the citizens and subjects of every other state which is willing to grant thereto such protection as the United States and Great Britain engage to afford.

ARTICLE IX.—The ratifications of this convention shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from this day, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this convention, and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Done at Washington, the nineteenth day of April, anno Domini one thousand eight hundred and fifty.

JOHN M. CLAYTON. [L. S.]

HENRY LYTTON BULWER. [L. S.]

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

RICHARD OLNEY ON OUR FOREIGN POLICY.

IN the *Atlantic Monthly* for March ex-Secretary Richard Olney contributes the opening article, a sketch of the "Growth of Our Foreign Policy." Mr. Olney says that though historians will probably assign the abandonment of the isolation policy of the United States to the Spanish war, the change was inevitable, had been long preparing, and could not have been long delayed. So true was this that the struggle over Cuba probably only hastened the expansion of the duties of this country "by an inconsiderable period." Mr. Olney considers that if the acquisition of Cuba by the United States had not come in 1898 it would have come in the next few years; if without war, then by a concession from Spain more or less compulsory in character.

CUBA NOW OURS IN EFFECT.

"It may be thought at first blush that to speak of 'the acquisition of Cuba by the United States' as a fact accomplished is inaccurate. But the objection is technical and the expression conveys the substantial truth, notwithstanding a resolution of Congress which, ill-advised and futile at the time of its passage, if now influential at all, is simply prejudicing the interests of Cuba and the United States alike. No such resolution can refute the logic of the undisputed facts or should be allowed to impede the natural march of events. To any satisfactory solution of the Cuban problem it is vital that Cuba's political conditions should be permanently settled. The spectacle now exhibited of a President and his Cabinet sitting in Washington with an appointee and sort of imitation President sitting with his Cabinet in the Antilles must have an end, the sooner the better, and will end when Congress ceases to ignore its functions and makes Cuba in point of law what she already is in point of fact—namely, United States territory. Were there to be a plebiscite on the subject, such a consummation would be favored by practically the entire body of the intelligence and wealth of the island. Until it is reached capital will hesitate to go there, emigration from this country will be insignificant, and Cuba will fail to enter upon that new era of progress and development, industrial, political, and social, which is relied upon to justify and ought to justify the substitution of American for Spanish control."

THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Olney is exceeding skeptical concerning our taking Philippine responsibilities. He argues at length to show that we were neither bound by any considerations of honor or duty to buy them nor was it to our interest to buy them. However, he says "the thing is done. It remains to be considered what the effect of owning the Philippines is to have on the future of our foreign relations. Our diplomatic agencies must be carefully enlarged, strengthened, and improved, and we need a powerful navy, up to date in all points of construction, armament, general efficiency, and readiness for instant service; and we need a large addition to our regular standing army."

THE EXPANSION OF OUR DUTIES AND SYMPATHIES.

"Hereafter, as heretofore, our general policy must be and will be non-interference in the internal affairs of European states—hereafter, as heretofore, we shall claim paramountcy in things purely American—and hereafter, as heretofore, we shall antagonize any attempt by a European power to forcibly plant its flag on the American continents. It cannot be doubted, however, that our new departure not merely unties our hands, but fairly binds us to use them in a manner we have thus far not been accustomed to. We cannot assert ourselves as a power whose interests and sympathies are as wide as civilization without assuming obligations corresponding to the claim—obligations to be all the more scrupulously recognized and performed that they lack the sanction of physical force. The first duty of every nation, as already observed, is to itself—is the promotion and conservation of its own interests. Its position as an active member of the international family does not require it ever to lose sight of that principle. But just weight being given to that principle, and its abilities and resources and opportunities permitting, there is no reason why the United States should not act for the relief of suffering humanity and for the advancement of civilization wherever and whenever such action would be timely and effective. Should there, for example, be a recurrence of the Turkish massacres of Armenian Christians, not to stop them alone or in concert with others, could we do so without imperiling our own substantial interests, would be unworthy of us and inconsistent with our claims and aspirations as a great power. We certainly could no longer shelter ourselves behind the time-honored excuse that we are an American power exclusively, without concern with the affairs of the world at large."

Mr. Olney thinks that in consequence of this

new international position of our country a measure of popular interest and importance will attach to our foreign affairs unknown before; without any necessary decline of patriotism, domestic affairs will cease to be regarded as alone deserving the serious attention of Americans generally.

THE PROBLEMS OF THE TRANSVAAL WAR.

M. JEAN DE BLOCH, whose predictions concerning modern war have been so strikingly justified by events in South Africa, contributes to the *Revue des Revues* for February 1 an article on "The Transvaal War and Its Problems," which, while it shows plainly the folly of England's government in rushing into war, is nevertheless in essence a defense of the British officers and troops. The British army, says M. Bloch, have done badly in South Africa, but no other army would have done better. The difficulties which they are meeting in South Africa spring from the very nature of modern war, and though this should have deterred the government from entering upon such a struggle, no blame can be attached to the generals for not overcoming obstacles which the best military authorities on the continent have unanimously declared to be almost insuperable. In short, though the war was not "inevitable," England's reverses were; which is probably the worst accusation against England's government and the best defense of her soldiers which has yet been made.

A PLEA FOR INVESTIGATION.

M. Bloch declares that no success can be obtained until a thorough scientific investigation is made by the British military authorities into the conditions of the war in South Africa, and he says that if this investigation had been made the war would never have been entered on. He takes the War Office to task for its crass ignorance—or gross neglect—of the best military authorities of the continent, who for years past have been recapitulating without ceasing the enormous difficulties of an offensive war. The lesson of Plevna as to the advantages to be drawn from a scientific use of the spade ought to have been studied by the War Office, for it has been insisted upon by all military writers. The Prussian general Von Schlictung declared that "in the condition of modern armaments the spade may render to tactics services so great that it may become a great arm in itself, and not one of minor importance. To assure a prolonged resistance against offensive operations intrenchments will often render more service than permanent fortifications."

ATTACK ALMOST IMPOSSIBLE.

Von Rohne, Von der Goltz, Ferron, Kuropatkin, Skugarevsky, all have insisted on the practical impossibility of attacking scientific intrenchments. The War Office cared nothing for this. They evidently expected that the Boers would imitate the Dervishes and rush on the British bayonets. But nobody else thought so. They recognized that the Boers, "relieved of baggage by their simplicity and endurance, used to the climate, and knowing every inch of the land on which the contest is taking place, alert, good marchers, with defensive positions prepared in advance, and knowing well that if they attack their English foes they would meet with strong resistance, imperturbable courage, and an iron discipline which they do not themselves possess, are compelled by necessity, as well as inclination, to restrict themselves to defense. The English War Office should, therefore, not have doubted for a moment that the Boers would avoid hurling themselves against the English troops in attack. On the contrary, it ought to have been foreseen that the Boers would force the British to attack them in positions sheltered from projectiles by the nature of the ground, compelling the dispersion of their slow-moving enemies who understand little of a sharpshooters' war."

TURNING MOVEMENTS DIFFICULT.

Yet with all the good military qualities of the Boers, M. Bloch thinks that German or Russian soldiers acting on the defensive would have caused us losses incomparably greater. Indeed, he has not any particular respect for the fighting qualities of the Boers, and thinks that their successes spring from the natural advantages of a defensive war of which they understand how to avail themselves. M. Bloch's article was written before the failure of the great Tugela turning movement, but he expressed in advance his disbelief in its efficacy:

"The English generals are criticised because they have failed to attain by means of maneuvers and turning operations successes such as were obtained by the Germans in the war of 1870. But for this purpose it would be necessary to have the superiority of forces which the Germans possessed, and their strength was four times greater than that of the French—a superiority which it is impossible for England to obtain; and it would also be necessary first to determine every time the enemy's position, which is ten times more difficult now than in 1870, in consequence of the employment of long-range rifles, the absence of smoke, and the nature of the country in South Africa. But, in addition

to this, *every flanking movement must in the end lead to an attack*, if it is impossible to force the enemy to come out of his fortifications to defend some vital point, the fall of which into the hands of the enemy would have a decisive effect on the war, as, for instance, in France, Paris, in Germany, Berlin, and so on. But such points are not to be found in the Transvaal. The capital, Pretoria, owing to the primitive character of the Transvaal Government, has no great importance. In addition to this, Pretoria is strongly fortified, and in order to reach it by means of turning movements it would be necessary to advance over hilly country, in which it is impossible to deviate from railroads and main roads, otherwise the advancing army would perish from hunger. Besides, this would require such a large army as England has not and could hardly have."

It was precisely this fact, that the turning movement on the Tugela in the end "led to an attack," which caused its failure.

NO OFFICERS—NO FOOD.

Suppose England should send out 100,000 more men. Then, says M. Bloch, she will meet two difficulties—she has not enough trained officers to lead them and she will not be able to supply them:

"It must not be forgotten that the further from the sea the English armies penetrate the more difficult will it become to provision them with vital necessaries, and the interruption of communications which will result from the mobility of the Boers, their endurability, knowledge of the country, and ties with its local population will be a phenomenon of constant occurrence. In addition to this, a prolonged campaign, owing to the unavoidable deficiency of food and shelter, will probably develop disease among the English troops.

"The perfection of arms has produced this result, that a small body of troops may now defend itself for several days against an enemy two or three times as strong. This fact, which has been formally established at maneuvers in Germany, may serve as a rule to the judges of the struggle. The Boers will surround their opponent, they will be everywhere on his path, they will wear him out with continual skirmishing, in which their skill will render sanguinary his every step, and they will force him finally to attack them in positions which it is impossible to take without immense loss."

THE CAUSE OF BRITISH SURRENDERS.

M. Bloch gives an explanation of the extraordinary phenomenon of the surrender of large bodies of British troops after comparatively trifling losses. It is not the proportion of losses already sustained, but the fear of future losses which compels soldiers to give way. Thus a battalion which loses 10 per cent. in a minute is more likely to raise the white flag than one which loses 50 per cent. in a twelve hours' battle. M. Bloch thinks that the high culture of our officers and the education of our men makes them much more liable to nervous panics than less cultured troops. But "before bringing accusations it would be wise to consider every separate occasion, and in the great majority of cases I am convinced that instead of condemning those who have surrendered, it would appear to military men worthier to cry 'honor and glory!' and to express gratitude for the moral courage which refuses to sacrifice innocent men in vain. Once it is impossible to obtain results, every man lost means simply murder, which is all the more shameful since such murder is not only unpunished, but glorified as heroism."

THE BOER TEXT-BOOK.

M. Bloch concludes his article by repeating his plea for an inquiry. He says:

"I have written this not for the purpose of advertisement, but only in order to prove how necessary such an inquiry is to England. I may say that the only government which has studied my work is that which is at the present moment opposing England. Immediately after the publication of the German translation of my work in the spring of last year a considerable number of copies was dispatched to the Transvaal, and afterward an abridged translation of the book was published in Dutch."

Since its publication in the *Revue des Revues* "The Transvaal War and Its Problems" has been translated into English and published as a pamphlet. It is regarded as the most notable and detailed foreign opinion which has yet been expressed on the subject of the war.

AN ITALIAN GENERAL ON THE WAR.

ONE of the clearest and most satisfactory statements of the progress of the South African War that have come under our notice is by General dal Verme, of the Italian army, in *Nuova Antologia* for January 16. General dal Verme's account of the war covers the three months following the expiration of President Krüger's ultimatum. It takes in, therefore, Lord Methuen's severe repulse at Magersfontein and General Buller's defeat at the fords of the Tugela near Colenso, but not General Buller's repulse at Spion Kop. As a recital of the military events of the first three months of hostilities the account

is admirable; but our readers have been informed of those events in the course of their progress, and we will not recapitulate them here. General dal Verme gives more, however, than a narrative of battles and defeats. He offers an explanation of British failure. "It will not be superfluous," he says, "to study how it has happened that solid British troops have not only failed to overcome an enemy inferior in numbers, but have been repeatedly beaten, and after three months of war have been reduced to the impossibility of making an advance."

In the opinion of General dal Verme the reverses of the British are attributable to five principal causes: (1) lack of mobility; (2) inadequate transportation; (3) errors of tactics; (4) errors of strategy; (5) political meddling.

THE BRITISH SOLDIER A POOR MARCHER.

"The English soldier," our critic says, "is not a marcher. He carries but little on his back and scorns to carry even that little. . . . A march of ten English miles—that is, of sixteen kilometers—is considered in the British army an average march for infantry, but in the continental armies the average is between twenty and twenty-five. Consider where a general would find himself with battalions that hardly make sixteen kilometers a day (four an hour) in the presence of the Boers, who in an hour make eight and in a day (and for many days in succession) easily make from thirty to forty." It is easy, then, for the Boers to block British movements, for they know every inch of the ground and are informed of any movement as soon as it begins.

LACK OF TRANSPORTATION.

The English soldier, besides being slow, has many wants. He enters the army expecting to live there better than at home, but he is unwilling to carry on his back more than a little of what he needs. Of course the requirements of the officers are on a far higher plane than those of their men. Hence a very cumbersome transportation service is necessary, especially if there are bodies of cavalry, and in such a country as South Africa, for the horses used by the British are not habituated to climate and pasture, and fodder has to be carried wherever they go. And yet, notwithstanding these excessive demands, the British transportation service has not been organized even at home. In South Africa it is wholly inadequate. The result is that the British have to keep close to the lines of railroad, and the Boers foresee and anticipate with sufficient preparation all their advances. The necessity of adequate transportation almost anybody can see; the difficulties in the way of attaining it are known only to experts. General dal Verme regards these difficulties as very serious, but not so great as those which confronted the Italians in the Ethiopian uplands.

INFERIOR TACTICS AND STRATEGY.

As an instance of tactical error, General dal Verme refers to the British practice of attacking an intrenched enemy in columns or in deep masses. Of course when attacks are made in dense formations many more of the assailants are put out of the battle by the enemy's projectiles than when the attacking line is thin and open. But as a matter of fact have the British commanders in the South African War been usually guilty of such imprudence? Certainly they have not in some cases, and in some others where an attack in column was made (as in General Buller's attempted crossing of the Tugela near Colenso) is it not a fair presumption that the situation made any other formation impossible?

The capital strategic error of the campaign, General dal Verme thinks, has been the dispersion of the British troops through so vast a theater of war. Reserving his opinion as to whether Ladysmith ought to have been abandoned before it was invested by the Boers, he admits that the defense and projected relief of Ladysmith complicated greatly the strategic problem. But even so, he maintains that the dispersion of troops has been excessive.

POLITICAL INTERFERENCE.

Next to inadequate transportation, political meddling, our critic thinks, is mostly responsible for the disasters of the war. The bad strategy with which the campaign has been conducted so far he attributes not to the incompetence of British generals, but to an interference in their plans dictated by political considerations. And this interference, he believes, has not only modified plans of campaign, but even precipitated battles. The subordinate commanders are not free from its influence. Even such an affair as General Gatacre's movement on the Boers near Stormberg seems to have been the result of political pressure. Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener, General dal Verme thinks, have such a hold on the confidence of the British public that they will be free to act as good military judgment requires. If they seem slow confidence in them will not be shaken. Their prestige is so great that Britons of all kinds will say: "They know best." And here it is that the critic sees possibilities favorable to the British arms. A new start must be made—a start from the beginning.

If England will improve her transportation service so that her armies can move without dependence on the railroads, if, too, she will give her trusted commanders all the soldiers they ask for and cease meddling with their plans, then she can recover her prestige. Napoleon, referring to the war in Spain, said: "The English infantry is the best in the world; fortunately there isn't much of it." With such soldiers and such commanders as England believes the new chiefs to be, General dal Verme thinks that England has good grounds (if transportation is made adequate) for expecting a satisfactory termination of the war.

YOUTH VERSUS AGE IN GENERALSHIP.

WRITING in the *National Review*, "An Englishman" maintains that England is relying too much upon old men in the Transvaal war. He says:

"Our own empire was built up mainly by young men. Chatham was not fifty when he was called upon to rescue England from utter collapse and to convert continued defeat into victory every morning. Pitt was a boy when he was summoned to the administration of affairs on the eve of the greatest struggle in which our country has ever engaged. Wolfe was only forty-two when he laid down his noble life on the Heights of Abraham. Nelson was thirty-nine when the victory of the Nile stamped him as 'our greatest sailor since the world began.' Wellington was thirty-four when he commanded at Assaye, and only forty when he opened the Peninsular War as commander-in-chief of a great army. John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, was fifty-two when he took the field for his first campaign as generalissimo in Flanders. Cromwell, the greatest soldier and organizer our country has ever produced, was forty-six when he won Naseby. The Duke of Cumberland was not twenty-five when he became commander-in-chief; some months later he went to an army demoralized by defeat and in a few weeks lifted it to confidence and victory. But, then, the Duke of Cumberland was a prince who had soldiered and studied, instead of giving his time to sport.

IN WAR.

"The generals who made their names on the side of the North during the Civil War were all young men. Grant was forty when he commanded at Shiloh; Sheridan was thirty-three when he commanded the cavalry of the Army of the Potomac; Sherman, one of the best, if not the best man that the war produced on either side, was only forty-four when he started forth upon his immortal Atlanta campaign. On the side of the South, too, the generals were young by modern standards. 'Joe' Johnston was only fifty-two at the outbreak of the war; Lee was fifty-four; 'Jeb' Stuart was twenty-eight; 'Stonewall' Jackson thirty-seven. If we turn to our own field army to-day we shall find that not one of the officers in high command in South Africa is under forty. These are the ages:

"General Buller, sixty-one; General Gatacre, fifty-seven; General Lord Methuen, fifty-five; General Clery, sixty-two; General French, forty-eight; General Kelly-Kenny, sixty; General Warren, sixty; General White, sixty-five; Lord Roberts, sixty-eight; Lord Kitchener, fifty.

"Excepting General French, who has already distinguished himself by winning the one complete victory—on a small scale, it is true—of the war, Lord Kitchener is the youngest. It is because he is the youngest, and because his comparative youth will have the benefit of the experience of the venerable and beloved Lord Roberts, that the nation watches him with such hope. For this is a war in which we may have to change our tactics—certainly we shall have to change our strategy—and radical changes demand young men.

IN GOVERNMENT.

"And now let us turn to the men who control the fortunes of the empire to-day. Their names and their ages are as follows: Lord Salisbury,* seventy; Mr. Chamberlain, sixty-four; Mr. A. Balfour,* fifty-two; Mr. Goschen,* sixty-nine; Sir M. Hicks-Beach,* sixty-three; Duke of Devonshire,* sixty-seven; Lord Lansdowne,* fifty-five; Lord Wolseley, sixty-seven; Lord W. Kerr, sixty. (Those marked with an asterisk are members of the Defense Committee.)

"There is no one under fifty in this 'inner circle.' The two youngest men in the number are, rightly or wrongly, especially identified with the want of foresight and preparation which has brought the empire to its present pass. Mr. Balfour's speeches show him to have been blind and indifferent to the danger; the plight of our army in South Africa, the half measures, the manifest hesitation, and the tardiness of the dispatch of reënforcements equally condemn Lord Lansdowne."

It should be noted, however, that the Franco-Prussian War was won by von Moltke when he was seventy, that President Krüger is seventy-six, and that Joubert and Kronje are the seniors of Buller and Methuen.



From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

SUCH A SURPRISE.

MR. BALFOUR: "Fancy, Ridley! They've actually got horses!"
SIR M. W. RIDLEY: "And look, Arthur, they've got rifles, too! What a shame to deceive us!"

THE BRITISH INTELLIGENCE DEPARTMENT.

IN *Cornhill* for February Maj. Arthur Griffiths describes the organization and working of the "Intelligence Division" of the British War Office, the present director of which is Gen. Sir John Ardagh, "the best equipped for the control of the department of any who have exercised it." The business of the Intelligence Department is intrusted to six subdivisions, each of which deals with a particular subject. The subjects comprise—

"1. The collection and collation of all information with regard to the military defense of the empire, and the examination of all schemes of defense, in the strategical and scientific aspect.

"2. The accumulation of all facts that can be obtained as to the military strength and resources of foreign powers. This covers accurate information on the military geography of the several countries concerned, the physical features and the artificial treatment of their frontiers, and generally the value of their defensive lines. It embraces the fullest details that can be obtained of the armed strength of the three arms, not merely numbers of *personnel* and quantity of material, but their organization and the system of mobilization, or in other words of raising the peace establishment to a war footing. The same sort of information is collected and recorded from all British colonies and possessions. It is the especial duty of the department under this head to provide at short notice the comprehensive reports already mentioned upon any of these points.

"3. Map-making in a military sense. The correcting of all existing maps by the light of latest knowledge, noting the changes made by the rectification of frontiers, the pressure of war, the improvements in the methods of moving troops by the creation of new railroad lines or other communications.

"4. The translation of foreign documents received by public departments, for which purpose the staff of the office is always strengthened by the employment of officers who are skilled linguists."

CABLES IN WAR-TIME.

TO the first January number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* M. Depelley contributes an interesting paper upon telegraphic cables in time of war. Among the various effects which the present war has produced in Europe, perhaps not the least curious is that it has made France suddenly wake up to the fact that England possesses practically a monopoly of the great submarine cables of the world. The fact was, of course, perfectly well known to well-informed people before the war broke out, but apparently it needed the clear revelation of England's mili-

tary censorship to penetrate the almost Chinese indifference of French public opinion. M. Depelley rather pathetically takes us back to the first words exchanged between Europe and America by the new trans-Atlantic cable in 1858; they were words of peace, which demanded the neutralization of telegraphic lines. The then President of the United States, in his congratulatory dispatch to the Queen, asked that "all civilized nations should declare, spontaneously and as the result of a general agreement, that the electric telegraph shall be forever neutral; that the messages to be intrusted to it shall be regarded as sacred even in the middle of hostilities."

ENGLAND AN OVERGROWN SPIDER.

After more than forty years this desire remains nothing more than a pious opinion, and M. Depelley draws an impressive picture of the steady determination with which England, sitting like a great overgrown spider in London, has enveloped the whole world in a network of submarine lines, so that nothing can happen anywhere without being immediately known in London. With the assistance of an excellent map he exhibits very clearly the extent and intricacy of this British telegraphic network, and he is particularly annoyed to think that the French Government pays not far short of $500,000 a year to English cable companies by way of subventions. These English companies are, he explains, under the most stringent rules imposed by the British Government, by which they are prevented from employing foreigners; their wires must never be under the control of a foreign government; the British Government's dispatches must always have precedence when required; and in case of war the British Government reserves power to seize all the stations on English territory and to use the cable as it pleases. M. Depelley goes on to draw a terrible picture of the weakness and indifference of Spain to this great cable question. When the Spanish-American War broke out she had no independent and trustworthy telegraphic communication between Madrid and Havana; she was actually obliged to communicate with Cuba over American cables; and the moral of this is that France at this moment is not in a much better position. It must be admitted that on the map the French telegraph lines are few, and would be of no great strategic importance in time of war, though no doubt the French Government could depend upon having the Russian telegraph services placed at its disposal. M. Depelley is naturally much struck by the measure of success which has been obtained by the proposal for a Pacific cable uniting Canada and Australia. It is a project, he sees clearly, which owes its prospects of success entirely to the patronage not only of the imperial government, but also of the colonial cabinets, and it demonstrates to his mind the sleepless activity of England in keeping her telegraphic communications absolutely ahead of the rest of the world.

WARNINGS TO FRANCE.

But England is not the only country which M. Depelley holds up as a striking example to his own country. The United States is actively pursuing a scheme for a cable to Manila which should touch at the Sandwich Islands. Germany also, in spite of her unfavorable geographical position, which only gives her a seaboard on the North Sea, is seeking to obtain her own independent cables, and she has actually picked up a scheme which was considered for a time in France and ultimately abandoned. It is known as the scheme of the Azores, and consists in the laying of cables from Germany to the archipelago of the Azores and thence to New York; and this cable will be laid in eighteen months or two years by a German company possessing the support of the government and the most influential patronage. It would, however, be unjust to ignore the tentative efforts which have been made to bring France into a better position in regard to these matters. The existing French cables are open to the grave objection that they depend almost entirely on the coöperation of certain English and American cable companies—a coöperation which, though willingly rendered in time of peace, would be liable to be withdrawn in the event of war. Within the last three years an attempt has certainly been made to remedy this state of affairs. A new line has been laid between Brest and New York, and from New York it has been continued to Haiti. The construction of this cable presented extraordinary difficulties, and its success certainly reflects credit on French enterprise. As regards Africa and the far East, French lines only go as far as Algiers, Oran, and Tunis—a fact which sufficiently shows how completely France is "out of it," from a cable point of view, in the great waters of the Indian and Pacific Oceans. But there are signs that France is determined to furnish herself with a complete telegraphic system which would group her colonial possessions together and connect them with the mother country by independent cables. The whole tone of M. Depelley's article, though not violent, is anti-English, and he looks forward to a time when Paris and not London shall be the telegraphic capital of the world. To attain this end he is apparently quite willing that France should coöperate with any country in the world except England.

BEFORE THE JAMESON RAID.

THE *Quarterly Review* publishes an article under the title "Ten Years Before the Raid," which is chiefly devoted to an examination of the long struggle which took place between President Krüger and the British Government to prevent the extension of the frontier of the republic. The article is interesting on account of the information which it gives as to the way in which the contemplated *trek* to the north in 1890 was checked by Sir Henry Loch and Dr. Jameson. The *trek* then contemplated seems to have been a much more serious enterprise than was generally believed. The *Quarterly* reviewer quotes from the public proclamation of the organizers of the *trek*, from which it appears that the great *trek* was to be convoyed by 5,000 of the best fighting men of the Transvaal. It was to be carefully organized. Doctors and ministers were to march with the column, and as soon as the country was settled schools were to be opened and newspapers published. The burghers were to proclaim a "republic of the north" and develop a genuine Afrikander nationality. One of their leaders proclaimed that "the Lord of heaven who governs everything can alone prevent the *trek* being made, and no man." The Boers, however, overlooked the possibility that the Almighty might employ a man as his agent. Sir Henry Loch sent up troops to Bechuanaland to resist any attempt to cross the frontier. Colonel Gould-Adams and Dr. Jameson, with the Chartered Company's police and a detachment of regulars, headed off the only two parties of Boers who attempted to make the *trek*.

A SEAPORT GRANTED THE BOERS.

The article then deals at length with the Swaziland negotiations and summarizes, very conveniently for reference, the conditions under which Sir Hercules Robinson was willing to allow the Transvaal access to the sea. President Krüger has always tried to make his way to the sea, and has always been headed off by the British Government. Either through Swaziland or through Tongaland he hoped to go and look at the sea, to use his own phrase. When Sir Hercules Robinson was high commissioner a proposal was made which, if it had been accepted, would have enabled the Boers to realize their aspirations:

"Sir Francis de Winton was sent on a special commission to report on the affairs of Swaziland, and he suggested that it would be possible to grant the republic the right to acquire, in full sovereignty, a piece of land ten miles in radius on the shores of Kosi Bay, where they might make a port, and at the same time to acquire by treaty from the chiefs the right to build a railroad which would connect this port with the other territory of the republic. This proposal may fairly be regarded as a very generous attempt to enable the republic to attain full commercial freedom. The only conditions to be attached to it were that the republic should admit South African produce free of duty and join the South African Customs Union; that the republic should not, without the approval of her majesty's government, part with the harbor of Kosi Bay or enter into any treaty regarding it; and that if any dispute arose with a foreign power regarding the harbor, the diplomatic negotiations should be carried on by her majesty's government."

These conditions were incorporated in a convention by Sir Henry Loch. He gave the republic the right to hold a piece of land down to the coast in full sovereignty, so that the actual territory of the republic would touch the sea and bring them into connection both with Kosi Bay and the Pongola River.

The convention was signed and ratified, with the condition that it should lapse if in three years the republic had not taken advantage of its provision. The three years passed and nothing was done. The convention was then prolonged for another year, but the port was never made, the railroad was never built, and the convention was allowed to lapse.

"A CRIME AND A BLUNDER."

Down to 1895 the reviewer maintains that, despite the enmity and dissatisfaction of the Boers, the policy of firm and steady pressure had achieved very good results. The quiet persistence of the imperial government had not been in vain. If the hope of realization was frustrated, it was due in the first place to the Hollanders, who taught the Boers to look for help to foreign powers, and in the next place to the raid. Upon the latter the reviewer says:

"We know that in regard to that disastrous event the English Government was guiltless; but who can ever expect a single Boer to believe this? The connection of the company and the crown was too close; the unfortunate transference of Bechuanaland to the company, which alone made the raid possible, was too recent. The authority of the crown, which the Boers were perhaps beginning to regard as a symbol of law, was now made apparently the accomplice of lawlessness. We do not wish now to enter on a discussion about the raid; no one denies that it was both a crime and a blunder. One thing, however, we must say, and that is that, looking

back on the history of the Chartered Company, we have no right to be surprised, either at the lawlessness of the attempt or at its rashness."

THE BRITISH-BOER NEGOTIATIONS OF AUGUST, 1899.

THE Hon. Auberon Herbert, under the title "A Tragedy of Errors," writes in the February *Contemporary* on the course of British diplomacy in South Africa in the summer of last year. He asks: "Was there ever such a pathetic story, such a tragedy of errors, such a chronicle of difficulties and antagonisms needlessly created, such failure in the methods of dealing with them?" Mr. Herbert thinks that the fatal blunder which wrecked everything was Sir Alfred Milner's forwarding two dispatches of Mr. Conyngham Greene's as to his conversations with Mr. Smuts, as if they were equally authentic. This, however, was by no means the only mistake. Mr. Herbert says:

"At this critical moment, when literally the great issues of peace and war were trembling in the balance, he presses, through Mr. Greene, for an immediate answer to the British dispatch. It is almost incredible, but he seems to have pressed for a reply by Saturday to a dispatch that, as I gather, was only presented on the Wednesday. And for what intelligible reason? What did a few days matter at this supreme hour of the crisis? At the same moment it is evident that he has an attack of the war fidgets and becomes nervously afraid lest our government should be too conciliatory and pacific. In the temper of 'the lost man' he goads Mr. Chamberlain into action, telegraphing that 'British South Africa is prepared for extreme measures;' that he fears 'a strong reaction against the policy' of the government; that he preaches 'confidence and patience, but,' etc. One can only stand half in pity and half in horror before such a complete loss of balance, such a prostration of his own reason and self-control in the presence of the passions rising round him. But so it was. The brain seems to have been shaken; the conscience to have been silenced; while the hand that should have saved us from the precipice was the one to help to send us to our fate.

"But this is the last criticism that I shall pass on Sir A. Milner. I have no pleasure in heaping reproaches on him. He has one merit. He has not been as the politicians. He has acted plainly and straightforwardly and in the open daylight. He has worn no mask, used no smooth and untruthful phrases, been guilty of no affectations. He has been on the side of war as frankly as any old Tory squire or any boy of seventeen in our public schools. It is not a good or lovely thing to have stirred up strife and to have roughly stamped upon the first beginnings of reconciliation, but it is better than to talk lies as most of us do in politics. For one action at a later stage Sir A. Milner deserves our thanks. He kept back a very curt and ill tempered dispatch of Mr. Chamberlain to President Steyn, who was making a last effort for conciliation. I am much afraid, from the peace point of view, it was nearly the one solitary act of grace on his part, but, such as it was, it shall certainly be imputed to him by those of us who are lovers of peace for righteousness."

MILNER'S MISTAKE.

Summing up this terrible story of pride and suspicion, Mr. Herbert says:

"Mr. Greene sends two telegrams, one formal, one informal, concerning the conditions of peace at which he has arrived. Sir A. Milner—though himself in full possession of the facts—fails to inform Mr. Chamberlain of the different value of the two telegrams, and Mr. Chamberlain makes demands outside the formal agreement. These demands give the negotiations a wrong twist. We on our side ask for more than was in the charter of agreement and are refused; and on their side the Transvaal Government perversely give something less. Most unfortunately Mr. Greene's hands are tied; he is not allowed to be officially aware of the reply of the Transvaal Government or to correct mistakes made. Thus the misunderstanding widens. We receive the note of the Transvaal concessions and reply to it, meaning to accept, but unfortunately we do it in a clumsy manner, and so fail to reassure the Transvaal Government, that had grown suspicious (owing to new conditions being raised outside Mr. Greene's agreement) about our intentions to fulfill our side of the settlement. In a huff the Transvaal Government withdraws the concessions offered, but puts right one of the two of the defects in its concessions and desires to reopen negotiations. A great opportunity for large and wise statesmanship comes to Mr. Chamberlain, but he disastrously rejects it. He gives way to bad temper and rudeness, and once more we enter upon what Mr. Greene has well called 'an interminable interchange of recriminating correspondence,' which could have but one end."

"LET US BOTH CRY HALT!"

Leaving the past, he then comes to consider what ought to be done now:

"I answer, let both nations make confession of their huge folly. We have both made under bad guidance complete fools of ourselves. We

have both of us—we the British in the higher degree—been stupid, proud, masterful, quarrelsome like children, suspicious, petty and perverse in our methods of bargaining, and filled with a dangerous contempt for each other. We have both believed in the final resort to force, and we have both believed—in our conceit—that the path of easy victory lay open before us. We have both been sharply awoken from our careless dreams by the sufferings which have fallen alike to the share of both of us. We have both passed through the fires of our own kindling; we have both reaped what we have sown; and now let us both take to heart and profit by the lesson we have learned. Let us put from us the vainglorious talking in which we have both of us indulged. Let us put from us the passion and delirium of a fatal moment, pull ourselves together, and act with the sober sense and self-discipline that is, as we believe, the heritage of both races. Enough blood, and far more than enough, has stained hill and veldt. Let us both cry halt to our soldiers. Let the most sane-minded and level-headed man that we have in the country be sent out. Let an armistice be arranged on terms of perfect equality. Whatever may have happened before these words are printed, whether we have gained a military success or not, neither side should claim victory, neither side should be asked to confess defeat or to undergo any humiliation. Each side should bear its own losses, whatever they may be. We should treat all this hideous drama of the last three months as a dream gone by and forgotten, as a thing that has now become simply non-existent. We should wipe it clean off the slate, leaving it to be the mere property of the historian. We should go straight back to the position of August, and take up the negotiations exactly at the point where they left the hands of Mr. Smuts and Mr. Conyngham Greene, and go steadily and patiently through the work as if it had never been interrupted."

ENGLAND'S JUSTIFICATION IN SOUTH AFRICA.

IN concluding a paper in the *North American Review* for February on the record of the Dutch in South Africa, their relations with the native tribes, and their deep-seated antipathy to the English, Mr. Henry Cust says:

"It seems already amazing, and will seem yet more wonderful hereafter, that, in a small community, a large majority of Anglo-Saxon blood could bear for so long a period so tyrannous a government, so corrupt an administration, so intolerable a condition of life. To some, perhaps, it will seem still stranger that the proud empire, professing to be paramount, could endure a humiliation so protracted and profound.

"In the case of the present war the side of sentiment may be omitted wholly, save on the narrowest personal footing. The Boers, it is true, wish to remain independent; the English wish to readjust the social and political conditions in life in South Africa. It cannot be denied that, by both the original Sand River conventions of 1852 and 1854, England *granted* autonomy to the two Boer states. It cannot be denied that by the acceptance of that grant, *as a grant*, the Boers admitted the paramountcy or suzerainty (the word matters little) of England. It cannot be denied, in the case of the Transvaal, that by the further grant of 1881, modified by the concessions of 1884, which were *appealed for* by the Boer Government, the principle of British paramountcy was again admitted, and that an absolute equality of political and other rights was solemnly promised, not only to the British, but to all immigrating foreigners.

ENGLAND STANDS FOR EQUALITY OF RIGHTS.

"On the other hand, by ignoring utterly and ostentatiously the engagements on which their national existence has depended; by refusing the least of political or even municipal rights to that majority of the inhabitants who paid nine-tenths of the income of the country; by using vast sums of the money so obtained to enlist the enemies of England and to equip themselves with an arsenal of arms against the power which created and maintained them; and, lastly, by declaring war against her—by these things the Boers have made South Africa what it is to-day. A thousand voices tell us that it is the land-greed, the gold-greed, the empire-greed of England that have made the war. England, they scream, is the conquering tyrant of free nations. Yet it is a French-born government, loyal to England, that sends troops to the front from Canada, and it is a Dutch government, loyal to England, that is in power at the Cape to-day. Formulas grow meaningless by repetition, but what truth they carry is unchanged. When England claims 'equal rights for all white men south of the Zambesi,' she says, what generations in practice have proved true, that in Cape Colony, and Natal, and Rhodesia the Boer stands on exactly the same footing with the English-born; and more, that in no English colony of the world has the proudest, richest Englishman one lonely political or commercial advantage over the humblest and poorest foreign immigrant.

"It is to extend this equal freedom that we are fighting now, and by the world this fight will never be regretted."

RUSSIAN AND GERMAN OPINIONS OF ENGLAND'S COURSE.

THE *Vestnik Evropi* for December points out the great contradictions between the Hague conference, with its solemn declarations in the spirit of peace and humanity, and the slaughter in South Africa undertaken by the government of the most cultured and civilized power in the world. While England was defending at The Hague the ideas of peace (declaring at the same time against alleviating the horrors of war), Mr. Chamberlain was gradually preparing to strike a final blow at the Transvaal according to the programme of Mr. Cecil Rhodes.

The *Vestnik Evropi* goes on to explain the aim of Sir Alfred Milner's original demands, which were made in order to get a majority in the Volksraad, to elect as president an Englishman, and to legally transfer the government of the Transvaal to the English. In vain did the Transvaal protest that nowhere in the world have foreigners any share in the legislature and the government without first being naturalized, and that miners and others without fixed abode and means of subsistence could certainly not aspire to the franchise.

The diplomatic campaign of Mr. Chamberlain produced an extremely painful impression; its harsh and provocative tone, its insincere tricks and sophisms gradually revealing a perspective of open violence. Then, to the astonishment of every one, the weak and insignificant Boer republic not only was not frightened by the British threats, but with great courage went to meet the danger, declaring war before England had all her preparations made. The ultimatum of October 9 seemed an act of folly, but the consequences have quite justified that heroic step.

Humiliating defeat was the result of boasting. To divide the skin of a bear before he is killed is always impracticable; but to declare to the enemy one's determination to destroy him, when not only he is not yet conquered, but, on the contrary, he himself is victorious, was only the result of increasing his resistance and artificially giving to the war a fiercer character, thus closing the way against any compromise.

Germany.

A German lady writing in the *National Review* on the "Present Feeling in Germany Toward England" tells pretty frankly what England's German cousins think of her.

"The German opinion of England is not, at present, flattering. 'Is it possible,' I asked myself when the war broke out and I heard the conduct of the English discussed wherever I went—'is it possible that they should be so bad?' For I found a certain difficulty in believing that of all European nations England is the most corrupt, treacherous, and base; that she cares for nothing but her own advantage; that she is hypocritical past belief; that she is brutal beyond the average brutality of barbarians; that she is covetous and dishonorable in all her dealings; and that he is a fool who puts his trust in her word.

"Many people in Germany are of opinion that England is in decadence, that she is too rich and is paying the usual penalty for a surfeit of the good things of life. She has, they say, grown fat, sleepy, secure, and careless, big in words and small in deeds, and that her tendency even now to call actions that have only just escaped being defeats splendid victories is neither the spirit in which great victories are won nor the spirit that inspired her in past years, when the envy with which other nations regarded her was mixed with a very genuinue admiration.

"When the war against the Boers began there was a very general feeling of indignation in Germany against England, and it will need the entire skill of English statesmen to efface the extraordinarily unfavorable impression that England's foreign policy has since made. This will be the more difficult owing to the prevailing conviction —whether just or not it is hardly possible as yet to tell—that England's policy has taken its present direction chiefly on account of the influence of certain financial circles and mine owners, and that Transvaal gold has exercised the same fatal fascination on English statesmen that the Rheingold did on the heroes of the German legend. This conviction has seemed justified by the discovery that England has plunged totally unprepared into the present war; but in her eagerness to secure the golden eggs she has placed the life of the goose that lays them in jeopardy, although it is evident that her financial and intellectual preponderance in the Transvaal is so great that a few years of waiting would have obtained for her all she wanted without the necessity of firing a shot."

THE POLITICAL HORIZON.

MR. HENRY LOOMIS NELSON begins in the March *Atlantic Monthly* a series of essays under the title "The Political Horizon," the initial article being occupied with the development of our socialism. Mr. Nelson takes the ground that "what some people call Bryanism and what others call socialism is naturally the result of the party strifes, mingled with personal greed, of the last thirty years." Mr. Nelson briefly indicates the leading events in the political history of this period of thirty years. The

various factions of discontent did not begin to draw together until after 1886. First came the United Labor party and then the Populist party, which was stronger than any of its predecessors. Finally, in the Fifty-third Congress, the angry Democrats from the South and West reached the climax of indignation. They saw the corrupting work of the sugar trust in the sugar schedule, they had seen Wall Street in one form striking silver from the coinage of the country, and now in another form they fancied they saw it once more successful in preventing a reduction of tariff taxes.

THE MASSING OF THE DISCONTENTED.

"Now more than ever 'Wall Street,' capital, property, were massed in a single body, at which the disappointed and the discontented aimed their blow. The consolidation of the factions had been going on, and both the old parties were losing. Comparing 1892 with 1888, the regular Democratic vote increased only 18,635, the Republican vote fell off 264,108, while the Greenback, Prohibition, and Labor vote increased from 400,820 to 1,326,325. The socialistic party was growing with great rapidity. Its argument was that it was quite as much the duty of the Government to enrich the farmers as to enrich the manufacturers, and arrayed with those who insisted that any grant of public money to a private enterprise was a form of socialism especially obnoxious because it includes favoritism were those who insisted on extending socialism to all the interests of the community."

THE NEW DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

By 1896 these had gained possession of the Democratic party and had united with it most of the irregular parties. The old Democratic leaders went out of politics.

"The result of the thirty years' war is that men like Cleveland, Carlisle, Olney, Fairchild, Wilson, and hundreds of thousands of other Democrats are out of public life and have no party. But there still remain within the party men like Gorman, Murphy, Smith, and the Tammany leaders, who were the chief instruments of the party's betrayal in 1894. The results of the rage and rebellion are 6,500,000 votes for Mr. Bryan, and a large body of voters who demand free coinage of silver, government loans on farm produce, government currency to the amount of $50 *per capita*, government ownership of railroads, telegraphs, telephones, gas works, and electric plants, and finally the abolition of the executive and the Senate, and the substitution of an executive board chosen by the House of Representatives from its own members. We have won a great victory against what we call the 'forces of disorder,' but we have done very little to repair the mistakes of thirty years. The vote for Mr. Bryan was not large enough to elect its candidate in 1896, but it exceeded by nearly 1,000,000 the vote of any previous Democratic candidate and by nearly 1,100,000 that of any Republican candidate except the vote cast for Mr. McKinley. It is large enough to threaten and injure the prosperity of the country in any time of depression, yet those who taught this great host of voters that the Treasury is a reservoir for the increase of private gain, and therefore for the relief of private need, make no concession, unless a few feeble reciprocity bills, which also consult the interests of favored classes, can be called concessions, while they even threaten an increase of taxation for the profit of the shipping interests."

A CHOICE OF EVILS FOR THE FUTURE.

"Meantime the welfare of the country depends upon a body of voters who are merely choosing between what they regard as evils. When will the weight of evil shift? In twenty years the federal expenditures have increased nearly fourfold, from $167,000,000 to $605,000,000, from $5.46 to $7.97 *per capita*. When will this burden accentuate too sharply a pinching financial depression brought on perhaps by the inability of the banks to respond to the demand upon them for currency? It may be that the extravagant socialism led by Bryan will never carry a Presidential election. But so long as it exists in anywhere near its present importance, it can be counted on to increase distrust, to prolong panics, and to make their misery more acute."

RADICALISM—EAST AND WEST.

IN the *Arena* for February Mr. Albert Watkins institutes a comparison between the recent legislation of such States as Illinois and New York and that of the supposedly "radical" commonwealths of Kansas and Nebraska, for the purpose of showing that the enactments of recent legislatures in the former States have been "far more radical, socialistic, and paternalistic—in character and tendency, in kind and in quantity"—than those of the contemporary legislatures in the Missouri plains region, although the latter were controlled during the greater part of the past ten years by the Populist party.

THE RIGHTS OF CAPITAL.

Mr. Watkins makes his allegation especially emphatic regarding what is known as anti-corporation and anti-capitalistic legislation, asserting

that the present laws of Kansas and Nebraska, which include the enactments of successive "radical" legislatures, are not as far-reaching as similar laws to be found on the statute-books of Eastern States.

"The laws of Kansas and Nebraska relating to rates of interest and the collection of debts are conservative and safe, and in this regard have not been substantially changed since their original passage in the days of the old conservative political parties. This fact reflects the sound business sense and self-control, in troublous and trying times, of the people of these Western States. Reason taught them that as they must depend for some time to come upon loans of Eastern capital for the development of their interests, the passage of laws unjust to or considered unsafe by the holders of this capital would be equivalent to killing the goose that laid their golden egg; and business interests were never lost sight of by the controlling elements in these States.

"The laws passed by the Legislature of New York in 1897 are a long stride along the road of radicalism and paternalism, both in regard to property rights and to a minute surveillance over the acts and affairs of the people—far more radical than those of the revolutionary States of Kansas and Nebraska enacted in the same year. The same allegation may be made as to the State of Illinois, in comparison with the States of Kansas and Nebraska; though Illinois legislation has been less radical and paternal than that of New York. The recently enacted inheritance-tax laws of New York and Illinois are a far greater stride along the road to State socialism than any laws that have been passed in the Western States named. In short, more laws interfering with and checking free industrial competition, or in derogation of the interests, if not of the rights, of capital and capitalists, or for the special benefit of distinct classes, or paternally seeking minutely to direct and control the affairs of individuals (such measures as are commonly known as paternalistic or socialistic), were passed at a single session of the New York Legislature of 1897 than have been passed by the legislatures of all the States of the Western plains since so-called radical politics has been dominant in them."

WHY THE WEST IS NATURALLY CONSERVATIVE.

The West, as Mr. Watkins shows, has had not a little provocation to political radicalism. While the Nebraska farmer has received 9 cents a bushel for his corn, it has taken 12 cents a bushel to carry it to the Chicago market, notwithstanding all the marvelous improvements in freight transportation. The wonder is that the people of the West have remained, on the whole, conservative in their legislation. The reason for this conservatism Mr. Watkins finds in the fact that the Western people are so largely owners and tillers of the soil. From the census returns he makes the following deductions:

"Of the farming population of New York only 491,283 own the farms they till, while 816,732 are mere tenants or renters. In Nebraska 124,529 farmers own their farms and 82,291 are tenants. In Illinois 386,374 farmers own their farms and 391,641 are tenants. In Kansas 181,328 own their farms and 116,030 are tenants. The relative real interest that farmers in the States named who own their farms have in them also strongly favors the Western States. The amount of mortgage debt to a taxable acre in New York is $7.74; in Nebraska, $3.52; in Illinois, $4.77; in Kansas, $3.97. The real-estate mortgage debt *per capita* is for New York $268; Nebraska, $126; Illinois, $100; Kansas, $170. The percentage of real-estate mortgages in force January 1, 1890, of the true value of all taxed real estate, was in New York 10.62; in Nebraska, 20.03; in Illinois, 12.36; in Kansas, 26.83. The amount of incumbrance on the value of farms occupied by owners is in New York 43.63 per cent.; in Nebraska, 32.39 per cent.; in Illinois, 34.63 per cent.; in Kansas, 35.99 per cent. Of all the farmers, the percentage who own the farms they till is in Nebraska 60.21 and in New York 37.56. The percentage of families of New York who own their homes is 29.28; of Nebraska, 43.91; of Illinois, 43.10; of Kansas, 50.15. While these figures of the census of 1890 are not now absolutely correct, they make a fair relative showing of the facts in question."

ANTIDOTES FOR THE LYNCHING EVIL.

"A SOUTHERN Lawyer" concludes a sensible and temperate discussion of lynch law in the *Sewanee Review* for January with the following suggestions toward reform:

"1. There should be created a more efficient system of education.

"2. *Preventive* agencies should be substituted for *repressive* ones. A rural police is especially desirable.

"3. Judges to be appointed for life and given a proper compensation.

"4. The abolition of capital punishment in all cases save those where the prisoner is accused of an assault upon a woman.

"5. The recasting of criminal procedure so as to make it less technical. At the same time juris-

diction ought to be conferred upon county courts to try privately persons accused of assaults upon females. Judges of such courts should be authorized to empanel a jury immediately, and if found guilty the accused should be executed at once and privately. There should be no appeals in such cases.

"6. Sheriffs who permit a prisoner to be rescued by a mob for the purpose of lynching him should be removed from office at once, and any person who publicly advocates lynching should be ineligible to any position under the State or federal Government.

"7. There should be organized in every State where assaults, lynchings, murders, and other felonies are common an association composed of representative and intelligent citizens, whose duty should be the collection and publication of the circumstances of such crimes. By giving the widest circulation possible to such occurrences a healthier public opinion could be quickly created."

THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDING AT THE PARIS FAIR.

IN the *Magazine of Art* for February Mr. Charles de Kay describes the pavilion erected by the United States Government at the Paris exhibition.

This structure is one of a line of government buildings for the various nations taking part in the fair. These buildings "rise in a line fronting the Seine over against the Champs Élysées, thus forming, as it were, a front on the river bank, behind which the great mass of the buildings belonging to the fair have been placed so as to cover the Champs de Mars and completely surround the Invalides." The problem before the architects of the United States building was to utilize their narrow frontage to the best advantage.

A DISTINCTIVE STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE.

As to the principal features decided on by the architects, this writer says:

"It is to be observed from the picture that the problem was to indicate in some way that this particular building belonged to the United States, and not to Italy or Turkey next door. This was not accomplished by using as an architectural theme the log hut of the native wilds. Certain other factors guided the selection. In the first place, the architects considered the fact that the invention of the passenger lift has profoundly modified the architecture of the great cities of the Union, and it was a natural suggestion that this building should be lofty. Moreover, the World's Fair of 1893 at Chicago had set a fashion for the classical which in itself would not be out of place in a city like Paris, still more or less dominated by buildings belonging to the Napoleonic era. The result of these various forces is a building which remotely suggests on the one hand the Capitol at Washington and on the other hand the Invalides in Paris, at least so far as its dome is concerned.

"Opinions may differ as to the wisdom of selecting a more or less classical style of architecture, but to the writer it seems that in choosing this style certain distinct objects of no little importance have been gained.

"The building will detach itself with very great distinctness from its neighbors. It is to be made of staff and liberally embellished. Placed among buildings of very different styles of architecture, because in general each nation will be represented by a building of a very typical sort, it will not only vary greatly from almost all the other buildings in the same diplomatic row, but present a very strong contrast to the style of architecture adopted by the French for their fair at the close of the century."

THE WATER FRONT.

One of the most interesting points about the American building is its position on the river:

"Another distinctive feature of this building, whereby it relieves itself advantageously from the fronts of the other buildings on the same quay, is the portico, which strides across the quay itself to the edge of the terrace overlooking the Seine, affording at the same time protection from the elements to those who arrive by way of the river and cross the street to the building itself. Here, in front of the portico, is a landing-place conventionally fashioned after a galley. This strikes one as perhaps the most questionable feature in the entire building. Certainly it does not belong to a building of this type; still, it is perhaps allowable as a whim. To this landing-place certain American steam launches will ply on the Seine and make connections with an American railroad, which, like the boats themselves, are exhibits of American manufactures—a railroad that terminates in the Bois de Vincennes at a higher point on the river and on the other side of Paris.

"We see, therefore, that the whole matter has been maturely considered. American visitors to Paris can start from their hotel, take an American railroad to the Bois de Vincennes, examine the section of the great fair which is placed in that locality, take an American launch down the Seine, and land in the heart of the fair at the building erected by their Government for its own purposes."

EMBELLISHMENTS.

In general arrangement the building seems not unlike the buildings erected by the various State governments at the World's Fair of 1893. The ground floor will be entirely given up to American visitors without regard to official rank. On the upper floors are rooms for the American commissioner and his staff and for commissioners from the different States of the Union.

The equestrian statue occupying the space between the double columns of the portico is a monument of Washington by Mr. Daniel C. French. On the top of the portico the figure of Victory in the chariot and the winged female figures with trumpets leading the horses are the work of Frederick MacMonnies. Other sculptures on the building were executed by Messrs. Flanagan and McNeil.

The design of the building is the joint work of Mr. Charles A. Coolidge, of Chicago, and M. Morin Gousiaux, of Paris. The decoration of the interior has been committed to Mr. F. D. Millet.



THE UNITED STATES PAVILION AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

ELECTRICITY AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

THE great distinguishing feature of the world's fair in 1900 will be the achievements of electricity. It is the intention of the management that the exhibition shall be in this field a record and a prophecy.

Whatever was done by the power of steam in the exhibition of 1889 will be done in that of 1900 by electricity. The electricity will be made by steam, but it will be the electricity, not the steam, that will drive the thousands of busy whirring machines in the great show. The seat of this power is the electrical palace at the lower end of the Champ de Mars. It closes the long avenue between the exhibition buildings. The "palace," in fact, is a workshop concealed by an immense ornamental screen of glass and iron. Its façade, to one looking down the avenue between the temples of industry and science, seems to be an enormous fan of lace and ivory spread out against the sky. But within this decorative veil ornament gives way to the practical and useful. The aggregate force of the engines that drive the dynamos is 40,000 horse power. M. Michel Corday, who writes in the *Revue de Paris* on the function of electricity in the Paris show, pauses for a moment to tabulate the steam power of the five Paris exhibitions. The progressive increment is certainly very striking:

	Horse Power.
1855	350
1867	525
1878	2,500
1889	6,500
1900	40,000

The furnaces and boilers that supply the immense steam power of the present exhibition are in a covered court just outside the electrical palace. The steam, conducted thence to the ground floor of the palace, sets in motion the motors and dynamos. In front of the palace, concealed by the Château d'Eau, is the room where the electrical currents are controlled and directed. Here are the keyboards and switches for turning the

currents to the various places where they are to be employed.

HOW THE FAIR WILL BE LIGHTED.

Naturally the attention of those who visit or approach the exhibition at night will be first arrested by the illuminations. These will not differ from similar illuminations in America except in their volume. The young man who sits at the switchboard below the Château d'Eau will put his finger on a key, and immediately a flood of light thrown on the Porte de la Concorde by 3,100 incandescent lamps and 36 arc lamps calls up a burst of applause from the crowds that throng the Quai d'Orsai and the bridges of the Seine. Another touch of his finger, and the quays and bridges themselves are illuminated. Then the great lines of the palace of the Trocadéro are traced in fire on the sky; now the gardens and exhibition buildings gleam in moonlight—artificial moonlight; and at last the foaming plumes spouted from the Château d'Eau take the tints of the rainbow. But a description of this sort of display is really less striking now than a bare statement of the number of lamps to be used in producing the effects. Here are the numbers for the principal places of interest:

Porte Monumentale, 36 arc and 3,100 incandescent lamps; Jardin des Champs Élysées, 174 arc lamps; Pont Alexandre, 500 incandescent lamps; Palais de l'Électricité, 12 arc and 5,000 incandescent lamps; Château d'Eau, 1,100 incandescent lamps; Salle de Fêtes, 4,500 incandescent lamps; Esplanade des Invalides, 60 arc lamps; Palais des Invalides, 2,136 incandescent lamps.

Only a rhapsodist like M. Corday can awaken an adequate notion of the wonders that may be accomplished when a steam force of 40,000 horse power is converted into electricity. M. Corday is especially impressed by the anticipation of seeing mechanical productions and the processes of making them brought close together so as to be in one view, as it were—an attainment that would not be practicable for most productions but for the wonderful adaptability of electricity to all mechanical appliances.

ELECTRICITY AT CHICAGO IN 1893.

While M. Corday's retrospect is interesting, it wholly disregards the World's Fair of 1893 at Chicago, where the electrical display was far in advance of anything previously attempted. The Paris exhibition of 1889 was made insignificant by comparison. Thus the plant for incandescent lights at Chicago was made up of 12 dynamos, each with a capacity of 10,000 lamps; the arc lights numbered 6,000, each with an illuminating power of 2,000 candles.

THE LONGEST TUNNEL IN THE WORLD.

AXEL LARSEN in the January *Cassier's* describes the making of the Simplon tunnel. The new tunnel is, he says, to measure 19,731 meters (about 12 miles) in length when completed. It will thus, he adds, become the longest in the world. The engineer, Mr. Brandt, of St. Gotthard tunnel fame, contracted to do the Simplon tunnel at a lower cost than the earlier one just mentioned and in half the time. It will avoid the steep gradients of the St. Gotthard tunnel, its highest point above sea-level being only 705 meters, as against 1,155. The ascending gradient on the north side will be only 0.02 and the descending gradient on the south side only 0.07.

THE PARALLEL BURROWS.

But this deeper level, which was in places 2,140 meters below the top of the mountain, was supposed to involve a temperature of about 105° F.; for under Gotthard the heat rose to 88°, and men and beasts were overpowered. Mr. Brandt solved the problem in this way:

"The duplex system, which was to be used here for the first time, was, indeed, the only means by which the Simplon could ever be successfully tunneled, for the principal object of the second tunnel is to carry fresh air into the main passage during construction. The second tunnel serves as a huge air pipe, which, as will be seen presently, draws a permanent and ample supply of fresh air into the workings. The second tunnel, which is to run parallel with the main tunnel at a distance of about 55 feet, is to be connected with the latter by winzes or cross-cuts 650 feet apart."

By an air shaft to the surface of the mountain on the first tunnel, by lighting a fire at its base, and by closing access of air to the first tunnel except through the cross-cut, a current of air is drawn through the second tunnel, the cross-cut, and the first tunnel. This process is repeated at several stages in the progress of the excavation.

WEIRD EXPLOSIONS.

The boring machines are worked by hydraulic pressure generated by three steam engines which are to be later replaced by turbines. The water is brought from the Rhone by pipes 63 inches in diameter and nearly 2 miles in length.

A series of ten holes, each 6 feet deep and 4 inches across, is bored in from three to five hours and charged with about 10 kilograms of blasting gelatine. Here is a strange fact about the explosion:

"No sound of the explosions is heard 1,000 yards away from the working point, and yet the

resulting air pressure at that distance is such as to cause pain in the ears."

A GIGANTIC SQUIRT.

The arsenal of modern industry has in this undertaking been enriched by an extraordinary engine:

"The somewhat tedious work of clearing away the *débris* will shortly be done in the Simplon tunnel with a minimum loss of time. To accomplish this the indefatigable Mr. Brandt has added another formidable weapon to his armory of demolition—viz., a gigantic air gun, 300 feet long and with a caliber of 6½ inches. This gun is charged with compressed air at a pressure of 100 atmospheres and fires a projectile of 900 gallons of water. Once the cannon has been placed in position the powder fuses will be abandoned and the shot-firing will be done by electricity. In this manner it will be possible to fire the explosive in the bore-holes and the gun simultaneously. Thus at the same moment that the solid rock is splintered into a heap of fragments by the blasting charges, a huge volume of water is hurled against the *débris*, which is instantaneously washed away from the working face and left against the wall some 50 yards further down the tunnel."

The simple expedient of cleaning a window by dashing a pail of water against it is thus developed into a cannonade of flood against the shattered alp.

APPLIED GEOLOGY.

The water after being so used is allowed to run free down the tunnel, which thus becomes the bed of a subterranean stream, sometimes knee-deep. A gentler application of the same fluid is in train:

"It is intended to cool the air in the tunnel by means of fresh mountain water, which will be conveyed into the tunnel through pipes and discharged in the working places in a fine spray. In this manner it is expected to keep the temperature below 75° F."

The entire work is to cost $14,000,000 and is to be completed by May 13, 1904. Up to September 30 last 5,970 feet had been tunneled on the north side and 3,683 feet on the south side; total, 9,653 feet. This sketch forms an interesting chapter in what may be termed applied geology. Lightning, wind, and water—the prime agents of geologic change in the Alps—are here used by man for his own purposes.

Since the publication of the article in *Cassier's* news has come of the untimely death of Mr. Brandt while in charge of the work. His methods, it is said, will be adhered to, and it is believed that the tunnel will be completed within contract time.

DISASTER FOR THE WELLMAN EXPEDITION.

IN the March *McClure's* Mr. Walter Wellman continues his account of sledging toward the pole. Mr. Wellman tells of an extraordinary disaster which overtook his party on March 22, 1899. While sledging over the ice at this time the party had succeeded in covering 140 of the 700 miles which lay between its winter quarters and the pole itself. On March 22, while the party was in camp owing to a storm, the ice suddenly began to rumble sullenly and then crack in various places. The cracks immediately closed, so that one of the dogs, for instance, had his head cut cleanly off. The ice was shaking and breaking and the sea was spouting through the openings. This disaster, which came nearly overwhelming the party, lost it one-third of their dogs, all the dog food and part of the party's food, and, worst of all, the basket of instruments.

IN AN "ICE-QUAKE."

"For a few moments, oddly enough, we did not fully realize our danger. To none of us was an ice pressure a new thing, and familiarity had doubtless bred in us, if not contempt for the ice king, certainly a somewhat superfluous confidence in ourselves. But when, a few moments later, the very pieces of ice on which we stood reared up and assumed angles of from 30° to 45°; when our entire camp started revolving as if it were in a maelstrom; when we saw our tent, sleeping-bags, and cooking-kit threatened with destruction by a rushing mass of sludge and water, we knew that whatever was to be done must be done right quickly. There was no panic. There was not the slightest sign that any one of us was even excited. We cut the harnesses of such dogs as we could get at, that they might save themselves. In the very nick of time three of us sprang out upon the floe which held the tent, tilted though it was with one edge down in the boiling sea and the other up in the air; and after a sharp struggle we succeeded in rescuing the precious sleeping-bags, the cooking-outfit, and the tent itself."

What was most curious of all was that the ill-fated party had pitched its camp directly on the one place which was dangerous. This was about half a mile from an enormous iceberg, as large as a New York office building. The storm had driven the ice field down upon the great berg, and the camp had been right on the line of the cut where the field of ice struck the berg.

THE CAUSE OF THE DISASTER.

"It was all plain enough. The mountainous berg absorbed the ice sheet, and into the channel thus formed—here, as elsewhere, nature will

have no vacuum—the pressure of billions of tons, coming from rear, right, left, had jammed, rolled, revolved, uplifted, down-thrust, crunched, crushed, powdered the fragments of floes in a death struggle for mere place to exist. All along that coast, as far as we could see this bright morning, the one spot—the one little rood out of all these millions of acres—where our camp could have been pitched only to be destroyed was the very spot where it had been pitched. All other spots for miles and miles were just as they had been. Start an ant crawling across a newspaper. Take a pair of shears, shut your eyes, make one random clip, and cut the insect in two. We were the ant creeping across the surface of this great ice sheet, and that is what chance did for us—the one out of millions that saved at least one human life."

Mr. Wellman says that no one now proposes to reach the north pole by any other means than sledging; that the old idea of the open polar sea and navigation to the top of the earth has been abandoned. So the problem of modern pole seekers is simplified to a plan of going as far north as possible with a ship, establishing headquarters upon the land, and making a dash for the pole and back again with dog sledges.

SLEDGING TO THE POLE.

"The season of the year during which one can travel over the ice sheet is limited. The winter months are too dark and the summer months—oddly enough—are too warm. The best season is from about March 1 to the end of May—say 100 days in all. Before March the sun is far below the horizon and the gloom too dense. After May the snow is too soft and sticky and the ice too much broken up. It is true that some traveling might be done in October and early November, after the snow has hardened again, and this suggests the plan of using the 100 days of spring for reaching the pole and the autumn for returning to headquarters. But it must be remembered that after once leaving the land and taking to the sea ice no game can be had; everything the travelers eat and the fuel for melting ice and cooking food must be carried with them. The more they carry the slower they must travel. Two pounds a day is the minimum ration per man of the most approved modern 'condensed' food. This means 200 pounds per man for a journey of 100 days, to say nothing of weight of sledges, instruments, tent, fuel, sleeping-bags, and packing. With the help of dogs this much may be carried, and the period of absence from land may be extended to 125 or even 140 days, though at first the loads will be very heavy. If, however, a party sets out upon a journey of nine months' duration, nearly 600 pounds per man would represent the minimum load simply of food for men alone and excluding all other things, among them the sustenance of the dogs—clearly an impossible burden.

LITERALLY "A DASH TO THE POLE."

"So there is nothing for it but a quick journey out from the land and back again. It makes no difference whether the base used be north Greenland, Franz Josef Land, or a ship that has drifted into the inner polar sea—it is necessarily 'a dash for the pole,' and nothing but a dash. It is, practically, a campaign of 100 or 115 days, beginning in the midst of the arctic winter and ending at the commencing of summer. The man who can get his base established just right, who can so organize his party and so arrange his weights and his motive power as to be able to cover an average of ten miles a day, and who can manage to avert all serious accidents, has the pole within his grasp.

A MILE AN HOUR.

"Ten miles a day, a mile an hour, seems very little. But try it once if you want to know how difficult it is. Our party was as well organized as any party could be. We had the best of everything and not too much of it. Simplicity is the first essential of a successful sledge trip. Yet work as hard as we could we made an average of only six miles a day, about the same as Nansen and Johansen had made. Of course our loads were heaviest these days, for we were carrying four months' supplies. Each of the five of us had a sledge and a team of dogs. Much of the road was very rough. The previous fall, before the ice had frozen solidly, northeast winds, driving down against the land, had smashed the floes into a forest of hummocks and ridges. Between these elevations there were pockets of deep snow. Winding in and out, up and down, over and through these obstacles, we made our painful way by dint of much lifting, shoving, pulling, and an incessant shouting at the poor dogs."

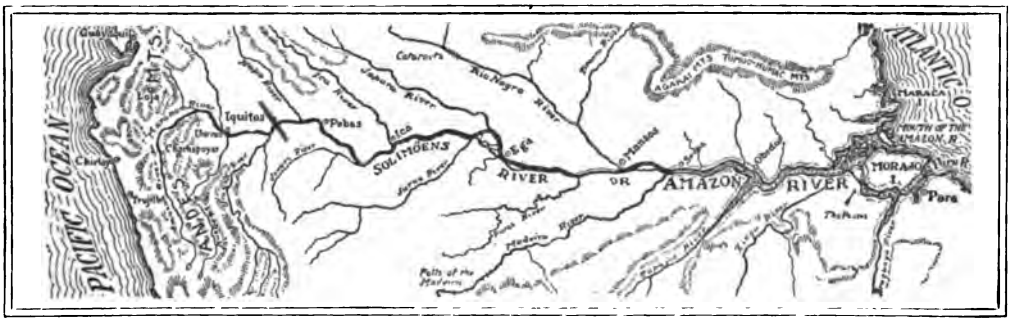
Mr. Wellman says that the arctic traveler's greatest hardship was the indirect effect of the cold. "The camping hour arrives. You have been working hard all day, pulling and tugging, in a temperature ranging from 25° to 45° below zero, and perhaps with a nice cool wind blowing from the north. Outside you are a mass of frost, and inside your skin is wet with perspiration. Be careful in pitching the tent that you do not leave your mittens off more than a few seconds, or you will not only freeze your fingers, but find the mittens frozen so hard you can't get them on again."

ACROSS SOUTH AMERICA IN A GUNBOAT.

IN *Ainslee's Magazine* for February Mr. Edward H. Coleman describes the cruise of 2,300 miles up the Amazon made by the United States gunboat *Wilmington* about one year ago. It seems not a little remarkable that the Washington authorities so readily gave permission to Commander Todd to undertake such an expedition.

"The fact that the trip had never before been taken by a man-of-war, the fact that it meant the threading of a stream of doubtful survey, the fact that the *Wilmington* was constructed for ocean sailing and had never been intended for this species of bobtail paddle-boat work, did not enter into the question."

"The *Wilmington* is a steel gunboat of 1,392 tons displacement. Her speed is thirteen knots, horse power 1,600, and the cost exceeded $280,000. She is a peculiar-looking craft. She has no counterpart in appearance in the American navy, nor, in fact, in any navy. And she is the only man-of-war that ever ascended the Amazon beyond Manaos. Not even a Brazilian gunboat can claim that feat."



MAP SHOWING THE "WILMINGTON'S" COURSE. (IQUITOS WAS THE WESTERNMOST POINT REACHED.)

The cabled consent of the Navy Department reached the *Wilmington* at Para, and from that port the ship had to steam 280 miles, through the Para River and a network of narrow streams known as the Passes, to reach the main channel of the Amazon.

"At the junction with the Passes the river seems more of an elongated lake or arm of the sea. It was fully eight miles in width and presented a muddy surface, which appeared scarcely to move, although in places the presence of floating islands and drifting logs indicated an actual and rather swift current. March and April being the end of the rainy season, the gunboat found the great river at its highest.

"From the Passes to Manaos, which was to be Commander Todd's first stop, the distance is 700 miles. In all this length there are not a half dozen towns containing more than 500 to 700 inhabitants. At intervals can be found smaller settlements, but they are generally temporary, being erected for the convenience of the rubber gatherers.

"The dreary solitude and monotony of the interminable stretch of low banks and the knowledge that back of these shores lay hundreds of miles of unexplored, almost impenetrable forest, swampy, stagnant, fever-breeding, and pestilent, gave the journey up the great river a weird, mysterious tone."

About 500 miles from Para, at the junction of the Tapajos River with the Amazon, the town of Santarem was reached. The original settlement here was made by a colony of Americans in 1866, though all traces of the Yankee settlers have been removed.

On March 24, five days from Para, the *Wilmington* reached the end of the main trunk of the Amazon. Here the Rio Negro joins with the Solimoes to form the Amazon. Ten miles up the Rio Negro lies Manaos, the capital of the great state of Amazonas.

"This coming upon a populous and well-built city after passing through such a wild and desolate region was a revelation to those of the gunboat's crew who had not previously read descriptions of the place. To find a city with over 30,000 inhabitants, electric lights, a million-dollar theater, fine residences, and palatial public buildings in the heart of the South American continent was indeed cause for wonderment.

"During the *Wilmington's* stay of almost two weeks the officers and crew had ample opportunity to learn much of the town, and also to experience a hospitality that was both cordial and sincere. It was not the first visit paid by an American man-of-war. The *Enterprise*, under the command of Rear Admiral (then Commander) Thomas O. Selfridge, ascended to Manaos in 1878."

THE VOYAGE INTO PERU.

"On April 5 the taut little cruiser recommenced her journey, and gaining the Amazon once more turned her bow toward the distant

Andes. She was now threading her fourth river since the departure from the city of Para—the Para, Amazon, Rio Negro, and the Solimoes.

"It was a moment of exultation for the American crew when their ship passed into the Solimoes, for it marked a record in navigation and exploration. For the first time in the history of the world a man-of-war had entered the river. And that man-of-war floated the Stars and Stripes!"

After six days' steaming the *Wilmington* reached the junction of the Rio Maranon and the Rio Javari, which unite to form the Solimoes. The Rio Javari serves as the boundary line between Brazil and Peru for about 500 miles. Near its junction with the Maranon is a small town, Tabatinga, at which is kept a force of Brazilian soldiers to guard the frontier.

The *Wilmington* fired a national salute as she approached this post and sent a boat ashore to exchange the usual courtesies. What followed is thus related by Mr. Coleman:

"The officer in charge of the gunboat's cutter noticed with some surprise that the crowd of spectators previously observed on shore had entirely disappeared.

"There were several Brazilian soldiers at the landing, and one of these ventured to approach the naval officer. The Brazilian seemed greatly disturbed, and from the actions of his companions it was evident they felt unaccountably alarmed.

"'Senhor,' exclaimed the former hastily, 'we are without news, and we beg that you will enlighten us at once.'

"'News of what?' was the American's puzzled reply. 'I am sure I——'

"'Then there is no war?' broke in the soldier.

"'Not in this part of the world.'

"'But you fired?'

"The *Wilmington's* representative stifled his desire to laugh, and gravely explained the gunboat's presence and her well-meant courtesy in expending so much powder.

"'I am delighted,' finally confessed the Brazilian; 'but, senhor,' he added, 'you have depopulated the village. All the natives have fled to the jungle, and I doubt if we can induce them to return until you are gone. Senhor, those guns—they echo yet!'"

On April 13, just twenty-five days after leaving Para, the *Wilmington* reached Iquitos, Peru, within 500 miles of the Pacific. This proved to be the end of the journey, as a shortage of coal made further progress impracticable. Iquitos was found to be an ordinary South American town with a population of about 10,000, consisting of Peruvians of Spanish descent, a laboring class made up of half-breed Spanish and Incas, and some pure-blooded Indians of various tribes.

After a stay of five days at Iquitos the return trip to Para was begun. The ship, aided by the current, made the 2,300 miles in ten days, arriving at Para on April 28, 1899. In the course of the expedition a collection of animals and birds was secured for the National Park at Washington.

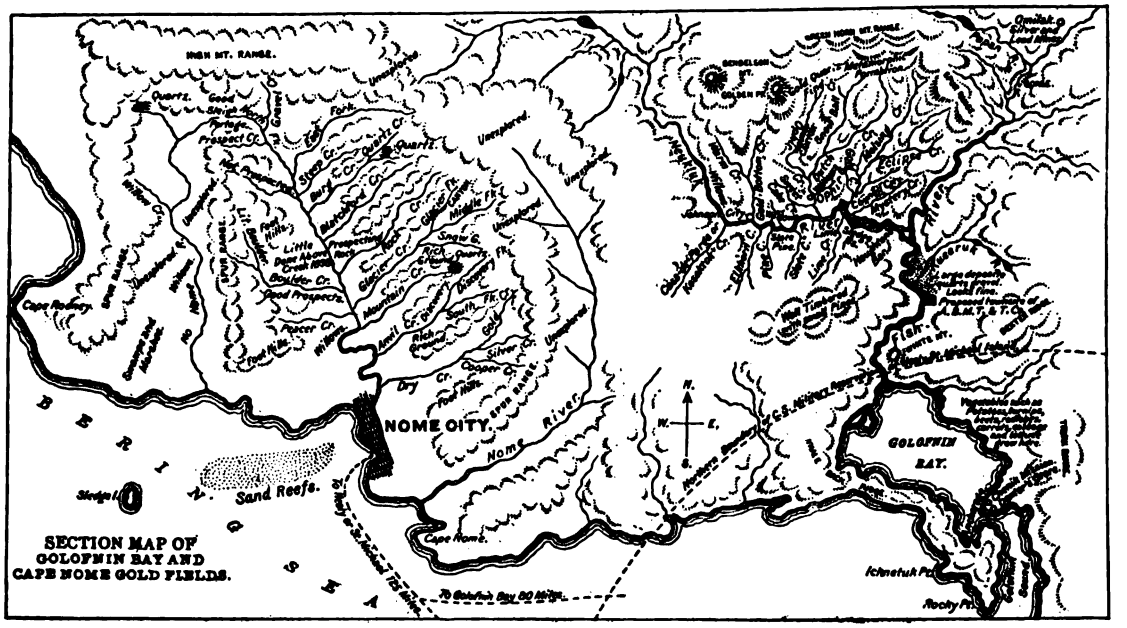
THE CAPE NOME GOLD DISTRICT.

FOR nearly a year past the attention of gold-seekers has been largely diverted from the Dawson City region to Cape Nome. In the January number of the *National Geographic Magazine* Mr. F. C. Schrader, of the United States Geological Survey, who visited Cape Nome in October last, gives a detailed description of the gold diggings there.

The Cape Nome district is situated on the northwest coast of Alaska, on the northeast arm of Bering Sea, at the entrance of Norton Sound. It is the southern promontory of a large peninsula, extending westward toward Siberia between Kotzebue and Norton Sounds, and largely separates Bering Sea from the Arctic Ocean. Westward this peninsula terminates at the one hundred and sixty-eighth meridian in Cape Prince of Wales, the most westward extension of the American continent, which is here separated from Asia by Bering Strait, about 60 miles in width.

The promontory on which the Nome district is situated has long been known on nearly all Alaskan maps by the name of Cape Nome. The district lies about 100 miles northwest of St. Michael and just outside of the Fort St. Michael military reservation. By ocean steamer route it is nearly 2,700 miles northwest of Seattle and about 750 miles from Dutch Harbor, Unalaska. The Cape Nome region as known at present extends from Cape Nome, the apex of the promontory, some 30 miles or more northwestward along the coast and about 20 miles inland to the north. In the middle of this shore line, at the mouth of the Snake River, is situated the city of Nome.

Mr. Schrader states that from Cape Nome for 30 miles or more westward to near Synrock the shore line is comparatively straight and smooth, but lying back of the shore line, between it and the base of the mountains, is the well-known tundra, or rolling, marshy plain. This consists of a strip of treeless, moss-covered marine gravels, forming a coastal shelf, which along the beach is about 30 feet above sea-level. From here it slopes gently upward until at the base of the mountains, some four or five miles from the



SECTION MAP OF GOLOVNIN BAY AND CAPE NOME GOLD FIELDS.

beach, it attains an elevation of 150 or 200 feet. During the summer it is usually wet, soft, and boggy, and is dotted here and there by a few ponds, and is traversed by the Snake, Nome, and Cripple Rivers and smaller streams which carry out the drainage from the mountains.

The geology of the region is thus described:

"The mountains thus far examined are composed of mica-schist and limestone, alternating in layers and beds with each other. They are thin or medium bedded rocks, and strike and trend northeastward and southwestward and dip southeastward at an angle of about 45°. The limestone is bluish-gray and comparatively fine-grained and more or less well metamorphosed, often becoming a crystalline marble. The mica-schist is sometimes slaty, but it also shows considerable metamorphic action and is garnetiferous. Locally the rocks are sometimes folded and traversed by quartz veins and veinlets, of both quartz and calcite, with also some iron and copper pyrites. Pyrites are also disseminated sporadically in the schists. The quartz veins and veinlets traversing the rocks are supposed to be the source of the gold. Far back in the mountains granite is said to occur, but may be represented merely by granitoid dikes, some pebbles of which occur in the beach gravels.

"The tundra is composed of apparently marine gravels, derived from the rocks in the mountains, and is almost exclusively mica-schist and limestone. Toward the mountains the gravels are often coarse, carrying bowlders of considerable size, but along the beach they have been largely reduced to fine gravel and sand by wave action. It is in this reduced material that the beach gold occurs."

A party of Swedes found gold on the creeks and in the gulches of the Nome district in September, 1898. In the gulches along the edge of the mountains coarse gold is found, the largest nuggets amounting to about $350 each. Here the gold occurs on the "bed rock" under the creek gravels, which are six or eight feet in thickness.

TAKING GOLD FROM THE BEACH.

Not until July, 1899, was beach gold discovered at Cape Nome. For the most part the gold lies under two or three feet of gravel and sand, on a bottom layer of clay or argillaceous sand, called "bed rock" by the miners. Thin layers of ruby sand interstratified along with the gravel, near the so-called "bed rock," are also often found to contain gold. Having been reduced by wave action along with the gravel and sand, this beach gold is as fine as bird-shot. Some of it is even finer.

Mr. Schrader states that beach diggings were operated last summer and fall from Cape Nome to near Synrock. Coarse gold is being mined in Anvil, Dexter, Glacier, and Osborne Creeks, and along Penny and Cripple Rivers. The production of the region for the season of 1899 has been estimated at $2,000,000, of which one-half came from the beach.

Mr. Schrader gives the following description of the miners' methods:

"In the gulches the work is carried on by stripping, sluicing, and to some extent by rocking, while on the beach the method of extracting the gold has thus far been almost exclusively by rocking. Here the water used for rocking is generally that of the ocean. In a few cases, however, the sea-water has been raised by steam power and sluices constructed along the beach. In the rocker the gold is caught on blankets and to some extent on copper plates coated with mercury. In many instances, where the supply of copper plate could not equal the demand, the bottom of the rocker was covered by United States silver coin, principally one-dollar pieces, and these coated with the mercury which caught the gold. During the latter part of summer and in the fall it is estimated that an average of 2,000 men were working along the beach, and that they took out an average of about $20 per day per man. In many cases the amount taken out was much greater. The tundra between the beach and the base of the mountains has also been prospected to some extent and has not infrequently yielded from 10 cents to 30 cents per pan. Capital, however, will doubtless be required to handle the tundra with profit. Also the benches above referred to in the lower region of the mountains have been found to be auriferous and have largely been staked."

THE CITY OF NOME.

Between the early summer and the late autumn of 1899 a city of over 5,000 inhabitants was built up on a previously barren beach. People came from Dawson and other points on the Yukon, from the southeastern districts of Alaska, and from the Pacific coast of the United States.

"There are probably about 3,000 people wintering at Nome to-day, and judging from the present indications it is not unlikely that next summer the population will amount to about 25,000 or 30,000. Living during the past months has been very high—board and lodging $6 per day and with room $10 per day. The price of an ordinary meal was from $2 to $3, while wages ranged from $12 to $15 per day. Wood gathered from the driftwood along the beach cost $40 to $50 a cord: coal $125 per ton; lumber $125 per thousand feet; and other necessaries almost in proportion.

"The population, though considerably mixed, is preëminently American and contains a good business element and law-abiding people. The government is a self-organized municipal government, giving good order throughout. A police force is on duty, and there is also located here a detachment of United States soldiers under Lieutenant Creigie, who did much in the earlier stages of Nome toward the preservation of order and the securing of individual rights."

Cape Nome is not a seaport. The nearest harbors for deep-sea or ocean vessels are Port Clarence, 60 miles northwest, and Golofuin Bay, about the same distance northeast. It is thought not unlikely that one or both of these harbors will be connected with the Nome district by rail. In front of Nome the sea is so shallow that the larger vessels cannot approach the shore. Their cargoes are discharged by means of boats and lighters—a precarious method.

IS A TRADE REACTION IMPENDING?

MR. WHARTON BARKER, the candidate of the "Middle-of-the-Road" Populists for President, writing in his paper, the Philadelphia *American*, warns his readers of a reaction in trade conditions which he believes to be almost upon us.

Mr. Barker notes the recent increase in the New York bank reserves, which indicates that the money current is setting from the country toward the metropolis, and bases on this phenomenon a prediction of a speedy fall in the price-level.

Contrary to the opinion expressed by many observers of recent business conditions, Mr. Barker holds that buoyancy has already gone from the commodity markets, although he admits that there are exceptions to this statement. He says:

"Buyers and sellers alike are generally looking for a reaction in prices in the near future rather than a further advance. And in this state of mind sellers grow increasingly anxious to sell, enter into contracts for future delivery of goods for present prices, while the anxiety of buyers to enter into such contracts and so insure themselves against loss from a further rise in prices departs, a disposition to keep clear of such contracts and put off purchases taking the place of such anxiety. And among a certain class of producers, obliged by the nature of their business to take orders for future delivery and who can only safeguard themselves against loss by contracting, at the time of taking such orders, for the materials they will have need of in filling them, this anxiety has been acute. But now it has largely gone, and such producers are rather disposed to speculate on a fall in price for the materials they will have need of in filling orders, a fall that they anticipate."

With the fall in interest rates in New York has come the export of gold to England. In Mr. Barker's view it is by no means a matter of congratulation on our part that we have this gold to

spare. Its export at this time, as Mr. Barker sees it, means simply the drawing away from our industrial centers of money that should be kept at those centers, that trade activity be never at a standstill.

THE GOLD STANDARD AND BANK CURRENCY.

This brings us to what Mr. Barker regards as the real root of all our currency troubles—the attempt to maintain a fluctuating money standard. It is conceded that stability of prices—*i.e.*, stability in value of money—can alone make trade activity permanent. Such stability, Mr. Barker contends, can never be secured as long as we hold all our money redeemable in gold; for gold itself fluctuates. Mr. Barker would have the volume of money regulated by the movement of prices. Whenever prices show a tendency to drop he would increase the issue of money, decreasing the issue when the opposing tendency begins to show itself. At present the banks regulate the issue of credits which serve as money. Mr. Barker argues that this system of bank currency also forbids stability. So long as we rely on bank issues, he says, we shall have succeeding cycles of trade activity and stagnation.

"For with the congestion of money in the financial centers that follows upon industrial depression we will have the banks expanding their credits, rearing a speculative fabric, fostering a speculative craze, a stock-exchange boom on which securities of various enterprises, industrial and other, may be floated. And then when industrial revival comes and money is drawn away from the financial centers, the banks that reared the credit fabric upon which the stock-exchange boom rested will of necessity be constrained to call in loans, pull down that very credit fabric, force liquidation on the stock exchanges, cause the quotations for securities to sink and interest rates to rise until the banks in the industrial centers that drew the money away from the financial centers will be tempted to send it back, curtailing their advances to producers in order to do so. And so a Wall Street pinch will be passed along to the industrial centers; so will collapse in Wall Street be followed by trade depression. And then will interest rates fall in New York, but money will still continue to flow there, congestion will finally force down rates to merely nominal figures, and then conditions will be ripe for the inaugurating of another speculative boom, another cycle of inflation and depression, during which the inside cliques can reap much at the expense of the multitude."

In concluding his article Mr. Barker alludes to the fact that while England's war in South Africa is causing the accumulation of money in London, it has at the same time cut off, temporarily, one-third of the world's supply of gold, just as the inauguration of the gold standard in India is creating a new demand for the yellow metal, which must needs grow dearer.

THE AUTHOR OF "CYRANO."

IN the March *McClure's* Mr. Cleveland Moffett publishes a study of Edmond Rostand's personality and methods of writing, based chiefly on an interview with the author of "Cyrano," the man who at twenty-seven woke up on December 29, 1897, to find himself famous. Rostand has



Reduced from a drawing by Thevenot reproduced in *McClure's Magazine*.

EDMOND ROSTAND.

a house in Paris not three minutes' walk from Sarah Bernhardt's home. "Within," says Mr. Moffett, "are wide staircases and high ceilings, and the eye travels freely from room to room between columns and draped arches and wide glass doors. On the walls are tapestries and somber paintings, under foot soft rugs and polished wood, while the spacious halls and *salon* are furnished with pieces to delight a collector." Rostand has not only large sums from his play, but inherits much wealth. He has a beautiful and talented wife.

A PICTURE OF THE POET.

Of Rostand himself Mr. Moffett says: "I noticed that he came into the room walking stiff and straight, with a certain dapper dignity, and that his hands are extremely white, with rings on the fingers, a fine sapphire among them.

Then I saw that he was small and slender, very pale, and quite bald for a man of twenty-nine; also that he wore a reddish, bristly mustache, and the Legion of Honor ribbon in his coat. In his right eye was a single staring glass that fixed you rather coldly and added to his general impassiveness. You felt that here was a man to keep his reserve until he saw reason for leaving it, and make sure a person was worth talking to before he said much." Mr. Moffett explains that some such self-withholding attitude is necessary, as the dramatist has been simply hounded by Paris since his success.

ROSTAND'S MAIDEN EFFORTS.

"I asked M. Rostand about his first literary work, and he went back with pride to his twentieth year, when his maiden book of poems, 'Les Musardises,' was reviewed in the *Revue Bleue* with highest commendation, hailed, in fact, as 'the most brilliant poetic *début* since Alfred de Musset published his "Contes d'Espagne."' The writer of this was laughed at then, but he is not laughed at now. I asked Rostand what authors he had admired most from his youth, and he answered without hesitation: Shakespeare, Dickens, and Victor Hugo. Could he read Dickens in English? No, unfortunately. Had he been in England? Not to know anything about it—only ten days at a London hotel. Had he traveled in other countries? No, he had stayed at home.

"I asked him about sports and manly exercises. Was he at all like Cyrano in his own tastes? Was he fond of fencing or sword practice? He was not—thought it too fatiguing. Did he go in for horseback-riding? No, that was also too fatiguing. Then his love of excitement and stirring deeds was more of the head than of the body? Yes, he supposed it was.

HOW CYRANO WAS WRITTEN.

"Coming to the chief purpose of my visit, I was glad to learn that the play 'Cyrano de Bergerac' was a fruit of slow ripening. Already in his student days at Stanislas College, Paris, and in vacations at Marseilles (his home) it had been in his mind to make a play where the hero's nobility of soul should be offset by some physical defect. And he hit upon Cyrano in the histories (a real hero who had lived), caught at him, in fact, as the very type of what he wanted. Then the love theme grew accidentally from a real happening one summer while he was at the seaside. There was a young fellow, a friend of the Rostands, deeply in love with a very attractive girl. And she was coy, while he was rather clumsy in his wooing. So in good nature and to amuse himself Rostand helped out the unsuccessful swain with hints and counsels. Do this, he would say; talk to her about that. Give her certain flowers. Speak of such a poet and such a musician. All this based on a knowledge of the young lady's tastes and aptitudes. And presently Rostand was rewarded by hearing from his wife that the girl had declared the young man much less of a fool than she had thought him. In fact, from that moment things went smoothly for these two, and the affair began to take literary form in Rostand's mind."

NUMA DROZ, THE SWISS STATESMAN.

BY the death of Numa Droz, on December 15, 1899, Switzerland lost a statesman of high rank and a diplomat of more than local reputation. M. Edouard Tallichet, an intimate friend of Droz, supplies in his *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* for January some interesting details in the career of the great political leader.

Numa Droz was born in 1844 at Chaux de Fonds, in the canton of Neuchâtel. By the death of his father, a poor man, he was obliged while yet a boy to earn his own living. But his ambitions began early. While an apprentice, and afterward an artisan engraver, young Droz applied his spare hours to study, and with such success that when he was seventeen he received a certificate entitling him to teach in primary schools. A school was assigned to him in the mountains near the city of Neuchâtel; he taught there for a while and afterward in Neuchâtel itself. It would seem that Droz during this period, and while still a boy, interested himself in politics; for when hardly twenty years of age he became the editor of the radical newspaper *Le National*, published at Chaux de Fonds, his native place. During the next seven years he was the editor of this paper; he never completely severed his connection with it.

The political advancement of Droz was rapid. By the time he was thirty-two years of age he had risen through various grades of public office till he had attained the very high distinction of a place in the federal council. It was here that the exceptional talents of Droz had their best opportunity for exercise. Beginning public life as a fiery radical, his views broadened and his temperament softened as he grew older, so that he never became a fanatic. Then, too, he was always a student, both of men and of things. When, in succession, he was at the head of the departments of agriculture, commerce, and foreign affairs, he had distinct and consistent views which he desired to bring into effect. In the



THE LATE NUMA DROZ.

main his views were more liberal than those of the nations about him, but bringing into play his natural aptitude for diplomacy, he succeeded in negotiating advantageous commercial treaties with Germany, Italy, and France. And it was in diplomacy that Droz attained his highest reputation.

A DIPLOMATIC TRIUMPH FOR LITTLE SWITZERLAND.

Europeans used to say of the United States that the management of her foreign affairs was easy, because she had no frontier. But Switzerland is nearly all frontier. A very little state herself, she is in territorial contact with four powerful nations. Her foreign affairs are correspondingly intricate and difficult. It was the great distinction of Numa Droz that in the long period during which he directed the political department of the Swiss Government—that is, the department of foreign affairs—he succeeded in maintaining the rights and dignity of his own country and at the same time conciliated her arrogant and exacting neighbors. His skill was especially noticeable in the dangerous situation caused by the imprisonment and expulsion from Switzerland of a German agent who had made himself extremely objectionable to the Swiss Government. Prince Bismarck had demanded the immediate release of the accused from imprisonment. Switzerland responded by expelling him from the country. Bismarck demanded that the decree of expulsion should be annulled. Austria and Russia supported his demand. It was in such a crisis that the great diplomatic talents of Numa Droz found their opportunity and attracted the attention of Europe. Droz first addressed his efforts to detaching Austria and Russia from their support of Germany. By a full and minute statement of the case he succeeded in convincing Russia and Austria that Switzerland was in the right and that the German demand was not well founded. An interchange of several notes between Switzerland and Germany followed. In this correspondence Droz, speaking for Switzerland, maintained undeviating courtesy and dignity, but did not budge an inch from the position originally taken. At last Germany gave way and withdrew her demand.

When the great powers decided to free Crete from the Ottoman yoke they had to provide for it a government. Perhaps they would have given the island to Greece if the transfer, in the circumstances, would not have been too great an affront to Turkey. Then the respect which Droz had attained among European governments procured for him a peculiar honor. A majority of the powers proposed to confer the government of Crete on Numa Droz. He was sounded, and he consented to accept it on conditions. But Germany and Russia objected, and Prince George of Greece was chosen by the powers. Even then Droz was not passed by; he was asked to be the Prince's prime minister. But to that Droz was not inclined. He made conditions which he knew could not be accepted.

The period of the controversy with Bismarck marks the highest level of the popularity of Droz. In small states politics run high and factional disputes are bitter. Questions of internal economy—the insurance of workmen, a national bank, the assumption of railroads by the state, and others—produced violent contentions. Droz took a very active part in the debates on these questions, and drew upon himself intense personal animosity. He accepted the estrangement of friends and of former political associates with outward calm, but there is little doubt that he felt deeply the loss of his influence.

PERSONAL IMPRESSIONS OF JAMES MARTINEAU.

DR. EDWARD EVERETT HALE contributes to the *Outlook* (New York) some entertaining reminiscences of Dr. James Martineau, the great London preacher, whose death at the age of ninety-five was chronicled in last month's REVIEW.

Dr. Hale remembers Martineau as a "charming talker" who "would tell a Scotch ghost story in such a way as to make your flesh crawl."

In it all Martineau showed "the courtly elegance of what people call an old-fashioned manner, the cordiality and sympathy and interest which not only made you feel completely at ease, but made you wish that the evening might never be done."

MARTINEAU AND GLADSTONE.

This is Dr. Hale's analysis of Martineau's politics:

"He was an aristocrat through and through. That is to say, though on principle and theoretically democratic, he sympathized in the old-fashioned way of handling the outside of things, and did not care who knew that he did. He wrote to me once, after a Liberal ministry had been turned out, that of course one was glad of any repairs or reforms in the state, but that his feeling was rather that of a person the tiles of whose roofs have needed repair; he is very glad when the tiles are mended, and he is glad to be well rid of the tiler, perhaps for some years. In this case Mr. Gladstone was the tiler, and Martineau was glad to drop back to the quiet of an unreforming government. Somebody said very well of the two men that Martineau, who was Liberal of the Liberals in his theology, was absolutely conservative in his view of English politics, while Gladstone, who was Liberal of the Liberals in his politics, was absolutely conservative in his ecclesiasticism. This remark is true and worth a little meditation."

REFORMING RELIGION AT THE TOP.

"In his earlier writings he describes, in an almost prophetic way, his own subsequent history. He used to provoke the men who were trying to introduce religion into the 'slums,' as our modern phrase has it, among the poorest, wickedest, and vilest people, by saying that we should never do anything which came to much account among such people until we had reformed the religion of those who were to teach them, and that the business of devout and careful thinkers now is not so much to go into the slums as to try to improve the character of the Christianity which should be carried into the slums."

Frances Power Cobbe's Tribute.

The *Contemporary Review* for February contains two articles on the late Dr. Martineau, both of which are from the pens of personal friends. The first is by Miss Frances Power Cobbe and contains extracts from the doctor's letters; the second, by Mr. Philip H. Wicksteed, is shorter and less personal, but not less interesting.

AS A SCHOLAR.

Dr. Martineau's erudition, says Miss Cobbe, was marvelously deep and varied, yet it never overweighted him as learning is apt to swamp original thinking in less capacious intellects:

"It was always subordinate to his wisdom, which was built *on* it rather than *of* it; even as the Olympium at Athens rose on its wide and high-raised peribolus. He was never (so far as we, beneath him, could judge) carried away by the current of any other man's mind; but his knowledge of what others had thought on the subjects of his studies swelled the volume and power of his own conclusions. When we add to this learned wisdom in intellectual matters the remembrance of the calm, steadfast, loftily devoted life, of which to speak as 'blameless' is to give it only the grudging praise which an enemy could not refuse, we have summed up, so it seems to me, very nearly the ideal characteristics of a sage of these later days; a great teacher and example of 'righteous living without asceticism' and of piety without a shade of superstition."

AS A MAN.

Miss Cobbe bears a strong tribute to Dr. Martineau's social qualities—his delicate sympathy and his curious mixture of reticence and self-revelation, which were continually shown in correspondence with his more intimate acquaintances. Here is a letter to Miss Cobbe which illustrates his humor:

"My Dear Miss Cobbe: Since I became a Highland farmer I have learned what extremely erratic creatures sheep are apt to be! Only three days ago my whole lot, finding a gate open, took it into their heads to leave their pasture and lead me a pretty chase after them, till, without even a dog's help, I ran them down by the roadside and persuaded them that they might as well stop where they were. Can you expect me to repeat the pursuit where there is no hope of bringing the stray ones back and a certainty that they will put me to shame with their delicious pasturage?

"Having, however, ceased to be a shepherd, here in the south, and become one of the flock, I should certainly be easily drawn to see how my companions fare, and put myself under their lead, on any common which they frequented, if I were not—for some cruel purpose of my masters—tethered by the leg and frightfully barked at even within my permitted circle, so that at present I despair of all escape."

Martineau as a Teacher.

Mr. Wicksteed's article is a more serious study of the great preacher's character and ways. He says:

"If a man is made a great teacher by the power of arousing the intellectual enthusiasm

and firing the spiritual imagination of his hearers, by making them feel the greatness of the subject, by penetrating them with the sense of the beauty of holiness and the beauty of truth, and inspiring them with the conviction that they are not only seeking, but finding, then, as judged by his effect on most (though not on all) of us, Martineau must be regarded as among the greatest of teachers. And if in his lectures he made no direct appeal to us, it was not that his mind was unsympathetic; on the contrary, I have never known a mature mind that retained so exquisite a power of insight and sympathy with young and crude scruples and difficulties as was his. Any of us who so far overcame our sense of the distance between us as to venture to appeal to him in any personal difficulty of intellectual apprehension, in any spiritual or moral perplexity, or any scruple concerning our own conduct in life, invariably found in him a swiftness of comprehension, a tenderness of appreciative sympathy, and, above all, a true reverence for our spiritual and moral personality which made his counsel or admonition a development of our own characters along clearer or healthier lines, rather than an imposition of his own individuality upon us."

LONGEVITY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the February *Forum* Mr. William R. Thayer gives interesting statistics of the duration of life among certain groups of nineteenth-century brain-workers.

Mr. Thayer believes that longevity, a characteristic which has become too common to attract much attention, distinguishes the nineteenth century from all the preceding centuries. He says:

"During the past one hundred years the length of life of the average man in the United States and in the more civilized parts of Europe has increased from a little over 30 to about 40 years. A multitude of causes, mostly physical, have contributed to this result. Foremost among these should be placed (1) whatever may be included under the general term sanitation; (2) improved methods in medicine; and (3) the more regular habits of living which are the direct outcome of industrial life on a large scale. These are some of the evident means by which life has been lengthened. Inventions, which have made production cheap and the transportation of all products both cheap and easy, have had an influence too great to be computed. And no doubt much has been due to a general improvement in methods of government; although, in the main, there has been much less progress in practical government than is commonly supposed. No great railroad company or banking house or manufacturing corporation could prosper if its officers and employees were chosen and kept in office according to the system by which political offices, almost everywhere, are filled. 'None but experts wanted' is the sign written over the entrance to every profession, trade, and occupation—except government.

"But whatever governments have done or left undone, the fact to be insisted on here is that the average man to-day lives almost ten years longer than his grandfather lived. Indisputably, therefore, the year 1900 finds conditions more conducive to longevity than existed a century ago. This is true beyond question for the masses, who feel immediately the effects of plenty, hunger, and cold—the great physical dispensers of life and death.

ARE WE DYING AT THE TOP?

"But improvement in the conditions essential to the physical well-being of the masses need not imply a similar improvement in the more favored minority, in those who—to make a distinction which is sufficiently exact for our purposes—work with their heads instead of with their hands. And, indeed, the impression has long been current that modern life has been growing more and more destructive to precisely this class. Ever since the wheels of civilization began to turn more swiftly, ever since the introduction of steam power, it has been the fashion to cry out against the acceleration of speed. 'We live too fast;' 'the tension is too great;' 'men are soon worn out or broken down;' 'the pace that kills'—these and similar phrases, commonly accepted without question, indicate the prevalent belief that our era, in spite of its positive gains for some classes, does not conduce to longevity among brain-workers."

It is with a view to determining the truth or falsity of the assertion that modern conditions are really destroying society at the top that Mr. Thayer applies the longevity test. He reasons thus:

"A genius who dies at forty may well be worth to the world more than a thousand sexagenarian men of talent, so that mere number of years in individual cases may count for little; but no community nor considerable class of men lives to old age under permanently unfavorable conditions. The wages of sin—and with sin we must include ignorance of the laws of living—is death. The test of longevity, therefore, will allow us to make some precise deductions concerning modern conditions, just as the annual death-rate tells us something definite about the sanitary conditions of cities."

While Mr. Thayer's lists do not pretend to comprise the names of all the eminent persons in any group, they do aim at giving a sufficiently large number of representative names to furnish the data sought. Of persons born in the eighteenth century only those are cited who lived more than half their lives after 1800. A few living celebrities, whose age already exceeds that of their group, are included.

A general summary of the data recorded by Mr. Thayer shows that the average duration of life in these groups has been about 68 years and 8 months, viz :

SUMMARY.

	Average.
46 poets	66
39 painters and sculptors	66
30 musicians	62
26 novelists	63
40 men of letters	67
22 religious	66
35 women	69
18 philosophers	65
38 historians	73
58 scientists and inventors	72
14 agitators	69
48 commanders	71
112 statesmen	71

Average, 68 years, 8 months.

"Here, then, we have not a theory nor a popular fallacy, but certain definite information concerning nearly 530 of the prominent men and women of the nineteenth century. The assumption has been that modern conditions are destructive to the vitality of just this upper class of brain-workers. The fact is that these persons lived on an average 68 years and 8 months—that is, nearly thirty years longer than the population as a whole. Were we to double the number of names the result would not be very different.

"It may be urged that a considerable minority of these persons grew up in the eighteenth century and died before the distinctive conditions of the nineteenth century had full play. This is true ; but on analysis we find that most of the long-lived belong to those whose career fell wholly within the nineteenth century. Roughly speaking, 1820 may be set down as the year when the general adoption of steam power revolutionized methods of manufacturing and of travel by water ; as early as 1840 railroads were beginning to affect the distribution of population and of commercial products ; by 1860 the electric telegraph had come into general use ; and since 1860 one invention after another has helped to quicken the rate of speed at which society moves. Accordingly we can say that the distinctive conditions of the century have been in full swing for nearly fifty years, and that if injurious their effects would be seen on the men who reached their prime about 1850 or subsequently.

OCTOGENARIANS OF THE CENTURY.

"Our examination has shown that these men have suffered no curtailment of life. Look at the list, and particularly at those who have lived eighty years or longer : Martineau, Döllinger, Leo XIII., Bismarck, Gladstone, Tennyson, Newman, Kossuth, Schœlcher, Queen Victoria, Mrs. J. W. Howe, Malmesbury, Lowe, Selborne, Shaftesbury, J. E. Johnston, Moltke, Görgei, Cialdini, Macmahon, Canrobert, Trochu, Bessemer, Ericsson, Ritter, Owen, H. Rawlinson, Bunsen, Kinglake, Merivale, Bancroft, G. Rawlinson, Ranke, Mommsen, Carlyle, Curtius, Mamiani, Gilbert, Manning, Littré, Verdi, Thomas, Hamlin, Jefferson Davis, William I. Simon, B. St. Hilaire, Gortschakoff, Broglie, Crispi, Crémieux, Maria Mitchell, Henry Taylor, De Lesseps, Morse, Henry, Halévy, Whittier, Holmes, Bryant, Mrs. H. B. Stowe, Spencer, Ruskin, Hugo, Watts, Pusey, Duruy.

"These 65 men and women not only lived long, but, as a rule, they also worked long and hard. Conditions under which the greatest workers in the world live to be octogenarians or older certainly cannot be permanently deleterious. It may be that after another hundred years these modern conditions will have proved injurious and will have undermined the vitality of our grandchildren. My business, however, is not to prophesy, but to ascertain the truth as it exists to-day. That truth, so far as our lists reveal it, is that civilized society is not withering at the top. Incidentally we perceive that the possession of genius, or even of any excellence in a marked degree, carries with it the presumption of unusual vitality. Great men may die young, but in general greatness presupposes a strong hold on life. By the latter I do not mean mere muscular strength. Indeed, many of these patriarchs were physically frail. But I mean strength of will, of intellect, and of character, which have far more influence than we commonly imagine in prolonging life. Whoever doubts this should examine whether the longevity of any 530 athletes of whom there is a record approaches an average of 68 years."

So far as the lives of our most eminent men and women are concerned, the charge of degeneration leveled at our century by certain scientific men seems to lack foundation.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

IN the March *Century* there is a very readable article by Dr. Frederick A. Cook, of the Belgian antarctic expedition, on "The Giant Indians of Tierra del Fuego." There are many tribes of the Indians about the Straits of Magellan. Dr. Cook describes the Onas, who have thus far evaded all efforts at civilization and have to the present time, and with good reason, mistrusted white men. The most of these utter savages are on the main island of Tierra del Fuego. The Onas have never been united in a common interest nor have they ever been led by one great chief. They are divided into small clans, under leaders with limited powers, and these chiefs have waged constant warfare among themselves. Now they have a new enemy in the white sheep farmers and gold diggers that have invaded their island. The giant Indians make periodical raids on sheep herds, and not even the presence of Winchester rifles, as against their primitive bows and arrows, can hold them in check. The Onas are giants. Their average height is about six feet, while some are six feet six inches in height. There are only about 1,600 of them altogether, divided into sixteen tribes. The women are not so tall, but are more corpulent. Dr. Cook says there is no race in the world with a more perfect physical development than the Ona men. They live entirely by hunting and have no houses nor even tents, a mere shelter of skins and brush serving to give them what little immunity they need from rains and storms.

RUSSIA'S ASIATIC RAILROAD AMBITIONS.

Alexander Hume Ford writes on "The Warfare of Railways in Asia," and tells of the Russian foresight which has seized Siberia and Trans-Caspia and planted a great railroad system there, from which branch lines are about to radiate. One of these branch lines is aiming for Constantinople, the next almost touches Teheran, the middle one is in central Asia, has touched Herat, and will soon reach Kandahar. The fourth, starting from Samarkand, has already reached the border of China and aims at Pekin, and a fifth has already advanced to the capital of China. Mr. Ford gives an account of the railroad interests of the other nine nations in Asia. The very greatest thorn in Russia's side is Japan's only railroad concession on the whole continent, that in Korea, from Fusan to Seoul. This promises to be the cause of what Mr. Ford calls the evidently inevitable conflict over Asiatic railroad concessions, and may compel Russia to winter her Pacific squadron in Nagasaki harbor. Japan, feeling sure of the backing of England and China, wishes to bring matters to a trial of conclusions before the completion of the Trans-Siberian Railway, which will forever settle the doom of Korea as an independent nation; but Russia has given England assurances which, for the sake of peace, Great Britain accepts as if she really believed them to be in earnest.

ANIMALS ABOUT TO BECOME EXTINCT.

In an excellent first article of a series entitled "The National Zoo at Washington," in which Ernest Seton-Thompson makes a study of its animals in relation to their national environment, he makes a plea for the preservation of some specimens of the great Alaskan bear, the largest and most wonderful of its race. He says that in one year, or at most in two years, unless Congress is willing to vote the price or half the price of a single big gun to it, the world will lose this animal, in the same way that it has lost the great auk, the Labrador duck, and the West India seal. There are other American species, too, which are bound to become absolutely extinct unless the National Zoo comes to the aid of the study of natural history. Mr. Thompson mentions the bighorn sheep, the coast blacktail, the mule-deer, the moose, and the mountain goat, as well as the grizzly bear.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the March *Harper's* Capt. A. T. Mahan discusses "The Problem of Asia." Russia he calls the largest single element in forming the future of Asia. This happens because "only parts of the Russian territory, and those, even in the aggregate, small and uninfluential comparatively to the whole, enjoy the benefits of maritime commerce. It is therefore the interest of Russia not merely to reach the sea at more points and more independently, but to acquire, by possession or by control, the usufruct of other and extensive maritime regions, the returns from which shall redound to the general prosperity of the entire empire." Captain Mahan thinks that it is a wrong attitude for outside states to take, when they offer only opposition and hostility toward Russia in the face of these conditions. He thinks that states that have a requisite seaboard and well-rounded physical conditions owe at the least candor, if not sympathy, to Russia in her situation. Nevertheless, in the readjustment of the Asiatic organisms other nations have the duty to see that the proper equilibrium is attained. He hopes that we may avoid a struggle in the dismembering of Asia and rely on "the artificial methods of counsel and agreement," which seem somewhat more suitable to the present day.

AT HOME WITH THE BOERS.

In his article on "Pretoria Before the War" Mr. Howard C. Hillegas protests against many misrepresentations of Boer character and life. He bears witness to the cleanliness of the Boer household, and he says that the typical young Boer is an educated man, often from the European universities, where his father has been able to send him because of the discovery of gold on his farm. The younger Boers were anxious for modern civilization, while the older men lived according to the laws and examples recorded in the Bible and believed the slightest deviation from obedience to those precepts was sinful. In Pretoria Mr. Hillegas said that one could always meet oily tongued, faultlessly attired concession seekers and lobbyists, sent by the mining interests at Johannesburg to bribe or kidnap a Raad member if the uncertainty of the passage of a bill warranted it. With them were many English journalists, and Mr. Hillegas wonders that the Boers allowed these correspondents to remain, as they were avowedly in Pretoria to note the shortcomings of the government and prepare British public opinion for the interference which later led to the war. It was all the more aston-

ishing that President Krüger should have tolerated these correspondents when he knew that the men who own mines at Johannesburg also had controlling interests in several of the London journals.

GERMANY'S CHINESE COLONY.

Mr. Poultney Bigelow, under the title "Germany's First Colony in China," describes Kiao-Chau. The Germans had not fortified Kiao-Chau, but had mounted a few field guns to protect against Chinese raids. The town is being Germanized rapidly, the names of the streets being all after the manner of Berlin. All the Chinese knew a little German, according to one of the officials, but Mr. Bigelow did not find any great proficiency in the language of the Kaiser. Mr. Bigelow does not think that the Germans have done much in the way of civilizing the Chinese about Kiao-Chau as yet. He cites the instance of an American railroad syndicate to show that the Germans have their eyes open for an extension of their colonial rights. This syndicate, in conjunction with English capitalists, had been negotiating for the construction of a railroad between Pekin and the mouth of the Yang-tse River. The matter was all arranged and the money had been raised, according to a cable to England, on August 25, 1898. Four days afterward, however, the German minister in Pekin told the English Government that this railroad should not be built, because it crossed territory a few hundred miles from Kiao-Chau which the Germans chose to regard as being within their sphere of influence.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

THE March *Scribner's* opens with Mr. H. J. Whigham's account of "The Fighting with Methuen's Division" in the actions at Belmont, Gras Pan, and Modder River. Mr. Whigham writes from the very strongest pro-British point of view. It is "our army," "our advance," etc.; but he takes occasion to deny most explicitly that the Boers were treacherous, judged by the laws of civilized warfare. As for the report that the wounded Boers continued to fight and shoot down their enemies, he says very sensibly that a wounded man has a perfect right to go on fighting if he wants to risk being shot himself. He says that none of the wounded Boers were even fired at after assistance had been offered. He tells of a significant incident in the capture of two wealthy men of Johannesburg of German extraction, who were out of the Transvaal when war became imminent and went back voluntarily to fight for their country. They were friendly with the Englishmen in Johannesburg, were well educated as well as wealthy, and were more English in their ideas and customs than anything else. London was their city outside of South Africa, yet they voluntarily came back to the Transvaal and threw in their lot with the Boers, "not, be it remembered, from purely patriotic motives, because neither of them is a Boer, but apparently because they had hopes of ultimate success for the Boer cause."

THE EXPANDING CABLE SYSTEMS.

In "The Point of View" a paragraph calls attention to the immense advance in cable facilities which imperial duties will necessitate. The writer thinks that it is but a short time when every English, German, and French colony will have its cable communications direct to London, Berlin, and Paris. In Washington we are discussing an imperial cable system to the new possessions in the Philippines, and, indeed, when one considers how vastly necessary cable communications are in the huge trading associations called empires, one may wonder why the telegraph system of the globe has not been more nearly perfected before this.

A RENAISSANCE OF LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE.

Mr. G. F. Pentecost, Jr., writes on "The Renaissance of Landscape Architecture." He writes in sympathy with the revival of interest in the old formal style gardening, and he makes an interesting plan based on Bacon's essay of gardening.

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

IN the March *McClure's* are a sketch of Edmond Rostand, the author of "Cyrano de Bergerac," written by Mr. Cleveland Moffett, and Mr. Walter Wellman's account of the disaster to the arctic expedition of 1898-99, which we have reviewed in another department.

A RAILROAD TO THE KLONDIKE.

Mr. Cy Warman tells about "Building a Railroad Into the Klondike," and gives the story of the construction of the road over the new White Pass and Yukon Line. By this line one travels from San Francisco 1,750 miles or from Seattle 1,080 miles by steamer to Skagway, and then takes the railroad by way of Lake Bennett, White Horse Rapids, and the Lewis River to Fort Selkirk on the Yukon. A small piece of the railroad from Skagway to Lake Bennett is now completed, as much more is promised to be completed about June, 1900, and the larger portion, from White Horse Rapids to Fort Selkirk, has been surveyed. Mr. Warman tells us that the pessimistic reports of the "busting" of the Klondike boom and the deadness of Dawson are not borne out by his experience, although men have been saying these things for months. In August, 1899, he found Skagway full of people, busy, happy, and hopeful. Mr. Warman thinks that next summer a man who figures his connections carefully will be able to get from Chicago to Dawson City in less than nine days, allowing, as Mr. Warman picturesquely puts it, "from Chicago to Seattle, three sleeps; Seattle to Skagway, three sleeps; Skagway to White Horse, half a day; White Horse to Dawson, two sleeps; total, eight and a half days."

THE VOYAGE OF THE "DESTROYER."

Capt. Joshua Slocum, whose account of his voyage around the world we have been reading in the *Century*, describes in this number of *McClure's* "The Voyage of the 'Destroyer' from New York to Brazil." The *Destroyer* was a ship fitted out by a Yankee trader for the use of Mr. Peixoto, president of Brazil, to enable him to scare the rebellious navy into submission. This ship was a formidable craft, invented by Ericsson, of about 130 tons register. She carried a brass cannon 43 feet long, built securely in the bows eight feet below the water-line. This gun, with a charge of 50 pounds of powder, fired a projectile 35 feet long and carrying 350 pounds of compressed gun-cotton, which by contact would explode and destroy anything afloat. Captain Slocum gives a dramatic account of the dangerous voyage to Bahia, Brazil, on this strange craft. The *Destroyer* never destroyed anything except herself, being

smashed on a rock as soon as they got into port, but the rebel fleet did not know of it and surrendered on the news of her arrival.

The March *McClure's* continues "The Life of the Master," by the Rev. John Watson, in Part III., which includes the calling of the disciples and the beginning of Jesus' ministry. In each number there are several colored pictures which remind one much of the Tissot paintings.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

MR. WILLIAM MARSH writes in the March *Cosmopolitan* on wolves that are respectable, and supports his contention that the wolf may be domesticated by some extraordinary pictures of gray wolves which have been tamed and domesticated on the ranch of a Mr. Bothwell in Wyoming. The illustrations show girls and young men frolicking with the gray beasts as one would with a very tractable dog.

CALIFORNIA'S FLOWER GARDENS.

In describing "The World's Largest Truck Gardens" Mr. John E. Bennett tells how California has come to devote vast areas to a single product because of the use of machinery and the inability of one sort of machine to work another crop than that for which it was designed. He tells us that it has been demonstrated that California can compete, even with cut flowers, with the hot-house flowers of the East, and that the flower farms of that State are destined to occupy a high place in the coast's material assets. The flowers are grown in the open air, of course, and are much superior in strength, beauty, and durability to the hot-house product.

SERVANT GIRLS' UNIONS.

In her prize essay on "The Servant Question" Mrs. Flora McDonald Thompson has the temerity to advise servant girls' unions, to be met with associations of housewives. Her ground for such an awful suggestion is that "the only possible form in which scattered opposing forces may accomplish anything but alternating oppression and rebellion" is organization.

THURLOW WEED AS EDITOR AND POLITICIAN.

In a new series of articles on "Great Editors of America" Postmaster-General Charles Emory Smith gives a sketch of Thurlow Weed, whom he calls the most conspicuous editor of his State—until the rise of metropolitan journalism—and the acknowledged dictator of his political party for twenty years. He was at the same time the most adroit and consummate politician, perhaps, that the country has ever known. It is doubtful if any other man in all our history has so completely and successfully blended the attributes of the political oracle and the political manager.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

IN the March *Munsey's* Mr. Waldon Fawcett describes, under the title "The World's Greatest Canal," the "Soo," the water gateway of the Northwest, and its huge volume of commerce, which far exceeds the tonnage that traverses the Suez Canal or that enters the port of New York. The aggregate tonnage of the lake craft, indeed, exceeds the entire fleet on our Atlantic, Pacific, and Gulf coasts. The huge canal Mr. Fawcett describes locks through vessels carrying cargoes of 8,000 tons. The "Soo" has two magnificent locks, one of which is the largest in the world, and which are operated free of cost so far as the vessels are concerned. Through the larger four steamers can lock simultaneously. This one cost the Government $5,000,000. It is more than 800 feet in length and 100 feet wide. Lake commerce, though it has reached such magnitude, is still in a period of transition. The activities of the Rockefeller and Carnegie interests in the lake regions have produced new types of transportation units. The vessels are increasing in size very rapidly, and one has the spectacle on the lakes of a steamer quite the equal in size of the average trans-Atlantic liner of a few years ago towing behind it one or two immense barges. Thus one engine hauls down the lakes at a speed of about eleven miles an hour enough iron ore to fill about thirty ordinary freight trains.

AMERICANS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Mr. Allen Sangree, a New York journalist who has been the secretary of the United States consul-general in Cape Town and made many official journeys through South Africa, tells of "Americans in South Africa." He speaks of great and increasingly important American interests in the Transvaal region, and he makes it out that the American element in the local population is an energetic and picturesque factor. Mr. Sangree says that formerly there was a reaction against the purchase of American goods, machinery, etc., in Africa, as it was said that the Yankee wares were pretty, but would not wear. This cry is heard no more, however, and the colonial Englishman is a good customer of our manufactures. Many kinds of wares and machinery are being rapidly introduced from this country —agricultural implements, carpenters' tools, screws, door trimmings, wire fencing, corrugated sheet iron, office furniture, safes, canned meats, fruits, and even eggs. Indeed, Mr. Sangree says that with the exception of jewelry and clothing, almost any American product can be sold profitably in South Africa.

THE WAR AGAINST CONSUMPTION.

Dr. John H. Girdner, in his article on "The War Against Consumption," tells of the discoveries that have shown tuberculosis to be a preventable disease, with precautions by which it might be avoided, and what has actually been done in this and other countries toward stamping out the most fatal scourge of humanity. Of the actual results of the work of education and of the examination of infected cattle is shown the table of death-rates from tuberculosis diseases in New York City for the twelve years prior to 1898. There is almost a continuous decrease from 442 deaths in 1886 to 285 in 1897. In England and Wales the death-rate has been reduced from more than 38 per 10,000 in 1838 to about 13 in 10,000 at the present time.

THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

IN the March *Ladies' Home Journal* the editor comments on the turn of the tide of women going into business occupations other than dressmaking, teaching, and domestic pursuits. The beginning of the movement toward business pursuits for women began about 1870, and by 1890 there were nearly 4,600,000 women engaged in gainful pursuits of all kinds, and since 1890 there has been a still further large increase. But Mr. Bok thinks there is a change of sentiment, and that

while a number of business positions for which women are especially fitted will still be held by them, and creditably, still the day of woman's promiscuously going into business is over, the weeding process having begun. Mr. Bok thinks this is a good thing, and answers the question as to what will become of all the women who would otherwise have gone in business by saying that they will go back to the home as domestic helpers.

MR. BEECHER'S STIMULANTS.

The article on "The Anecdotal Side of Great Men" is concerned this month with Mr. Beecher. A paragraph in it says that Mr. Beecher's imagination seemed to be peculiarly sensitive to certain influences and that he was very notably affected by tea and coffee. A cup of strong tea produced a most depressing effect on his whole being, making him see things on their dark side, and coffee, on the other hand, made everything look bright and rosy.

THE GREENROOM OBSOLETE.

In the series of articles on "The Theater and Its People" Mr. Franklin Fyles takes us into the dressing-room of the actress with becoming modesty. He tell us the theatrical greenroom of history and tradition, for the common use of the players, has become a thing of the past. The dressing-rooms are still miserable little coops in the poorer theaters, but the new theaters, while they may have the quarters small, give clean rooms, adequately furnished, and even include bath-rooms among the luxuries. Mr. Fyles, in discreetly unveiling some of the mysteries of the make-up, assures us that no genuine complexion is ever seen on the stage. The glare of artificial light, no matter what the brilliancy of the complexion, would make almost any face seem ghastly white or unpleasantly sallow.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN the March *Atlantic Monthly* ex-Secretary Richard Olney opens the number with an article on our growing foreign relations, which we have quoted from in another department, and we have also reviewed in the same department Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson's article on "The Political Horizon." Mr. Everett P. Wheeler, writing on "The Unofficial Government of Cities," thinks that the wise reformer should be an opportunist; that he should "sow beside all waters" and "mitigate where he cannot cure." He feels called on to admit, in the consideration of the typical boss, that in some cases these political leaders give very intelligent directions which are distinctly beneficial to the public, and that in many respects public business is better done through their influence than it would be without it. A great point, he thinks, for good citizens to insist on is not necessarily that these political leaders should be done away with, but that they should perform their functions with more regard to the public interest.

A ROMP WITH NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

An exceedingly readable article is "A Girl of Sixteen at Brook Farm," by Ora G. Sedgwick. The writer's reminiscences of Charles A. Dana and Hawthorne are unusually lively and interesting. She says that Hawthorne talked but little at the table and was a very taciturn man, but that he could unbend is shown dramatically by her account of a frolic in which she and her roommate, Ellen Slade, indulged:

"One evening he was alone in the hall, sitting on a chair at the further end, when my roommate, Ellen Slade, and myself were going upstairs. She whispered to me: 'Let's throw the sofa pillows at Mr. Hawthorne.' Reaching over the banisters, we each took a cushion and threw it. Quick as a flash he put out his hand, seized a broom that was hanging near him, warded off our cushions, and threw them back with sure aim. As fast as we could throw them at him he returned them with effect, hitting us every time, while we could hit only the broom. He must have been very quick in his movements. Through it all not a word was spoken. We laughed and laughed, and his eyes shone and twinkled like stars."

GERMAN SENTIMENT FOR THE BOERS.

In "A Letter from Germany" Mr. William C. Dreher says that the German public has its attention chiefly occupied with the war in South Africa, and that its attitude is one of practically unanimous condemnation of England's course toward the Transvaal. No newspaper of influence and no public man of note defends England. Even her traditional friends among the Germans, who have been working for English political ideals in Germany, complain bitterly against Mr. Chamberlain. The large element of anti-English sentiment is reënforced by the impartial thought which strongly disapproves of England's treatment of the Boers on moral grounds.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

SINCE its removal to Cleveland several new features have been introduced into the *Chautauquan*. A department of "Highways and Byways" consists of comment on matters of current interest. A series of articles on "The Expansion of the American People," by Prof. Edwin E. Sparks, is now appearing. In connection with these papers the *Chautauquan's* enterprise in obtaining data for the systematic study of the migrations of American families is worthy of notice. The coöperation of local historical societies, patriotic organizations, and individuals is sought.

Another important *Chautauquan* serial is "A Reading Journey Through France." In the February number Prof. Frederick M. Warren describes the suburbs of Paris. The Rev. Charles M. Stuart, D.D., contributes to this number a paper on "The Inner Life of Dwight L. Moody." Among the interesting illustrated articles in this number are Mr. A. Goodwin Culver's description of "Kaskaskia: A Vanished Capital," and Elizabeth M. Elgin's "Painters of the Barbizon School."

In the matter of illustration the *Chautauquan* has made notable strides of late.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

ABOUT two-thirds of the February number of the *North American* is given up to the war in South Africa and allied subjects. The military and strategical situation is discussed from British, German, and American points of view by Lieut.-Gen. John F. Owen, Capt. Fritz Hoenig, and Gen. O. O. Howard, respectively. On the subject of race rivalry in South Africa Mr. Henry Cust, late editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, contributes a paper which formulates a justification of England's course, from which we have quoted in another depart-

ment. Dr. J. C. Voigt, author of "Fifty Years of the Republic in South Africa," gives an exposition of the Dutch side of the controversy; while Mr. Montagu White, recently consul-general of the Transvaal in London, writes on "The Danger of Personal Rule in South Africa."

Dr. Theodor Mommsen, the venerable historian, contributes a brief summary of "German Feeling Toward England and America" in the form of a letter in reply to questions propounded by Mr. Sidney Whitman. As regards the United States, Dr. Mommsen's most significant remark relates to what he regards as an imminent change of internal American politics, "involving a revolution in military and naval matters."

MR. MOODY AS FATHER CONFESSOR.

Dr. Lyman Abbott, writing on "The Power of Mr. Moody's Ministry," traces a kind of parallel between the authority professed by the high-church priest of the Anglican Church and that assumed by Mr. Moody himself in hearing confessions and pronouncing absolution. "The one no less than the other spoke, or claimed to speak, by authority; both derived their authority from the same great historic fact; and the attractive power which drew unnumbered thousands to the preaching of Mr. Moody was in its essence the same as that which draws unnumbered thousands to the altar and the eucharist."

THE UNITED STATES AS A COLONIAL ADMINISTRATOR.

Gen. Thomas Anderson, who commanded the first expeditionary land force from the United States to the Philippine Islands, writes on "Our Rule in the Philippines." As to our ability to establish a stable government in the Philippines, General Anderson regards certain things as distinctly in our favor. Among these are the facts that the people have no other traditional allegiance and no governmental traditions; that they wish to break all connection between church and state and to try a representative form of government; and that they look upon the United States as the best example of republican government. General Anderson does not disregard the spirit of faction resulting from a long period of oppression and misrule, but he is optimistic enough to hope that education and good government may in time work regeneration.

A much less hopeful article is that of Maj. J. E. Runcie, entitled "American Misgovernment in Cuba." He holds that in only two branches of the administration in Cuba has there been satisfactory advance over the previously existing conditions—the revenue department and the department of sanitation and public health, both of which have been absolutely under American control.

"In other words, where Americans have been allowed to work, with American methods, the result has been distinguished success. On the other hand, wherever Cubans have been allowed to proceed, by any methods of their own choice, they have invariably clung to the methods of Spain, which they have employed for their own ends, not for the public good; and the result is disastrous failure, for which Americans are responsible. Not one step has been taken toward a realization of the purposes of the intervention. The problem has become, by reason of neglect and incompetency, more difficult to-day than it was a year ago. The house was swept and garnished, but the door was left open and the seven other devils seem to have taken advantage of the opportunity. If no change occurs soon the last state of Cuba bids fair to be far worse than the first."

Mr. Edward Atkinson contributes an article on "Eastern Commerce: What Is It Worth?" the burden of which is that the United States should "stand and wait for commerce, taking care not to interrupt it by war and by criminal aggression."

Ex-Senator Peffer writes on "The Trust in Politics" and Mr. W. E. Henley reviews some novels of 1899.

THE FORUM.

IN another department we have quoted from the article by Mr. William R. Thayer on longevity in the February *Forum*.

Lieut.-Gen. Den Beer Poortugael, member of the Holland Privy Council, makes an important presentation of the Boer side of the South African dispute, replying to the arguments of Mr. James G. Whiteley in an article which appeared in the *Forum* for October, 1899.

THE FUTURE OF THE POPULISTS.

Senator Marion Butler, chairman of the People's Party National Executive Committee, attempts an answer to the assertion now frequently made that the People's party is disintegrating. Senator Butler declares, on the other hand, that the national convention of the party will be held as early as April or May next and will nominate candidates for President and Vice-President. As an explanation of the fact that the party has not grown rapidly as an organization, Senator Butler directs attention to the history of the Democratic party since 1892, showing that the principles of the People's party were forced upon the Democrats at Chicago in 1896, and that the adoption of the Democratic platform of that year and the candidacy of Mr. Bryan could have no other effect than to check temporarily the growth of the People's party as an organization. Senator Butler holds that the People's party platform contains the only sure remedy for the trust evil. "Should the Democratic party fail to advance and to keep pace with the demands of commerce and civilization, should it again become simply a party of negation, as it has too often been in the past, the People's party in the next election would poll over 6,000,000 votes."

Mr. David Willcox writes on "The Futility of the Anti-Trust Issue," holding that the federal anti-trust act of 1890 fully covers the ground, that the courts are giving it all the effect warranted by the Constitution, and that the combinations prohibited by it have for the most part ceased to exist.

EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

President Charles W. Dabney, of the University of Tennessee, advocates the establishment of a national university on the lines proposed by Washington. He argues that what is wanted is not another general university to rival established institutions, but a graduate school for science, first, together with schools for social science, jurisprudence, and international law, especially for the training of diplomats and consuls. As far as the department of science is concerned, Washington already has nearly all the laboratories and men required. President Dabney asserts that instruction might begin in science within a month if only the building, a central organization, and a few thousand dollars for current expenses were provided.

The Hon. J. L. M. Curry directs attention to the needs of Southern colleges—a department of educational activity too generally neglected. Dr. Curry makes the assertion that "some colored schools have been so liberally aided that they have a larger annual income and pay out for ordinary expenses more than any Southern white university and more than can be used without unwise indebtedness by four or five colleges."

Mr. A. C. True, Director of Experiment Stations in the United States Department of Agriculture, contributes an article on "University Extension and Agriculture," describing the work done by the United States Department of Agriculture and the agricultural experiment stations of the different States, through farmers' institutes, home-reading courses, and other instrumentalities of this nature. Especially interesting is the attempt made by Prof. L. H. Bailey, of Cornell University, to introduce nature study into the rural schools by means of printed leaflets.

REFORM IN CHINA.

The Rev. Dr. Gilbert Reid contributes an important article on social and political reform in China. Unlike Japan, China is not left to make her own reforms, but is halted at every step by her international relations. Reforms lie in abeyance, but the Chinese respect learning, and if their own learning of many centuries can be retained while the learning from abroad is assimilated, the doors will be opened to truth and the country prepared for a vital and enduring reformation.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The arguments for and against old-age pensions are presented by the Hon. Michael Davitt, M.P., and the Hon. William H. Lecky, respectively; the Hon. F. C. Penfield, formerly United States diplomatic agent to Egypt, writes on the crushing of Mahdiism; and Mr. David W. Yancey describes the present deplorable administration of government in the Indian Territory.

THE ARENA.

IN the *Arena* for February the *pros* and *cons* of Mormonism are set forth by Mr. A. T. Schroeder, of the Salt Lake City bar, writing on "The Mormon Breach of Faith," and Mr. Theodore W. Curtis, describing Brigham H. Roberts as "The Dreyfus of America."

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC TOPICS.

Rev. Dr. H. T. Burgess describes several interesting social experiments in Australia, including state railroad system, government, telegraph, education, charities, and other departments of governmental activity.

There are two articles in this number on the money question. Mr. Henry Wood gives several cogent reasons why the unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 would be practically silver monometallism and, hence, disastrous; Mr. J. A. Collins, on the other hand, argues against the use of metallic money, since the volume of money metals being limited, the class that controls them has become virtually a despotism.

Lydia Ross, M.D., points out some of the immoral features of a competitive system, and Mr. Francis D. Tandy discusses certain of the problems connected with strikes, trusts, boycotts, and black lists.

Mr. Albert Watkins' paper on "Radicalism—East and West" is reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

Prof. William Carey Jones, of the University of California, describes the college of commerce recently organized in that institution, the curriculum of which includes as distinctive subjects economic, legal, political, and geographical studies, technological studies concerning transportation, and technological studies concerning the materials of commerce.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. C. Guffin contributes a paper on "Evolution Versus Imperialism;" F. C. Barker tells "How War Helps Trade;" Lurana W. Sheldon writes on "The Fifth Commandment;" and Edward C. Farnsworth and Swami Abhedananda discuss certain teachings of the Vedanta philosophy.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

THE principal feature in *Gunton's* for February is the discussion of labor in the South. Prof. Jerome Dowd, of Trinity College, North Carolina, endeavors to disprove the assertion so commonly made in the North that Southern cheap labor is due to a low standard of living among the employed classes. He admits that the Southern operatives receive less money than Northern operatives, but contends that with a given sum they can buy much more than the laborers of the North can buy. House rent, furniture, clothing, and provisions all require less outlay in the Southern States. To make good this contention Professor Dowd cites the statistics published by the United States Commissioner of Labor and makes a comparison of the prices for articles of food in Lowell, Mass., and Durham, N. C. He concludes that the average factory family in Massachusetts spends $53.26 per year for bread, while the average expenditure in North Carolina is only $44.78.

THE COST OF LIVING IN THE SOUTH.

Professor Gunton, however, does not feel assured by his contributor's reasoning that the cost of living is actually lower in Southern manufacturing centers than in Northern towns of similar size and character. He has just visited a number of factory towns in North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, and his observation is that most articles of food are sold at essentially the same prices in factory towns of similar size both South and East. He found like conditions to exist in the case of clothing and furniture, and although he admits that house rent is lower in the South, he was impressed with the inferior quality of the houses. Professor Gunton, therefore, is heartily in favor of a restriction of the hours of labor as a means of raising the standard of living.

In an article on "The Mormon Power in America" Mr. J. M. Scanland declares that the growing power of the Mormon Church is a menace to our Government and even to civilization. The church leaders, he says, believe it is their mission to rule the United States and ultimately the world, both spiritually and temporally, uniting church and state; and he asserts that they will work unceasingly to that end unless checked by some authority.

Prof. W. F. Edwards advocates the founding of a national university "where training shall be a minimum and research of a high order shall be a maximum." Professor Edwards' ideal is partially embodied in Clark University, at Worcester, Mass.

THE INTERNATIONAL MONTHLY.

THE political article in the February *International Monthly* is entitled "Japan's Entry Into the World's Politics," and is contributed by President Garrett Droppers, of the University of South Dakota, who was formerly a professor in the University of Tokyo. President Droppers sees in modern Japan a fair reflection of Western institutions and culture. Japan's aim is not to attempt to lead in the world's progress, but merely to keep step with the rank and file. In his opinion she has not yet met the full test of independent capacity, notwithstanding the fact that during 1899 she entered upon all the rights and privileges of a civilized nation in her relations with other world powers.

Three of the five articles in this number of the *International Monthly* are devoted to art. The opening paper, by W. J. Stillman, discusses art as a means of expression. Mr. H. D. Finck, the musical critic, writes on "The Opera in America and Europe," and Mr. E. Charlton Black outlines the future of the short story.

Prof. C. H. Toy, of Harvard, reviews "Recent Work in the Science of Religion."

THE SEWANEE REVIEW.

THE first number of this quarterly for 1900 is late in its appearance. The opening article, on "Remedies for Lynch Law," by "A Southern Lawyer," has been reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

In this number there is an interesting sketch of the late Prof. William Malone Baskerville, of Vanderbilt University, who died on September 6, 1899. Professor Baskerville is perhaps best known to the country at large as the author of "Southern Writers," that admirable series of biographical and critical studies.

Mr. Albert Watkins contributes a paper on "The Whigs as Anti-Expansionists," the motive of which is to show that those Whig leaders who declared their opposition to national expansion, so far from losing standing or prestige in their party, became the more influential in that organization and in its successor, the Republican party.

This number contains reviews of Fiske's "Through Nature to God," "The Stories of James Lane Allen," and the autobiography of Mrs. Oliphant. The second portion of Prof. W. P. Trent's "Poetry of the American Plantations" also appears in this number.

THE ANGLO-SAXON REVIEW.

THE belated appearance of the third volume of Lady Randolph Churchill's quarterly is due to the fact that the edition was destroyed by fire at the London printers' in December last. The cover design of this volume is very beautiful. The six portraits in photogravure which have a place in Volume III.—of Paderewski, Napoleon Bonaparte, Percy Bysshe Shelley, Mary Shelley, George Canning, and the mother of Mary Queen of Scots—are remarkably successful reproductions and show how much we owe to modern processes of illustration.

WAR ARTICLES.

As was naturally to be expected, a great part of the present volume is concerned with the South African War. Mr. Spenser Wilkinson writes on the art of going to war, Mr. Lionel Phillips on "Past and Future in South Africa," Mr. Stephen Wheeler on "Sikhs and Boers: A Parallel," and Mr. Sidney Low on "Some Battlepieces," while Lady Randolph Churchill herself devotes several pages to editorial discussion of the war, very appropriately quoting the record of her son's impressions made while a prisoner at Pretoria.

As if these papers were not sufficient to slake the British thirst for martial discourse, a paper entitled "War Memories" is contributed by Stephen Crane, one of the very few Americans who have thus far secured admission to the charmed circle of the *Anglo-Saxon*. The financial and political condition of Spain is reviewed by Señor Moret y Prendergast.

Mr. G. R. Askwith contributes some notes on the personalities connected with the Anglo-Venezuelan arbitration at Paris. This writer has only words of praise for Mr. Justice Brewer and for ex-President Benjamin Harrison, General Tracy, Mr. Soley, and Mr. Mallet-Prevost, the Americans who presented Venezuela's case.

Mr. David Hannay, writing of "Our Sea Fights with the Dutch," says that the Englishman who looks back on his country's naval history gets a great respect for the Dutch.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

BESIDES the five articles in the February *Fortnightly* relating to the war and South Africa, there are several papers that call for special notice.

THE MODERN DRAMA.

There are three articles about the drama. Professor Hertford translates a scene from Ibsen's "Love's Comedy," which he declares is incomparably the finest of the few plays of Ibsen which still remain inaccessible to the English reader. Mr. G. Barnett Smith devotes sixteen pages to an article upon Richard Cumberland, the novelist and dramatist, who was described by Oliver Goldsmith as "the Terence of England, the mender of hearts." More interesting than either of these is Mr. George Moore's "Preface to the Bending of the Bough." It is impossible to write plays in England excepting for money, and what is done for money is mediocre. Only sport has escaped the thraldom of money. What Mr. Moore wishes to see is that two or three individuals should spend money on an Irish literary theater as freely as they would upon pheasant-shooting. Mr. Moore maintains that art has passed from England. England has sung enough, and there are no songs like her songs, and now she is engaged in the work of middle age. Art has left France, Germany, and Russia. It still lingers in Norway, but the only place in the western hemisphere which is likely to afford a home for art is Ireland. Art shuns wealth, but art needs some ease of life. For the first time for centuries starvation and oppression seem fading from the face of Ireland. The language is reviving, serious poetry is beginning again, and plays written without desire of gain for love of art are offered to the Irish rather than to the English public.

THE RUSKIN HALL MOVEMENT.

Two writers unite to tell us the advantages of Ruskin Hall, an institution established at Oxford as a labor college. Residence at Ruskin Hall costs 10 shillings ($2.50) a week, including board, lodging, and plain laundry. The tuition fees amount to 10 shillings a month,

and thus for £31 ($155) a student may be in residence for a year, attend the whole course of lectures, and have the advantage of tutorial supervision. Scholarships valued at £6 ($30) a year have been provided, and arrangements are made for the extension of these scholarships. Negotiations are going on for establishing a second school in Birmingham and a third in Manchester. There is a correspondence department which has about 600 members. The fee is £2 ($10) for the first month and a shilling (25 cents) a month afterward. The aim and object of Ruskin Hall is to teach its students citizenship, to teach them how to be better men rather than better machines. The institution seems to have a prospect of considerable development.

RUSSIA AND MOROCCO.

A writer signing himself "Calpe" complains that Russia is showing indications of activity in Morocco, where she has no interests, and is only acting at the instigation of France. England holds one-third of the entire commerce of Morocco and Russia has none at all. Nevertheless Morocco is going to exhibit at Paris and is even thinking of exhibiting at Glasgow. Russia has one solitary subject—a native Jew—in Morocco, but she maintains a minister and a legation at the court of the Sultan, and lately she has established a Russian credit bank. The writer of the article thinks that France has made a serious blunder in thrusting Russia into Morocco. He thinks that the action of Russia is a very grave menace.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Judge O'Connor Morris takes Sir Herbert Maxwell's life of Wellington as the text for an article on the great Duke. Mr. W. H. Mallock once more expounds his views as to the lack of logic in the non-dogmatic Christianity of Mrs. Humphry Ward.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for February is largely devoted to the new discovery of Britain's military inefficiency and the remedies required. The number begins with an article by the late Sir George Chesney on the "'Confusion Worse Confounded' at the War Office," which is followed by one from Sir Herbert Maxwell on the militia. Lord de Vesci writes on "The Militia Ballot" and Col. Lonsdale Hale on "Our Peace Training for War." Mr. John Macdonell's article on "Neutrals and the War" has also a timely interest.

CONTINUITY OF CATHOLICISM.

The Rev. R. F. Clarke, S.J., makes a strenuous attack on Dr. Mivart, whose apology for doctrinal changes within the Church arises, he says, from his misconception of the true character of Catholic continuity. Dr. Mivart's idea of continuity is really only the delicate graduation of all changes in belief, and black may become white and white black if various shades of gray intervene and make the change imperceptible. But such a continuity as this is utterly alien to the Catholic Church, and Father Clarke declares flatly that black and white must remain black and white to the end, and that there must be no change even after a thousand years. But Father Clarke qualifies this dogma by admitting that changes, or "accretions to belief," have taken place in the popular mind; but these, he says, have no official sanction at all. He says:

"It is vital to the very existence of the Catholic Church that her continuity should be a continuity of dogma so complete and so all-embracing that not only should no possible change be admitted in a single word of the original definition, but that there should not be the very smallest departure from the meaning of each word of it as understood at the time when it was first defined. He who does not grasp this fact does not know what Catholic dogma means."

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING IN ENGLAND.

Mr. A. A. Campbell-Swinton, writing on "Electrical Engineering and the Municipalities," gives some reasons why England is so far behind in the utilization of electrical inventions. This is not due to any want of interest in the subject, for no country has produced more distinguished inventors in the domain of electricity. It is the consequence of legislation, for which both the British parties are responsible. Mr. Chamberlain's electric lighting act of 1882 for six years quenched all electrical enterprise, for under it the municipalities could buy out the private investor who bore all the risk of a new invention on terms which left him no margin of profit. Electric tramways have been similarly hampered by legislation, with the result that while America has now some 20,000 miles, there are only a few hundreds in England. The consequence of this is that now when the use of electricity for locomotion is increasing, nine-tenths of the plant must be imported from the United States. The whole of the electrical plant for the Central London Railway comes from America, and American manufacturers are now about to establish works in England to supply the new demand. All this is due to the opposition of the municipalities, which, being unable to undertake such enterprises, were jealous of private enterprise doing so.

MYSTICISM IN SCANDINAVIA.

Miss Hermione Ramsden, writing on "The New Mysticism in Scandinavia," gives some very interesting particulars as to recent literary developments in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. She describes and quotes the writings of Jacobsen, Jorgenson, Vilhelm Krag, and Selma Lagerlöf, the best of Sweden's writers. Mysticism in Scandinavia is a reaction against the problem novel and against realism.

A NEW USE FOR AIR GUNS.

Mr. R. B. Townshend has an article on "Some Stray Shots and a Moral," the main interest of which is that he recommends practice with the air gun as the preparatory school for the rifleman. For the essential thing in field-shooting is the practiced celerity of hand and eye that brings backsight, foresight, and object swiftly into line. By the use of the air gun this quality may be acquired without expense and without any of the inconveniences of rifle-shooting:

"Nine shots in the minute is rapid work, and I have seen ten shots fired in the time, and every shot hit the ring. You may be sure that any one who can do that would be an uncomfortably formidable opponent behind a Lee-Metford. I have known a boy who was trained thus, and he proved to be an excellent shot with the Lee-Metford from the start. The main recommendation of the air gun is that you can use it in your own back garden and that it is extremely cheap. With slugs at 1 shilling a thousand the cost is insignificant, while with Lee-Metford cartridges at £7, or even with

Morris tube ammunition at 25 shillings a thousand, the expense is very perceptibly greater. I prefer the No. 1 size air gun to the No. 3, as being in my experience more accurate and safer as well, the range being less. Most of the No. 1 size which I have seen, however, are too light, weighing only 5 or 5½ pounds. It is a great improvement to get a strip of sheet lead, about 8 inches by 1½ and weighing a couple of pounds. Bend this lengthways rather more than half round along the under side of the barrel in front of the breech, where the forehand should be, and fix it in place by a strong wrapping of waxed twine passing round it and over the top of the barrel. This gives an excellent grip for the left hand and makes the gun a reasonable weight. It is a good plan to get the gun with a 6-pound trigger pull, so as to be uniform with the government arm; but I also possess one with a light pull, 'the German release,' which is admirably smooth."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Lord Burghclere translates part of the second book of Virgil's Georgics. Miss G. L. Bell describes a stay in "The Alps of Dauphiné." Sir Wemyss Reid continues his survey of the month's newspapers.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for February has the inevitable article on "The Lessons of the War," with Mr. Auberon Herbert's "Tragedy of Errors" and a paper entitled "A Cry for Capacity," in which Mr. H. W. Massingham lays his finger on the real evils which, far more than military inefficiency, have led to the present breakdown of the imperial system. There are also two articles on the late Dr. Martineau, a paper on "Foodstuffs as Contraband of War," and a reply by Mr. Robert Buchanan to Sir Walter Besant.

THE SAMOAN SURRENDER.

Mr. R. Wardlaw-Thompson has an article on Samoa, which is devoted largely to the internal condition of the island, but is in essence a protest against the handing over of the island to Germany, not because of the surrender of imperial interests, but on the moral ground that the nations had not been consulted. Mr. Thompson says:

"Great Britain, for ends of her own, without consulting the wishes of the people, without giving them an opportunity of expressing their preference, without apparently any consideration of the strong ties of sympathy that have been created between them and herself by missionary laborers and the supporters of missionary societies, hands over the right to annex and govern the islands to another power. There may, it is true, be no reason to fear that the power in whose favor Great Britain withdraws will be likely to put any pressure upon the religious convictions of the people, nor is there reason to fear that its rule will be unjust and harsh. But this does not touch the point at issue. Is such transference of the subject peoples of the world by one power to another, altogether without regard to the wishes of the people themselves, quite in accord with Christian ideas of duty? Is such transference in such a case as Samoa justifiable from any point of view? The question is one which merits more than a passing thought, and which men who are accustomed to look at political as well as other questions from the point of view of conscience will find rather a puzzling one for a clear and satisfactory answer."

THE NEGRO PROBLEM IN AMERICA.

Mr. Philip Alexander Bruce contributes an article on "The American Negro of To-day," which is little more than a wholesale denunciation of the blacks, and indeed almost a justification of lynching and the worst outrages and oppression practiced by the white inhabitants of the Southern States upon the negroes. Mr. Bruce is himself a Virginian, and he can see no good in the negro and no hope whatever for him in the future. The only negroes who have ever gained any distinction since the Civil War have, he says, had an intermixture of white blood in their veins. The present tendency, however, is toward the diminution of the mixed breed and the reversion of the mulatto to the aboriginal type; and unions between the two races are becoming rarer and rarer every day. The consequence is that the division every year becomes sharper. Mr. Bruce asserts that if several millions of blacks were introduced into England as laborers to-morrow, lynching would become a common phenomenon there in less than a year. He thinks that when the white population of the Southern States has increased largely the negroes will die out naturally. Nothing except emigration can save them from this, and there is little chance of their emigrating. Mr. Bruce thinks that there will be in South Africa a similar difficulty when the white population shall have reached several millions of men.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are three other articles. Miss Ada Cone writes on "French Women in Industry;" Professor Conway, writing under the strange title of "The K-Folk, the Q-Folk, and the P-Folk," discusses some problems of philology; and Mr. Norman Hapgood has an article on Eugene Fromentin, the French painter and writer.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE *National Review* for February contains several interesting articles bearing directly upon questions of living interest.

Considering the evidence which is afforded by the other articles in the *National* as to the decadence of Protestant England, it is rather curious to find the Rev. Dr. Horton warning his countrymen to avoid all coquetting with the papists, lest England should share the fate of the dying nations:

"The pathetic figures of ruined Italy and ruined Spain and now France stricken to the heart—the Latin races, which is but another name for the nations under the see of Rome, decadent and frantic in their decay—rise up before us a warning."

Dr. Horton states the grounds of his fears as follows:

"1. The prodigious growth of conventual establishments in this country.

"2. The training of Protestant children in Catholic schools.

"3. The methods which Catholic ethics permit the propagandist to use in making proselytes, on the one hand presenting Catholicism under a guise of Protestant truth, and on the other hand extending Catholic indulgence to some of our worst sins.

"4. The apostolate of the press.

"5. The persecution maintained by the Catholic press."

MARS AS A WORLD.

Prof. R. A. Gregory writes a very interesting paper on what has recently been discovered as to the geography and conditions of life on Mars. He tells us all that is known about the canals, the oases, and possible forms of life. One Martian, he thinks, would be able to do as much work as fifty or sixty men. Speaking of the evidence of the existence of water as snow and ice, he says:

"Two months before the longest day in the southern hemisphere of Mars the polar cap was seen at Mr. Lowell's observatory as an unbroken waste of white more than 2,000 miles across. Hundreds of square miles of this Martian ice and snow disappeared daily, melted by the sun's rays, and as it melted a dark band appeared surrounding it on all sides. The obvious conclusion is that this dark blue ring was water produced by the melting of the polar snow, which interpretation is supported by the fact that as the white cap dwindled the band kept pace with it and persistently bordered the disappearing icy crown."

THE HOUSING PROBLEM IN LONDON.

In beginning a paper on the London housing problem Mr. H. Percy Harris says:

"In 1884 public attention was drawn to the evil conditions under which masses of the population were living by the publication in the *Pall Mall Gazette* of a series of articles entitled 'The Bitter Cry of Outcast London.' The result was the appointment of an exceptionally powerful royal commission to inquire into the housing of the working classes, and a report by that commission, which in its turn led to important results."

The point of Mr. Harris' paper is that the Conservative party is bound to do what it can to give effect to the housing act. He sums up his advice as follows:

"To administrators who hold that municipal bodies should loyally discharge duties imposed upon them by Parliament only one course seems open. It is to make a trial, at any rate, of the powers contained in Part III. of the housing act; to put to the test of experience the vexed question as to the possibility of combining the two systems of municipal and private enterprise; to see whether the municipality cannot do something to encourage private enterprise by leasing suitable sites to private companies or otherwise, and thus minimize the dangers which are feared if it comes forward as a mere competitor in the building trade."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. W. R. Lawson, writing on "The War Chest of the Boers," is interesting and important, for he tells us as the result of his examination of the subject that between financing, commandeering, taxing, fining, looting, confiscating, coining other people's gold, forced currency, and ultimate bankruptcy, the war chest of the Boers is not likely to run dry in a hurry.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

THE *Westminster Review* for February contains several articles of much vigor and more than ordinary pointedness.

THE FOREIGN FRIENDS OF ENGLAND.

Dr. Karl Blind, in a paper entitled "Exiles in England," protests indignantly against Professor Vambery's suggestion that because England offered shelter to exiles all martyrs of liberty should support her, even if in their view England's best interests were injured by the mistaken and reprehensible action of men who happened to be at the helm. Dr. Blind says truly enough that there is a better England and a worse England, and when the worse one gets on top it is the duty of all exiles in England and honest men everywhere to defend the true English notions of liberty, humanity, and civilization against the government of the day. Dr. Blind says that the harm done to England by the present war will be truly incalculable. The watchful and friendly observer whose power of judgment is not restricted by insular prejudice experiences an uncomfortable presentiment as to the ultimate result.

THE DEVIL AND HIS ALIASES.

Mr. Oliphant Smeaton writes an interesting paper, the object of which is to prove that "the Hebrew 'Satan,' the Persian 'Ahriman,' the Hindoo 'Siva,' the Scandinavian 'Loki,' the Greek 'Eumenides,' and the Mexican 'Tlacatecolotl' are all modifications of the one basic principle."

The first conception of Satan was an incarnate principle personified in a being whose office was to inflict evil upon mankind, at first as a minister of God and later on his own account. The Mexican Satan has an unpronounceable name, which being translated means "he who revels in sin." It is a significant fact that many of the qualities afterward ascribed to the Mexican God of War were originally identified with the Mexican devil who "reveled in sin:"

"Others might be named, such as the 'Taipo' of the Maories, the 'Looern' or 'Wiwonderrer' of the Australian aborigines, the 'Gauna' of the Hottentots, the 'Erlik' of Altaian Shamanism, the 'Eblis' or 'Azazil' of Mohammedanism."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is an interesting account of an old treatise on sanitation and the improvement of health by the proper preparation of food, taken from a book published in the seventeenth century. Frances Heath Freshfield writes on discourtesy and rudeness as "an every-day crime." There is a paper on "Israel Before the Prophetic Reformation," and Mr. Ewen again writes in favor of free trade in gold.

CORNHILL MAGAZINE.

IN *Cornhill* for February there is an article, which we have quoted elsewhere, by Maj. Arthur Griffiths, describing the intelligence department of the British War Office.

Freiheer von Elft describes a conversation "At a Free State Toll Bar" with a Dutch official, sent out a lecturer on physics to Pretoria, whom he addresses as member of a "Hollander clique," and who declares that he wishes to make war against England because it is a "national characteristic" of the Dutch to be jealous of the mistress of the seas. He ends his article by announcing that this member of the Hollander clique, which has "completed the ruin of the Transvaal," was severely wounded in battle and only escaped with "a stiff limb for life." As members of "cliques" are not as a rule particularly anxious to be wounded in battle, Mr. von Elft's attempt to give us a bad opinion of the Hollanders is not very successful.

Mr. Ernest Ensor writes on "The Humors of an Irish Country Town." Mr. A. Innes Shand describes the

political life of Doddington, "The Sycophant of the Last Century." "One of the Old School" writes on "Manners and Customs of Yesterday and To-day," and the Rev. H. C. Beeching on "Izaak Walton's Life of Donne." The rest of the number is made up of fiction.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE *Quarterly Review* has articles on "The War in South Africa" and on "The Years Before the Raid." We have quoted from these papers in our "Leading Articles of the Month."

BRITISH INTERESTS IN CHINA.

The article on British interests in China is somewhat out of date, as the reviewer speaks of the personality of the recently deposed Emperor as a factor governing the situation and of the Dowager Empress' faction as a declining element. The young Emperor, he says, might have removed the capital from Pekin to Nanking:

"The transfer of the court to Nanking would present a series of advantages. It would remove the Emperor and his *entourage* from the immediate focus of disturbance. It would put an end to the faction conflicts that now divide the court, and would perhaps get rid of the Manchu element altogether. The reform party, on whom the Emperor relied before the *coup d'état*, were exclusively Chinese. The reactionaries of the Empress Dowager's party were mainly Manchus. The hope of the empire rests with the Chinese, or, as we might term them, the national party. An emperor freed from Manchu domination, reigning at Nanking and supported by an Anglo-Saxon union, would give the best promise of future stability and progress."

GOETHE AND THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

The article under this title is devoted to an inquiry as to the present status of Goethe as a great literary leader. The Carlylean ideal Goethe no longer exists:

"We must turn to Goethe himself, and the key to his work is his life. Much of his poetry may in itself seem dull or old-fashioned to us nowadays, much may be without inherent charm; but few are able to escape the spell of that wonderful, many-colored life, without question the most wonderful in the annals of literary men. To appreciate Goethe the poet, we must first study Goethe the man. As he himself once said to Eckermann, he is no poet for the mass. His works are written for individual men 'who have set up similar aims before them and are making their way along similar paths.' To study him may not make us better citizens or better patriots, but it will give us, to use an expression of his own, 'a certain inward freedom.' And, after all, 'inward freedom' is one of the most precious things that can be communicated by one mind to another."

OCEAN LINERS.

There is an interesting article on ocean liners, in which the development of transoceanic steam navigation is traced. In summing up, the reviewer expresses the opinion that we have got to the end of our resources as far as speed is concerned, until some new propulsive medium shall be discovered:

"Those who are sanguine respecting the probability of largely increased speeds fail to take account of the conditions which have facilitated the past increase in the rate of traveling. The reduction of speed by one-half has occupied sixty years, which have been characterized by the most remarkable developments in the machinery of propulsion. Without such developments these great advances in speed would not have been possible. There is good reason to believe that the sources of energy at present available and the mechanical details of their transformation have now and for several years past been utilized to the utmost degree. Therefore unless some further radical improvement in the machinery of propulsion occur no important increase of speed can be obtained. The truth lies in a nutshell: energy cannot be created—it can only be transformed. To produce a given speed a corresponding amount of energy must be stored up and utilized in the vessel. Coal contains the latent force, while the machinery forms the agency of utilization. To gain a little more speed would involve storing much more coal; and this would mean a demand on space so disproportionate that there would not be enough room left for passengers and cargo to render a vessel a paying venture."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are articles on "The Personality of R. L. Stevenson," on "The Genius of Rome," and on "The Sentiment of Thackeray." The writer of the article on "French Criminal Procedure" thinks that we should borrow from France the system of the *action publique*, which is a better guarantee for the safety of life and property than any private prosecution.

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

THE article on the war in South Africa in the new *Edinburgh* is briefly noticed elsewhere.

Perhaps the most notable article of the number is that in which the reviewer solemnly proclaims the advent of a new great poet in Mr. Stephen Phillips, whose play, "Paolo and Francesca," is lauded in language somewhat hyperbolical in its terms. After declaring that "there is among us a man who can stir in us the old thrill and rouse us to a sense of the tragic beauty, the haunting mystery of life," the reviewer proceeds to declare:

"Now there is published what is a new thing in the literature of England since the days of Shakespeare and his friends—a play written in close conformity with stage requirements, which is in every respect a poem. And it is on the strength of this work that we are bold not to predict, but claim for Mr. Phillips a place among the really great names in English poetry. There are no redundancies. The temptation to eloquence, even to lyrical poetry, is everywhere severely repressed, yet in every scene there is poetry, and in almost all there is great poetry. Since the 'Cenci' no drama at all approaching it in the essential qualities of passion and beauty has been written, and this is what the 'Cenci' is not, an acting play."

INDUSTRIAL ARBITRATION.

The first article is devoted to this subject. The reviewer advocates the establishment of a general board of conciliation. He says:

"It would seem that for influencing the course of great disputes, if any such should unhappily arise, the action of a State Department should be supplemented. And for this object there is a great deal to be said for the establishment of a central board representing the whole body of employers and employed who should act as a court of appeal, or of reference, from the judgments

of local conciliation boards. We are well aware that the difficulties in the way of the constitution of such a body are very great. But they are not necessarily insuperable. . . . Details may and do vary. But there are principles of universal effect. Local conciliation boards may well deal with details. A general board might exercise a powerful influence in the application of principles, and it would undoubtedly command more confidence than a State Department, however ably officered. . . . There already exists the nucleus of such a body on each side. With prudence and care there might be produced a valuable development of the Association of Employers and the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress."

THE VENEZUELAN ARBITRATION.

In the article on the arbitration settlement of the Venezuelan frontier the writer mentions the inconvenience of M. Martens having to attend the Hague conference while the court was sitting in Paris. On the whole, however, he is well pleased. He says:

"But whatever temporary disadvantages or avoidable errors may have been present, the arbitration as a whole is an interesting and instructive lesson, and the first great arbitration, unless the Bering Sea arbitration can claim similar praise, in which neither side has shown signs of resentment at the award and neither side impugned the reasons of the decision."

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

There are articles on J. E. Millais and James Russell Lowell. Of the latter the reviewer says "his life was complete to a degree not frequently seen, and a knowledge of it will assist those on this side of the Atlantic to understand the growth during the last three-quarters of a century of the American people. It represents so many phases of national thought and feeling."

Mr. Trevelyan's "Age of Wycliff" is reviewed with appreciation in an article entitled "The Peasants' Rising of 1381." Mr. Trevelyan, says the reviewer, has given us a connected story of an intricate and important period which is both valuable and novel.

In the review of Mr. Kent's historical sketch of the English Radicals we are told that "the old Radicals were possessed by a strong faith in the principles they avowed, and by a spirit of optimism as to the blessed effects which their adoption would produce—'They knew exactly what they wanted, and knowing it, they pursued it with unconquerable zeal.'"

Mr. Andrew Lang, or whoever it is that writes the article on "A Side Scene in Thought," gossips sympathetically about Dr. Dee, Simon Forman, and William Lily, with whom at the close of the seventeenth century magic as magic, with all its squalid miseries of sorcery and witchcraft, practically came to a close in England.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS AND MAGAZINES.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

WITH the exception of the article on telegraphic cables in time of war, noticed elsewhere, the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January contains no article of outstanding importance; but as regards papers of average merit and average interest it exhibits no falling off from its customary high standard.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

There is a remarkable article by Count Goblet D'Alviella on proportional representation. It is to be feared that by the generality of the public this subject is regarded as somewhat dry, but it is made more "actual" now by the fact that the Belgian Chamber has just adopted, after prolonged discussion, a bill applying the principles of proportional representation to elections for the legislature. The question had proved fatal to two ministries, but the third achieved the success proverbially assigned to the third attempt. M. D'Alviella, though he traces the history of the movement in various countries, does not clearly indicate the provisions of the new Belgian law, but he explains in general terms the conclusion to which his inquiry has led him—namely, that proportional representation is no panacea, but that it does rectify the mechanism of parliamentary government, and it does explode the fiction, which obtains under the ordinary system, that the representatives who are elected are representative of the minority as well as of the majority. He claims for it that it guarantees the rights of the true majority, while at the same time it prevents the abuse of power by a minority exceptionally favored in the chances of voting. It may, perhaps, he admits, lean to the multiplication of political groups, but he considers that it weakens party spirit and tends to strengthen business politics and to weaken the element of mere contentiousness.

THE FRENCH COLONIAL ARMY.

In the second January number Colonel Lyautey deals with the French colonial army, or rather with the part which the French army plays in the colonies. After the preliminary process of conquest and occupation the French soldiers become important factors in the process of pacification, and are transformed, this article tells us, in an increasing measure into tillers of the soils, artisans, and teachers. Thus in Madagascar General Gallieni strove to utilize the particular aptitudes of each one of his troops to the best advantage. Obviously such non-military functions can be better fulfilled by an army of conscripts than by a more professional soldiery. Moreover, General Gallieni's system of dispersing his troops throughout the country gave them in many cases a strong link with the soil, and induced not a few to remain there. This development was fostered by a system of land concessions, and by the facilities given to the men to marry countrywomen of their own by the Société d'Emigration des Femmes, founded on the model of the United British Women's Emigration Society. As for the objection that this system demilitarizes the men, Colonel Lyautey declares that, on the contrary, it merely "decorporalizes" them, by which he means that it withdraws them from useless military routine without depriving them of their manly qualities, their initiative, their responsibility, and their judgment. Of course France does not employ her own sons alone in her colonies. Considerable use is made of native troops, notably in Tonquin and Madagascar. Generally speaking, the object is to obtain a colonial army, not simply an army in the colonies. A colonial army, says Colonel Lyautey, should be before all things self-governing, independent, and not liable to be absorbed into or modeled upon some other organism to which it is attached. It must, of course, also be provided with an extremely flexible or-

ganization, and its arrangements in general must be quickly capable of revision, and even of complete reform, in the light of practical experience. It is interesting to note, by the way, that Colonel Lyautey has unbounded admiration for the non-commissioned officer, whose infinitely various capacities remind us of his English brother so graphically portrayed by Mr. Kipling.

THE COMEDY OF ELECTIONS IN JAPAN.

M. Bellessort continues his amusing account of his travels in Japan with a paper on the comedy of elections in that surprising country. The electoral campaign which M. Bellessort witnessed was one which followed the dissolution of the Marquis Ito's government. It was explained to M. Bellessort that the frequency of general elections in Japan was intentional and designed as a kind of practice in parliamentarism, a sort of electoral gymnastics. The Japanese, in other words, desire to lose no time in the process of completely familiarizing themselves with Western parliamentary methods. Moreover, it has the advantage of permitting a Japanese elector to exercise the suffrage in his short life as frequently as a European country does in a century. It is a kind of syllabus of political education, which undertakes to turn out old and experienced citizens in fifteen or twenty lessons. Unfortunately the expense of frequent elections proves a considerable burden, though at the same time it softens the bellicose enthusiasm of the electors.

A well-known statesman said to M. Bellessort: "We are more ripe for the representative *régime* than we think, and our parliamentarism, which is still oligarchical, is only the intellectual transition from our old and brutal feudalism." Indeed, it would be surprising if the sudden transition from feudalism to parliamentary institutions did not bring with it some surprising and even comic results. Most conspicuous, perhaps, are the *soshis*, a regular profession of electoral bravos who do not stick at bounds, and yet are perfectly well recognized as a regular institution, to belong to which carries no disgrace.

Politics in Japan consist of the struggles of certain factions who have adopted the names of Western political parties just for the look of the thing without meaning anything by the names, for the Japanese voter does not vote for an idea, but for a man. He has the feudal loyalty of his clan. The great object of the factions is to capture the Emperor, who is, of course, a tower of strength to whichever side he lends his countenance. It must not be thought that these factions threaten the national security; they intrigue much more than they fight; and it is really owing to the *soshis* mostly that there is any excitement at all in a Japanese election. Among the curiosities of the election which M. Bellessort witnessed may be mentioned the case of an actor who had established a kind of *théâtre libre*. He contested the division of Tokyo, and though he commanded an extraordinary amount of feminine influence, he only obtained 45 votes.

In Japan there is an electoral qualification consisting of the payment of a fairly large sum in direct taxation, and it often happens that candidates with more ambition than money are obliged, in order to qualify themselves, to obtain adoption by parents of sufficient wealth. This adoption is done with Japanese thoroughness, and the new member of a family entirely abandons his old ties of blood and takes over the ancestors and the domestic worship of his new parents. An amusing story is related of a distinguished Japanese economist who had arranged a suitable adoption, and the affair was about to be concluded when it was discovered that his prospective father was ten years younger than himself. The matter was referred to the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Justice, and the answer was that such an anomaly could on no account be permitted; so that the unfortunate economist had to continue his search for a parent of sufficient years as well as sufficient wealth.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among other articles may be mentioned a study of the writings of Hamlin Garland, by Th. Bentzon; a paper by the Duc de Broglie on Charles XII. of Sweden at the camp of Altranstadt; the continuation in two articles of M. Lenthéric's papers on the French seaboard and ports; the continuation of the Duc de Broglie's series on the neutralization of Belgium; and a learned paper on "Art and Science" by the Vicomte d'Athémar.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

AT the present moment the most interesting contributions to the *Nouvelle Revue* are those which deal with the British army and with the political outlook.

FRANCE AND THE TRANSVAAL.

The editors of the most militant of continental reviews give their new year place of honor to a long account of President Krüger, largely based on Mr. Poultney Bigelow's book, "The White Man's Africa." It need hardly be said that the whole article, which is well and clearly written, is of course full of sympathy for its subject. But owing to the fact that M. Jadot has not apparently had the opportunity of procuring any original sources of information, no passage can be said to be specially noteworthy.

Again, it is a pity that M. Delines, when attempting to give a familiar picture of the British army, contented himself with referring to a work, written by M. Vassilevski, which contains, as so often happens when a foreigner attempts to make a study of an essentially national product, a curious mixture of painstaking observations, coupled with astounding inaccuracies. These, as were to be expected, are most to be found in the account of the life led by the officers. Whatever may have been once the case, the British officer of today is by no means an epicurean sybarite, a "carpet knight and the corespondent on most of the more romantic divorce cases, perverted, capricious, and *blasé*, who inhabits a palace, has a negro for a groom, a French *chef* as cook, and an income which varies from tens to hundreds of thousands of pounds." Even Ouida never went to such extravagant lengths when describing her young guardsmen, and even she would be the first to admit that her heroes are rare exotic blossoms in no sense typical of their class!

More worthy of attention are the powerful and eloquent diatribes of Mme. Juliette Adam. In the second January number of the *Revue* she warns her Portuguese friends that they have all to fear from British perfidy, "for when Albion begins to talk about her right to do anything in the name of humanity everything may be feared from her selfish unscrupulousness." Madame Adam hints at some kind of *rapprochement* between England and Germany. "Well aware by previous experiences that William II. is always open to some kind

of deal, Mr. Chamberlain, in the name of humanity, will persuade the German Emperor, to please his grandmother, to commit an act of brigandage. . . . It may, however, be doubted whether the world will care to help Portugal to defend herself against these robbers."

A POLAR EXPLORATION.

Those to whom the subject of polar exploration always presents a certain fascination will find much to interest them in M. Rouvier's curious and instructive article on what may be called the side issues of the subject. He points out that while certain great explorers—English, American, German, Swedish—were making the world ring with their names, certain scientists were doing just as good work in another direction; and it is to them (such men as Weyprecht, Mohn, Buchan, and Nordenskiold) that the happy man who finally reaches either pole will be largely indebted. Dr. Nansen, unlike many of his predecessors, was a scientist as well as an explorer; and he brought back from his last voyage carefully drawn-up reports of many discoveries made by him which will, at any rate, form a valuable base for those of his successors who wish to solve the polar enigma. M. Rouvier notes with satisfaction that the modern expedition tends to become more and more scientific in its objects.

THE CLERICAL PROBLEM IN FRANCE.

The dissolution of the Assumptionist Order gives a certain actuality to M. Loiseau's notes on clericalism. The writer has made a number of careful notes in the rural districts of France, and as a result he declares that although there does not seem to survive in the country districts any great religious feeling or enthusiasm, there is no bitterness of feeling against the parish priest; that, on the contrary, they are, when sensible and upright men, treated with more respect and good feeling than are even the municipal authorities. In the great towns there are violently anti-Christian centers, but these are carefully worked up and in no sense owing to anti-clericalism *per se*. Under a monarchy and under an empire the village priest was often regarded as belonging to the powers that be, and the more independent spirits revolted accordingly. But this is no longer the case in France, and in the majority of cases the country clergy are recruited from the peasantry and the *bourgeoisie*. For hundreds of years the clergy were, of course, a privileged class. Their privileges have now utterly disappeared, and perhaps this is why they are on the whole more beloved than they once were.

Among other articles is a curious historical survey by M. Neton of the relations of France and Prussia from 1791 to 1801.

OTHER FRENCH REVIEWS.

ON the subject of British policy in South Africa the *Journal des Economistes* says:

"If the imperialist policy in launching the forces of England in South African adventures strangely compromises the national prestige, so also industrial England, which formerly was in advance of all countries, is to-day menaced in all the markets of the world. Now, the imperialist policy has had the effect of weakening the English productive strength when it was necessary to increase it in order to sustain a rivalry that has become pressing. It is impossible not to be struck by the coincidence of the diminution of its foreign commerce and its territorial aggrandizement."

Very pertinent, but less striking because obvious, is another remark by M. de Molinari, the writer quoted above: "The campaign undertaken by the friends of peace against militarism has not had the success that was expected. . . . The Transvaal war has served as an epilogue to the Hague conference."

Everywhere the South African War is a theme for discussion, a text for moralizing, or a mark for jests. The *Revue Scientifique* makes its compliments to the English army in this fashion:

"By a strange anomaly a practical, utilitarian people, noted for not being satisfied with words, finds that it has an instrument of war without solidity. Its army, a survival from a remote past, has not known how to infuse itself with the spirit which has made the industry of the country so powerful, which has given it so much vitality. This army counted for nothing at all before 1900. For years and years it has been a negligible quantity."

THE RUSSIAN MAGAZINES.

A CONTRIBUTOR to the Russian *Voshod*, for December, under the title "The Literature of the Jewish Jargon in America," has given some translations from that strange dialect, which, as many of our readers know, consists of old German with an admixture of Polish, Russian, and Hebrew, sprinkled with cant terms from various trades and handicrafts. The *Revue des Revues* quotes a couple of passages. If the original is faithfully reflected in translation, Kobrine's style is certainly remarkable for its simplicity and strength. Here is a pleasant picture of tenement life in the city of New York. It is from Kobrine's "Why Berl Removed." The time is during the hot weather of summer:

"There comes a time when the roofs of the immense houses are transformed into sleeping-places. On the roof of a six-story house in Norfolk Street, already now for some nights there had slept fifteen tenants with their wives, children, and boarders. About 11 o'clock an infernal uproar is heard. Men and women hardly dressed run up there loaded with pillows, mattresses, and sheets. They take by assault the corners and install themselves comfortably, evading to some extent indiscreet glances, though practically it is impossible to dream of conveniences. The men for the most part figure in drawers and the women with arms and bosoms bare. The children skip about in shirts."

Kobrine's account of his efforts, failures, and sufferings in trying to get a living is hardly less realistic, and it shows that his becoming a writer was a sort of fatality:

"This furious work at night exhausted me so much that the third evening I lost consciousness, and our employer sent me away with a certificate of my complete incapacity for becoming a baker. . . . And in this manner through all my life I have endured misery, and I have suffered in every way, finding respite only in the moments when I was writing. The principal (if it was not the only) reason of my incapacity for physical work was my irresistible call to write. In my head there were stirring always thoughts which carried me far from the sewing machines, shirts, cigars, and even the little loaves. . . . While I was at work some subject always preoccupied me, and my arms fell. I was not able to drive away the scenes and pictures sketched in my brain. I worked as in a dream."

THE GERMAN MAGAZINES.

DEUTSCHE REVUE.

THE twenty-fifth birthday of this high-class magazine is duly celebrated by a preface from the pen of Richard Fleischer, in which the able editor looks back upon the stand the *Deutsche Revue* has always taken in questions of liberty, progress, and sober national aspirations. He outlines the future policy and chief aims of the *Deutsche Revue* and speaks modestly of his own share in its past and future work. Horst Kohl, the compiler of Bismarck's reminiscences, publishes some characteristic letters which Minister Count Frederic Eulenberg wrote to the great German statesman. In "New Education" G. Kaibel discusses the tendency to substitute a more practical, technical, and matter-of-fact schooling for the present classical college courses, and breaks a lance for the maintenance of poetry in the education of the German youth. The well-known German actor, Ludwig Barnay, speaks in his article on "Stage Virtuosi" in favor of the "star" system, and shows its advantages from his own experience as well as from that of many renowned actors. Most remarkable is Prof. Dr. Hegar's article, "The best Prevention of Diseases and Defects," in which he pleads earnestly for the passing of laws "forbidding marriage to all persons who are afflicted with any deformation, defect, disease, or infection to a degree that might lastingly injure their offspring."

DEUTSCHE RUNDSCHAU.

Of the interesting and various contents of the January number, the article by Philip Zorn on "The Results of the Hague Conference with Regard to International Law" deserves first mention. Not less valuable is Max Lenz' political review of the past century under the title of "The Great Powers." Gen. T. von Verdy du Vernois describes vividly the battle of Königgrätz (Sadova) in his personal reminiscences "At the Headquarters of the II. (Silesian) Army, 1866." The poet-novelist, Paul Heyse, relates the beginning of his career with much charm under the title of "Max and Old Munich." "A Quarter of a Century's Music," by Eduard Hanslick, Vienna's and perhaps the whole world's most renowned musical critic, gives a valuable retrospective view of the subject.

PREUSSISCHE JAHRBÜCHER.

The sterling qualities which Hans Delbrück knows so well how to give to his magazine are as marked as usual in the January number. Johannes Butzbach discusses with the knowledge of an expert "Education and Science in the Higher Schools of Prussia," and Friedrich von der Leyen treats "The Indian Fairy Tale" with a thorough knowledge of ancient Buddhist literature. In "Christianity, Humanitarianism, and Freemasonry" an anonymous Freemason describes the origin and development of "the royal art" in Germany, and contradicts the attacks of two groups hostile to freemasonry: those who wish to put more stress upon Christian features and those "who look upon pure humanitarianism as the poisonous kernel of freemasonry." A real gem of psychological dissection and polished style is "The Problem of the Tragical," in which the author, Max Lorenz, follows the trend of "human fate with a sorrowful ending" in the world's literature from Aristotle and the Bible to Shakespeare, Schiller, and Richard Wagner.

DIE NEUE ZEIT.

Whether one does or does not agree with the socialistic tendencies of this organ devoted to and called the *New Time*, one cannot help being influenced by the optimistic hopes for the future with which its contributors seem to be imbued, and—what is decidedly more valuable—the reader is bound to gain information on various sociological questions from its pages which he could scarcely find elsewhere. Thus A. Winter's article, "The Zinc Industry of Upper Silesia," will be interesting in general for the details of labor and wages with which it deals. M. Beer, discussing the state of the labor question in "The United States in 1899," compares Kipling's "The White Man's Burden" with Markham's "The Man With the Hoe," and criticises American social conditions severely on account of the great strikes in Brooklyn, Cleveland, and Idaho.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE continued interest taken on the continent in the Anglo-Boer War is exemplified by two articles in the *Nuova Antologia* (January 16), the one a laudatory biographical sketch of Lord Roberts by Carlo Segrè, the other an article by the well-known Italian Deputy-General Luchino dal Verme, criticising the English conduct of the war with severity, though in a friendly spirit. From this latter article we have quoted in another department. Among literary articles in the same number may be mentioned a severely critical review of Ibsen's latest play by Professor de Lollis, and a long and laudatory notice of Stephen Phillips' "Paolo and Francesca." D'Annunzio gives a further installment of his "Laudi," the subject this time being Dante, but all attempt at consecutive thought seems to be sacrificed to the harmonious rhythm of the curious prophetic chant in which these "praises" are cast. Excellent portraits of E. de Amicis and of the composer, Puccini, complete an exceptionally strong number.

The *Rassegna Nazionale* is much occupied with the problem of religious and civil marriage. The Italian Government, having made it obligatory that the civil marriage should precede the religious ceremony, is much exercised to find that among the working classes the law is frequently neglected, with the result that the marriage returns are rendered inaccurate and a considerable number of children are born illegitimate. Various schemes to remedy this state of affairs are at present before the Italian Senate, and the old religious controversy of the sacrament of marriage has once again burst into flames.

Flegrea continues to be the most readable of the lighter Italian magazines. A powerful story by Matilde Serao is at present running through it, and the most recent number has a well-written article on the poetry of Verlaine.

THE NEW BOOKS.

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Life of Abraham Lincoln. By Ida M. Tarbell. Two volumes, 8vo, pp. 426—459. New York: Doubleday & McClure Company. $5.

Miss Tarbell's completed story of the life of Lincoln, portions of which have appeared in *McClure's Magazine* during the past five years, has at last been published in two illustrated volumes. The work in no way supplants the elaborate history written some years since by the Messrs. Nicolay and Hay, although in several particulars it supplements that work. Miss Tarbell's primary purpose was to present Lincoln the man, while the effort of Nicolay and Hay was to write the history of Lincoln's time. The amount of original Lincoln material in the country at large seems almost exhaustless. Since this work was undertaken, in 1894, many speeches, letters, and telegrams have been rediscovered. One of the most important of such contributions to Miss Tarbell's work is the report of what was long known as the "Lost Speech." It was unearthed by Mr. J. McCan Davis, of Springfield, Ill. An appendix to the second volume contains a great number of hitherto unpublished documents. In short, the material in these two volumes is so interesting and, in many respects, so valuable, that the absence of an index is the more regrettable.

Charles Francis Adams. By his Son, Charles Francis Adams. 16mo, pp. 426. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

We can only very cursorily notice the appearance in the "American Statesmen" series of the life of the last member of the Adams family who was in conspicuous public position in this country. In the career of Charles Francis Adams interest, of course, centers in the period of his ministry at London during our Civil War. The importance of this book by his son chiefly lies in the fact that it is the first employment of Mr. Adams' papers, although thirteen years have passed since his death. His son states that Mr. Adams preserved all his correspondence, together with copies of his own letters, and for over fifty years, from the time he entered Harvard, he kept a diary, in which there is scarcely a break. Some time in the future a much larger work consisting of extracts from his diary, letters, and papers, will be published. Meanwhile, it is entirely safe to say that the light which is thrown on this very notable career by the present volume will tend to raise the already high estimate of the value of Mr. Adams' services to his country at a most critical juncture.

Henry Knox: A Soldier of the Revolution. By Noah Brooks. 12mo, pp. 286. New York: G P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

In the "American Men of Energy" series Mr. Noah Brooks has written the story of Henry Knox, who was a major-general in the Continental Army, Washington's chief of artillery, first Secretary of War under the Constitution, and one of the founders of the Society of the Cincinnati, and yet is hardly known by name to the school children of our time. Men of the revolutionary period of far less relative importance than General Knox have in some way won a far more conspicuous place in our school histories. Almost a century has passed since the death of Knox, and it is high time that his character and career should be fittingly commemorated. Mr. Brooks has drawn his materials from original sources, and has employed them with the skill and judgment of the experienced writer. He has made a book that will be enjoyed by readers of all ages who are interested in the revolutionary period of our history.

Recollections: 1832 to 1886. By the Right Honorable Sir Algernon West, K.C.B. 12mo, pp. 442. New York: Harper & Brothers. $3.

Sir Algernon West, who was for many years private secretary to Mr. Gladstone, has written a volume of recollections pertaining not only to his chief, but to many other of the prominent men and women of the century. These reminiscences are entertaining and throw light on many a page of England's more recent history. It should be said, however, that the author makes no claim to historical or chronological accuracy.

Charles Kingsley, and the Christian Social Movement. By Charles William Stubbs. 12mo, pp. 199. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.25.

With the progress of Christian socialism in this country there has come a revival of interest in the social movement in England represented by Maurice and Kingsley fifty years ago. In this little volume Dean Stubbs gives an excellent account of the English Christian Socialists of 1848 and their relations with the "Chartists." As Dean Stubbs very well says, "Facts are always more stimulating when told in relation to a personality," and this story of Kingsley and the work that he did in improving the lot of British workingmen is far more inspiring than any bare record of the social movement as such.

Bismarck and the Foundation of the German Empire. By James Wycliffe Headlam. 12mo, pp. 471. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

The latest life of Bismarck is a volume contributed to the "Heroes of the Nations" series, by James Wycliffe Headlam. The author states that the greater portion of his work was written before Bismarck's death; in completing the work, however, the author has had the advantage of the publication of both Bismarck's and Busch's "Memoirs."

Theodore Beza, the Counsellor of the French Reformation, 1519–1605. By Henry Martyn Baird. 12mo, pp. 376. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

All students of the history of French Protestantism are indebted to Prof. Henry M. Baird for his volume on Beza, who was indeed one of the "heroes of the Reformation," the head of the Reformed Church in French-speaking countries, and its recognized counsellor and leader, the friend of Calvin, and also the friend and adviser of Henry IV. Oddly enough this is the first biography of Beza to be made accessible to the general reader, either in English or in French. The volume is appropriately illustrated.

Alexander the Great: The Merging of East and West in Universal History. By Benjamin Ide Wheeler. 12mo, pp. 520. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

The magazine-reading public has already had a foretaste of President Wheeler's most interesting sketch of Alexander the Great in the papers which have recently appeared in the *Century Magazine*. President Wheeler, as is well known, unites in a remarkable degree the qualities of the scholarly investigator with those of the entertaining writer. He has pictured Alexander the Great more vividly, in some respects perhaps more powerfully, than that worthy has been pictured before in the English language. We are further indebted to President Wheeler for the exploitation, so to speak, of the most recent archeological discoveries bearing on this subject. The illustration of this volume is in line with that of its predecessors in the "Heroes of the Nations" series.

HISTORY.

History of the Scandinavians and Successful Scandinavians in the United States. Compiled and edited by O. N. Nelson. Two volumes in one, 8vo, pp. 518—280. Minneapolis, Minnesota: O. N. Nelson & Co. Sold by subscription.

The compiling of this history of the Scandinavians in America was a most worthy undertaking, which seems to have been admirably carried out. While the editor-in-chief of the work is Mr. O. N. Nelson, of Minneapolis, he has been assisted by a large and competent staff of associate editors, revisers, and contributors. A special effort has been made to preserve memorials of the various Scandinavian religious denominations in this country, and sketches are given of the different schools and colleges established by the American Scandinavians. In addition to the more general historical material, the work includes a great number of biographies of Scandinavians who have settled in the States of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota. Thus a large amount of important material relating to the pioneers of these States, as well as to the second generation, has been preserved for posterity. A minor feature of the work, which may perhaps be overlooked by some readers, and yet which has a distinct value in itself, is a 30-page bibliography of Scandinavian-American historical literature of the nineteenth century. A glance at the portraits which appear in this double volume, including those of Governor Lind and United States Senator Nelson, impress one anew with a sense of the excellent qualities which Scandinavian immigration has imparted to the citizenship of our Middle West. It is hoped that the third volume in the series may cover Scandinavian settlement in Illinois.

The River War: An Historical Account of the Reconquest of the Soudan. By Winston Spencer Churchill. Two vols., 8vo, pp. 510—486. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $10.

In the two handsome volumes of Mr. Churchill's work, he gives an excellent history of the British conquest of the Soudan. Five opening chapters are occupied with a description of the geography of the Soudan country, and with a well co-ordinated, brief account of the progress of British arms on the Nile up to the disaster at Khartoum and the death of Gordon, which gave the Soudan country to the Mahdi and his devoted followers. Mr. Churchill spends little time in exploiting the miseries of the dervish rule in the Soudan. He proceeds to tell how the English began and carried out a systematic and irresistible movement to recapture the land from which the Mahdi had expelled them. After the tragedy of Khartoum, the outpost of the British army was Wadihalfa. The task that lay before the successive sirdars was very largely a work of engineering and military organization. When Kitchener began his stern advance in 1896, more than ten years had been spent in training the native Egyptian fellahs and the Soudanese negroes to effectually aid the British square in the coming attack on the Khalifa. Mr. Churchill pays a high tribute to the good qualities of these native troops. The fellahs in particular he describes as men of wonderful physical endurance, well regulated habits, and thorough loyalty. The Soudanese negroes made good soldiers, too. They were apt to get "rattled" when compared with the British regulars, but such a disadvantage was almost compensated for by the tremendous force of their onslaught which their hatred of the dervishes inspired.

Mr. Churchill's book, after the five opening chapters, tells of Lord Kitchener's advance in 1896, and much the greater part of it is devoted to that general's operations on the upper Nile, from April, 1896, to February, 1899, which period specifically covers what the author has called "The River War," and which finally was the reconquest of the Soudan. The first volume finishes the story to the battle of Atbara. The second volume is largely taken up with the terrific battle of Obdurman, which destroyed the dervish power forever.

Mr. Churchill has not only had the benefit of official sources of information in the preparation of his records and of the many capital maps and battle plans with which the book is equipped, but he has also been able to give a graphic as well as an accurate account of General Kitchener's operations from the fact that he was attached to the 21st Lanciers throughout the bloody but successful operations of '98. He was an eye-witness of the critical moments when the Khalifa was overwhelmed by the great force which had been preparing for a decade. Mr. Churchill acted as the correspondent of the Daily Mail, but in spite of General Kichener's notable poor opinion of war correspondents, Mr. Churchill saw much of the sirdar and was evidently held in high regard by him.

The very excellence of Mr. Churchill's account of the military operations preceding the battle of Obdurman and of the battle itself make it hard reading. For if any one is yet unaware that war is what General Sherman said it was, this story will be highly convincing. Mr. Churchill's clear, brief, forcible sentences tell the truth as he saw it. Rarely has an account prepared so soon after the event described war under such circumstances with such independent and unwinking candor. The slaughter of 10,000 dervishes on the field of Obdurman, and the wounding of a greater number, are described in tragic detail.

The work, however, was done, and done thoroughly. The Khalifa's power ceased to exist with Khartoum; his death has come since this book was written. The English in Egypt will now turn their attention to the gigantic irrigation works on the Nile which will be necessary to bring the country to its former state of attractiveness and prosperity. The financing of these immense engineering enterprises and the probable saving of the White Nile, lost in the great marsh district through which a part of it flows, will be almost as huge a task for Lord Cromer as the destruction of the Arabs was for General Kitchener. Egypt has a Soudan deficit of nearly 400,000 pounds a year. She will be called on to pay 160,000 pounds a year for the Reservoirs, and in the year 1904 the first annual instalment for the great dam of the Nile will become due. Mr. Churchill in his forecast says that four years of difficulty will be followed by two years of actual crisis. That Lord Cromer will, provided he has a free hand, surmount these obstacles Mr. Churchill has no doubt.

How England Saved Europe: The Story of the Great War, 1793–1815. By W. H. Fitchett. Vols. II. and III., 12mo, pp. 326—419. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 each volume.

The second and third volumes of Mr. Fitchett's story of England's wars of a century ago are devoted, respectively, to "Nelson and the Struggle for the Sea," and "The War in the Peninsula." Each volume is well illustrated with portraits, maps, and plans, and the series as a whole offers a fresh and vigorous treatment of an important epoch in Britain's military and naval history.

The Destruction of Ancient Rome: A Sketch of the History of the Monuments. By Rodolfo Lanciani. 12mo, pp. 279. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.

In this volume Professor Lanciani briefly sums up the results of his researches in regard to the fate of the buildings and monuments of ancient Rome. It is announced that the present volume is a forerunner of a larger work, comprising several volumes, which will be published in Italian.

Lessons of the War with Spain, And Other Articles. By Alfred T. Mahan. 12mo, pp. 336. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.

In addition to Captain Mahan's review of the war with Spain, this volume contains recent magazine articles from his pen on "The Peace Conference and the Moral Aspect of War," "The Relations of the United States to Their New Dependencies," "Distinguishing Qualities of Ships of War," and "Current Fallacies Upon Naval Subjects." It is fortunate that Captain Mahan's critical study of the strategy of the war has been preserved in a form less ephemeral than that in which it originally appeared. The naval experts who can

write acceptably for popular reading are by no means numerous in this country. Captain Mahan's work in this direction has always commended itself to all classes, lay and professional. The considerations that he presents in this volume on "The Size and Qualities of Battleships," "Mutual Relations of Coast Defence and Navy," and "The Effect of Deficient Coast-Defence upon the Movements of the Navy," are worthy of the serious attention of members of Congress and of all who have to do with the administration of our naval affairs.

The Puritan Republic of the Massachusetts Bay in New England. By Daniel Wait Howe. 8vo, pp. 460. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company. $3.50.

It may, indeed, be difficult to say anything new about Massachusetts history, but there is a certain advantage in having a compact presentation of the whole subject from a modern point of view, having regard to all that has been written for and against the Puritans and their institutions up to the present day. Mr. Howe, notwithstanding the embarrassment of riches in the literature of his subject, has succeeded in making such a presentation and one not lacking in independence of judgment.

The County Palatine of Durham: A Study in Constitutional History. (Harvard Historical Studies.) By Gaillard Thomas Lapsley, Ph.D. 8vo, pp. 391. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

The historical student finds the county of Durham interesting because of the peculiar system under which that portion of England was governed throughout the Middle Ages and, in the restricted sense, up to the present century. The ruler of Durham during all that time was none other than its bishop, whose temporal principality was as real as any spiritual see. Dr. Lapsley's study, therefore, deals with ecclesiastical, as well as constitutional, history. The author has endeavored to refer scholars to the original authorities at every point.

SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

Brook Farm: Its Members, Scholars, and Visitors. By Lindsay Swift. 16mo, pp. 303. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.25.

No American communistic venture is half as well known to-day as Brook Farm, and yet perhaps none yielded smaller results as an experiment in social reform. Indeed, the charm of Brook Farm has always been a certain elusiveness. For, although many of its members and visitors were distinguished in the world of letters, few of them chose to reveal the community's secrets. The time seems to have come when a fairly complete account of Brook Farm may be made public. Mr. Lindsay Swift has devoted years to the accumulation of materials, and the present volume is the result of much painstaking research. Mr. Swift's sketches of Brook Farm personalities form not the least interesting portion of his work.

Studies in State Taxation, with Particular Reference to the Southern States. By Graduates and Students of the Johns Hopkins University. Edited by J. H. Hollander. 8vo, pp. 253. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.

One of the most recent illustrations of the fruitful work attempted by the Johns Hopkins University is a volume made up of five essays which had their origin in a series of informal class reports prepared by Johns Hopkins students in connection with a course of graduate instruction upon American commonwealth finance. Certain numbers of the class undertook to examine and describe the finance of a group of States, each investigator selecting his native State, or a State with whose economic life he was in a measure familiar. The States thus singled out for treatment were Maryland, North Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, and Kansas. Such studies should prove of great practical service to members of state legislatures or tax commissions.

A Ten Years' War: An Account of the Battle with the Slum in New York. By Jacob A. Riis. 12mo, pp. 267. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

This story of a ten years' battle with New York slums is a song of victory, and it is dedicated "to the faint-hearted and those of little faith." No one so well as Mr. Riis knows what has been attempted and what has been accomplished in New York in the past ten years to better the conditions of tenement house existence. If he can be optimistic amid all the discouragements that this work has encountered, surely there must be good grounds for hope. His volume says that during ten years much has been gained in the way of improved tenements, sanitary lodging-houses, parks, and playgrounds. The fight is by no means over, but some of the enemy's strongholds have been taken.

The Effects of Recent Changes in Monetary Standards upon the Distribution of Wealth. By Francis S. Kinder. (American Economic Association: Economic Studies.) 8vo, pp. 90. New York: The Macmillan Company. Paper, 50 cents.

Mr. Kinder has made an interesting attempt to show the relations between changes in monetary standards and the distribution of wealth. He concludes, in the first place, that the change of monetary standards in 1873 was the one predominating cause of the fall of prices, and he further concludes that the succeeding years of falling prices were those of increased hardship for the working class as a whole.

It is announced that the "Economic Studies" published by the American Economic Association will be discontinued, and that a quarterly publication will be issued under the title of "Publications of the American Economic Association."

The Free-Trade Movement and Its Results. By G. Armitage-Smith. 12mo, pp. 244. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.25.

This little volume offers a convenient summary of the British free-trade movement over half a century ago.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

Cyclopedia of Classified Dates. By Charles E. Little. Large 8vo, pp. 1454. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company. $10.

This is a work of reference arranged on a distinctively new plan. It covers important historical events, classified, first, by countries and geographical location, second, by dates, and, finally, according to the nature of the event itself. This system of entries, however, would not suffice in itself for all purposes of reference, and it is supplemented by an alphabetic index of nearly 300 pages, in which all the events and names recorded in the body of the work are entered for a second time, with figures referring to page and column on which the main entry occurs. No brief description can convey any adequate idea of the comprehensiveness or range of such a work as this. Apparently no important group of facts in the world's history has been neglected. The magnitude of the editor's task may be faintly imagined when we reflect that he has had to review the known events of seventy centuries in the seventy-nine different countries of the world which may be said to have a recorded history. The prime advantage of the work, in our opinion, is the ready access that it gives to contemporaneous events in all parts of the world for any given period of time. The "Cyclopedia of Classified Dates" should have a place among the few really indispensable reference books on the shelves of the library and study.

Who's Who, 1900. 12mo, pp. xviii—1092. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.75.

In this annual biographical dictionary, now in its fifty-second year of issue, are included biographies of many persons who became prominent during 1899, as for example, the commanders in the South African war.

The Tribune Almanac: 1900. Henry Eckford Rhoades, Editor. 12mo, pp. 388. New York: The Tribune Association. Paper, 25 cents.

"The Tribune Almanac" for 1900 contains, in addition to the customary statistical information, brief historical sketches of the wars during 1899, the treaty with Spain, the Samoan troubles, the Alaskan boundary question, the Venezuelan arbitration, and other matters of public interest. The list of names of eminent officials, presidents of colleges, heads of patriotic societies, etc., are complete and invaluable for purposes of reference.

New York Charities Directory: 1900. 16mo, pp. 725. New York: Charity Organization Society. $1.

The New York Charities Directory is a complete compendium of facts regarding all the societies and institutions working among the poor in New York City. The work is more than a mere catalogue of charitable institutions, and has been developed into a classified handbook of all the philanthropic activities of the Greater New York. The information which it furnishes is reliable, and in many instances can only be obtained independently with great difficulty and expense.

GENERAL LITERATURE.

The Hitherto Unidentified Contributions of W. M. Thackeray to *Punch*. By M. H. Spielmann. 8vo, pp. 350. New York: Harper & Brothers. $1.75.

Several unsuccessful attempts have been made to select Thackeray's unsigned contributions to *Punch*. Even Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie's volume in her Biographical Edition, which accounts for some 380 contributions, fell nearly 100 short. Now Mr. M. H. Spielmann, author of the "History of *Punch*" has given the final and authoritative word on the subject in his volume. Mr. Spielmann has had the unimpeachable source of the editor's day book to identify these hitherto unplaced essays, verses and satirical pictures. The newly discovered contributions range in length from a couplet to an article of a page or more. Thackeray was expected to contribute about two columns to each number, and though he rarely came up to his full quotum, the aggregate of nine years' work in *Punch's* columns, between 1843 and 1853, comes to some 336 columns. The quality of the work was of the most varied character, but certainly some of the quips and airy verses were in the very best vein of the author, and are fully up to the witticisms the world has laughed over in the standard editions of his works, especially in the case of the contributions on social, political and personal subjects. These, as it may readily be imagined, an author would gain in ease and spontaneity from the fact that he was writing anonymously. And though the work for *Punch* was at no time the most important part of Thackeray's writing, he was far from feeling it perfunctory; he said of the paper: "There never were before published in this world so many volumes which contained so much cause for laughing, so little for blushing." Mr. Spielmann's book is replete with illustrations, and is equipped with a most complete and workmanlike index and a bibliography for the years 1843 to 1848.

The World's Best Orations, From the Earliest Period to the Present Time. Edited by David J. Brewer. Vol. 2, Ben-Hur. 8vo, pp. 415. St. Louis: Ferd. P. Kaiser. New York: J. F. Taylor & Co. Buckram, $3.50 per vol.

Among the orations included in the second volume of this great series are Burke's speech opening the bribery charges against Warren Hastings, 1788, Blaine's oration on Garfield, Thomas H. Benton's speech on the career of Andrew Jackson, Bismarck's plea for imperial armament, and William J. Bryan's famous "Cross of Gold" speech. The editors have certainly shown catholicity in their selections.

Of the Imitation of Christ. By Thomas à Kempis. Pp. 170. Maxims and Moral Reflections. By François, Duc de la Rochefoucauld. Pp. 53. Thoughts. By Blaise Pascal. Translated by C. Kegan Paul. Pp. 247. With Critical and Biographical Introductions by John Fletcher Hurst. 1 volume, 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Sold by subscription.

View of the State of Europe During the Middle Ages. By Henry Hallam. With a Critical and Biographical Introduction by George Lincoln Burr. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xxi—503—638. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Sold by subscription.

In a single volume of "The World's Great Books" the publishers present "Of the Imitation of Christ," by Thomas à Kempis, Rochefoucauld's "Maxims," and Pascal's "Thoughts." Critical and biographical introductions are furnished by Bishop Hurst.

Two volumes in the series are devoted to Hallam's "View of the State of Europe During the Middle Ages," with an introduction by Prof. George Lincoln Burr.

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE TEXT-BOOKS.

The Twelfth Book of Homer's Odyssey. Edited for the Use of Schools by Richard A. Minckwitz. 16mo, pp. xviii—89. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.

The Bacchæ of Euripides. The Text, and a Translation in English Verse. By Alexander Kerr. Square 12mo, pp. 127. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.05.

Homer's Iliad. Books XIX.-XXIV. Edited on the Basis of the Ameis-Hentze Edition by Edward Bull Clapp. 12mo, pp. 441. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.90.

Euripides Hippolytus. Edited, with Introduction, Notes and Critical Appendix, by J. E. Harry. 12mo, pp. xlv—175. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.

The Story of the Great Republic. By H. A. Guerber. 12mo, pp. 349. New York: American Book Company. 65 cents.

Topical Studies in American History. By John G. Allen. New Edition, Revised. 12mo, pp. xxxvi—93. New York: The Macmillan Company. 40 cents.

The Articles of Confederation. Re-arranged for Class Study by Frederick A. Cleveland. 12mo, pp. 16. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. Paper, 15 cents.

The Constitution of France. Re-arranged for Class Study by Frederick A. Cleveland. 12mo, pp. 29. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. Paper, 15 cents.

The Constitution of Switzerland. Re-arranged for Class Study by Frederick A. Cleveland. 12mo, pp. 37. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. Paper, 15 cents.

Our New Possessions: Cuba, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, Philippines. 8vo, pp. 32. New York: American Book Company. Paper, 10 cents.

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Calhoun, John C., Personal Life of, W. L. Miller, MRN.
California, Vines and Wines of, A. Sbarboro, Over, January.
California Writers, Some Hermit Homes of, Adeline Knapp Over, January.
Calvin, John, H. E. Dosker, PQ, January.
Canada, French, and Canada, E. Bouchette, Can.
Canada, Literature and Art in, J. Bourinot, AngA.
Canada: Manitoba Elections, K. Fessenden, Can.
Canadian Soldiers, Distinguished, T. E. Champion, Can.
Canal Improvements, New York, J. A. Fairlie, Home.
Canals, New York, J. A. Fairlie, QJEcon.
Canning, George, Some Letters of, AngS, December.
Cape Nome Gold District, F. C. Schrader, NatGM, January.
Cathedrals, Spanish, V. L. y Romea, EM.
Catholic Church in South Africa, Miss E. M. Clerke, Dub.
Catholicism, Dr. Mivart on the Continuity of, Father Clarke, NineC.
Caucasus, Homes in the, G. Donaldson, AngA.
Census of 1900, F. H. Wines, NatGM, January.
Chalmers, Thomas, Half Century After, C. R. Henderson, AJT, January.
Chaminade, Cécile, Ethelyn F. Middleton, LHJ.
Charities, The Smith, C. S. Walker, NEng.
Charity, Organized, at Work, Char.
Children, Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent, Care of—V., H. Folks, Char.
Children's Ideals, Catherine I. Dodd, NatR.
Children, Simple Foods for, Alice T. Merry, Kind.
China:
  British Interests in China, QR, January.
  China and the Philippines, P. Carus, OC.
  Doctors and Medical Treatment, Chinese, Mrs. J. F. Bishop, AngS, December.
  Fishing Village, Chinese, In a, G. C. Meeker, PhoT.
  Opium in China, W. A. Cornaby, LQ, January.
  Opium Suicides in China, J. Graham, MisR.
  Reform in China, G. Reid, Forum.
  Village, Chinese—II., M. Delines, BU.
Chopin, Frédéric François, J. Huneker, Scrib.
Christian Church and Social Unity, S. Mathews, AJS.
Christianity, Non-Dogmatic, Logic of, W. H. Mallock, Fort.
Christian Religion: Is It Declining? C. A. Briggs, APS.
"Christian Science," Suggestions on, D. S. Gregory, Hom.
Christ, Miracles of, Scientific Value of, J. Campbell, MRN.
Christ's Estimate of His Times, C. S. Beardslee, Hart.
Church, New Testament Doctrine of the, C. A. Briggs, AJT.
Church of England: A Protestant Manifesto, J. S. Banks, LQ.
Church of England: Lambeth Decision and the Law, M. MacColl, Fort.
Church: The Pew and the Man in It, J. Watson, LHJ.
Cities, Great, Growth of Our, LeisH.
City Æsthetics, C. Buls, MunA, December.
Coaling Warships at Sea, S. Miller, Eng.
Colonies of the Great Powers, A. Ireland, McCl.
Comets and the End of the World, G. Brunel, RRP, January 15.
Commerce, College of, W. C. Jones, Arena.
Commerce, Eastern: What Is It Worth? E. Atkinson, NAR.
Commercial Congress, International, Philadelphia, October, 1899, W. H. Schoff, Annals, January.
Consciousness, Sublimal, J. Stewart, Mind.
Contraband of War, Foodstuffs as, T. Barclay, Contem.
Conversation, Art of, Mary E. Merington, Chaut.
Coöperation, Morality of, Lydia Ross, Arena.
Copyright, Edin, January.
Courts, Federal: Should They Ignore State Laws? H. E. Mills, ALR.
Creation, Ethics of, A. Brown, LQ, January.
Criminals, Women, Study of, Frances A. Kellor, AJS.
Criticism, Ethics of, R. Buchanan, Contem.
Cromwell, Oliver—IV., The Westminster Assembly, The New Model, The Day of Naseby, J. Morley, Cent.

Cromwell, Oliver—II., The Long Parliament and the Civil War, T. Roosevelt, Scrib.
Cuba, American Misgovernment of, J. E. Runcie, NAR.
Cuba, Criminal Jurisprudence in, C. T. Lewis, Char.
Curran, John Philpot, C. G. Bowers, GBag.
Currency: "Free Silver" and the Wage-Earner, H. Wood, Arena.
Currency: Treasury and the Money Market, C. A. Conant, AMRR.
Currency, United States Banking, J. A. Marshall, AngA.
Currency: Metallic Money, J. A. Collins, Arena.
Cycle in War, H. Hamilton, Pear.
Cyclones and Their Habits, H. B. Goodwin, USM.
Czar of Russia, W. T. Stead, Cos.
"David Harum," The, I Knew, J. Rankin, Home.
Devil and His Aliases, O. Smeaton, West.
Diplomatic Curiosities, Some, Cham.
"Divine Comedy," Influences of the, N. Chester, Gent.
Drama of the Twentieth Century, Helen Potter, Arena.
Du Maurier, George, at "Punch" Table, H. W. Lucy, Str.
Earth, Inside of the, C. Moffett, McCl.
Eclipse, Total, of the Sun, May 28, 1900, F. H. Bigelow, NatGM, January.
Economic Science, Preconceptions of, T. Veblen, QJEcon.
Edinburgh, Civic Improvement in, C. M. Robinson, MunA, December.
Education:
Academic Preparation for the Seminary, W. B. Greene, Jr., PRR, January.
Agriculture, College Courses in, A. C. True, EdR.
Art Education in the Public Schools, J. Hall, AE, January.
Art Education, Relation of the Teacher to, Mildred E. Birdsall, AE, January.
Cleveland Schools, E. L. Harris, Ed.
College in the Twentieth Century, C. L. Smith, Atlant.
College Education, Modern, Cos.
College Entrance Requirements, H. S. White, EdR.
Composition, English, J. S. Snoddy, Ed.
Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, School, January.
Decoration of Schools, J. P. Haney, MunA, December.
Deportment, School, and the Weather, E. G. Dexter, EdR.
Education and Crime, School, January.
Education, Study of, B. A. Hinsdale, EdR.
England, Educational Movements in—III., W. K. Hill, School, January.
France, Educational Journals of, G. Compayré, EdR.
France, Lycées of, E. L. Hardy, School, January.
Geology in the Secondary Schools, R. S. Tarr, School, January.
Girls, Early Education of, G. H. Martin, Ed.
Greek, Preparatory, in the University, J. H. Harris, School, January.
High School, Public, E. P. Seaver, EdR.
Languages, Foreign, History of Teaching, B. D. Bogen, Ed.
Military Drill and Discipline in Schools, J. C. Groff, Wern, January.
National University? Do We Need a, W. F. Edwards, Gunt.
Politician, Public-School, A. H. Nelson, EdR.
Seminary Policy, Some Statistics About, W. S. Pratt, Hart.
Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, Proceedings of the, School.
Southern Colleges, Needs of, J. L. M. Curry, Forum.
Washington's University, C. W. Dabney, Forum.
Electrical Display, A Curious, H. J. Shepstone, Str.
Electrical Engineering and the Municipalities, A. A. C. Swinton, NineC.
Electric Light, Bathing in, H. C. Fyfe, Pear.
Emigration as a Social Remedy, R. P. Piolet, RefS, January 16.
England: see Great Britain, Transvaal.
England: Peasants' Rising in 1381, Edin, January.
Episcopal Church in New York, W. Kirkus, Mun.
Eros and Psyche, OC.
Ethics: The Science of Duty—X.-XI., J. J. Tigert, MRN.
Evangelists, J. W. Chapman, Record.
Evidence, Admissibility and Effect of, A. R. Watson, ALR.
Expansion, But Not Imperialism, P. Carus, OC.
Expansion of the American People—XVII.-XX., E. E. Sparks, Chaut.
Expansion, Territorial—II., N. P. Chipman, Over, January.
Expansion: The Subjugation of Inferior Races, G. A. Richardson, Over, January.
Explosives, Applications of, C. E. Munroe, APS.
Factory Heating, San.
Fiction, Modern—III., E. Ridley, AngA.
Fishes, Blind, of North America, C. H. Eigenmann, APS.
Fiske's "Through Nature to God," W. N. Guthrie, SR.
Food of London, QR, January.
Ford, Daniel Sharp, M. Mannering, NatM.
Ford, Paul Leicester, A. B. Maurice, Bkman.
Forenoon and Afternoon, Unequal Length of, C. F. Dowd, APS.
Foundry, Modern, J. Horner, CasM.
France:
Clericalism in France, C. Loiseau, Nou, January 15.
Coast Line and Harbors of France, C. Lenthéric, RDM, January 15 and February 1.
Consulate, French Army Under the, F. H. Tyrrell, USM.
Criminal Procedure in France, QR, January.
France and Prussia, A. H. Neton, Nou, January 15.
Franco-Russian Alliance, End of a, G. Grabinski, RasN, January 1.
Parties in the French Republic, J. Méline, RPP, January.
Fromentin, Eugene, N. Hapgood, Contem.
Furness, Horace Howard, A. H. Smyth, Lipp.
Gems, Precious, T. C. Hepworth, PMM.
Geography, Practical Exercises in, W. M. Davis, NatGM.
Geology, Century of, J. Le Conte, APS.
Germany:
Emperor William II., Character of, E. I. Reed, Deut.
England and America, German Feeling Toward, T. Mommsen, NAR.
England, German Feeling Toward, NatR.
French View of the German Empire, P. de Coubertin, AMRR.
Labor, Organized, Campaign Against, M. Maurenbrecher, AJS, January.
Godkin, E. L., Recollections of, Dial, January 16.
Goethe and the Nineteenth Century, QR, January.
Goethe and Victor Hugo: A Comparison, NatR.
Gold Dredging in New Zealand, W. H. Cutten, Eng.
Golf and Its Attractions, J. G. McPherson, Gent.
Golf in 1899, H. S. C. Everard, Bad.
Golf, Winter, in Southern Sunshine, J. D. Dunn, O.
Government and Law in America, E. Freund, ALR.
Grant, General, Administration of, G. S. Boutwell, McCl.
Great Britain: see Transvaal.
Army, British: The Black Watch, B. F. Robinson, Cass.
Army, State of the—II., USM.
Conscription? How Can We Avoid, W. T. Stead, RRL.
Conservatives, Word to, Black.
Contagious Diseases Acts (Women), West.
Dutch, Sea-Fights with the, D. Hannay, AngS, December.
England, Perilous Position of, W. T. Stead, AMRR.
English and Dutch as Allies and Enemies, W. F. Lord, NIM.
Exiles in England and the War in South Africa, K. Blind, West.
German Feeling Toward England, NatR.
Military Problems of Great Britain, J. H. Burton, USM.
Militia, The, H. Maxwell, NineC.
Political Affairs, F. W. Tugman, West.
Poor Law Reform, QR, January.
Predicament in South Africa, R. Ewen, West.
Radicals, English, Edin, January.
Tory Future, Black.
Transvaal, England and the, Den B. Poortugael, Forum.
War and Government, S. Wilkinson, NatR.
War Office: Retrospect and a Forecast, A. Griffiths, Fort.
War Office, Confusion in the, G. Chesney, NineC.
Guns, Modern, Range of, W. J. Gordon, LeisH.
Gypsy Moth in Massachusetts, F. Osgood, NEng.
Hastings Bible Dictionary, Vol. II., AJT, January.
Havana, Social Life of, T. B. Mott, Scrib.
Health, National Board of, W. H. Allen, Annals, January.
Health's Improvement, West.
Hebrew Literature and Drama, S. Schell, Wern.
Heine, Heinrich, E. W. Bowen, MRN.
Heredity, Causes of, R. Sand, HumN, January.
History, J. F. Rhodes, Atlant.
Hittites of the Old Testament, W. H. Ward, Hom.
Holland: English and Dutch as Allies and Enemies, W. F. Lord, NIM.
Holland: Sea-Fights with England, D. Hannay, AngS, December.
Hospital, London, American in the, Barbara Galpin, NatM.
Howarth, Ellen Clementine, Jeannette L. Gilder, Crit.
Hugo, Victor, Goethe and: A Comparison, NatR.
Hutchinson, Thomas, C. H. Levermore, NEng.
Hypnotic Suggestion, Value of, J. D. Quackenbos, Harp.
Hypnotism, Educational and Therapeutic Value of, CAge.
Ice-Breaking Steamer, To the Poles by, H. C. Fyfe, Str.
Idaho and Montana Boundary Line, R. U. Goode, NatGM, January.
Imperialism, Evolution Versus, J. C. Guffin, Arena.
India: Frontier Policy and Lord Lytton's Administration, Edin, January.
India in Transition, Mary A. Harriman, Over January.
Indians, Dakota, C. Thomassin, DH, Heft 4.
Indian Territory, Need of Better Government in the, D. W. Yancey, Forum.
India: Sikhs and Boers: A Parallel, S. Wheeler, AngS, December.
India: The True Flavor of the Orient, J. Ralph, Harp.
Innsbruck, "The Flower of the Tyrol," Mary F. Nixon, Cath.
Insects, Singing, of Japan, Yei Theodora Ozaki, WWM.
Iron Industry in the United States, F. W. Taussig, QJEcon.
Irving, Sir Henry, F. Wayne, NatM.
Israel Before the Prophetic Reformation, West.
Italians in America, Future of, G. Macchiore, NA, January 16,

Italy, Present Conditions in, E. Bovet, BU.
Japan, Educational Problem in, I. H. Correll, MisR.
Japan in the World's Politics, G. Droppers, IntM.
Jefferson, Thomas, and the Dark Days of '14, O. S. Borne, NatM.
Jesus: How He Gathered His First Disciples, E. I. Bosworth, Bib.
Jesus of Nazareth as a Type, M. G. Bothwell, Mind.
Jews: History of a Race and Expressional Power, T. Davidson; The Jew in Public Life, C. Fleischer; Voice of Israel, H. Berkowitz; Expression from Impression, G. Gotthell; Israel's Religious Genius, S. S. Wise; Poets of the Ghetto, D. Philipson; Jew in Dramatic Literature, M. H. Harris; Jew as an Artist, Katherine M. Cohen; Position of the Modern Jew, G. Deutsch; Jew in the World, Wern.
Jews in Literature, Annie N. Meyer and M. B. Ellis, Bkman.
Johnson's Transmitted Personality, A. Birrell, Crit.
Journalism as a Basis for Literature, G. S. Lee, Atlant.
Judaism in the Times of Jesus, Types of, J. S. Riggs, Bib.
Jurisprudence, Criminal, Decline of, G. C. Speranza, APS
Kaskaskia: A Vanished Capital, A. G. Culver, Chaut.
Kentucky, the Land of Feuds, W. Fawcett, Int.
Kindergarten as an Educational Force, F. E. Cook, Kind.
Kindergarten in Des Moines, Amelia Morton, Kind.
Kindergarten Movement in Jamestown, New York, Cora E. Harris, Kind.
Kindergarten: Sévérité's Method and a Better, M. V. O'Shea, KindR.
Kite Work of the Weather Bureau, H. C. Frankenfield, NatGM.
Klondike Gold; Where It Is Valued, G. E. Adams, Cos.
Klondike, Year's Progress in the, A. Heilprin, APS.
Labor, Cheap, in the South, J. Dowd, Gunt.
Labor Clauses in Public Contracts, B. Taylor, CasM.
Labor Movement in Switzerland, C. Lindley, HumN, January.
Labor Organizations in Germany, Campaign Against, M. Maurenbrecher, AJS, January.
Lamb (Charles) Collection of Augustin Daly, Lida R. McCabe, BB.
Landscapes, English and Australian, W. H. Fitchett, RRM, December.
Lanier, Sidney, Struggles of, J. S. Bassett, MRN.
Law, Biblical—II., Purchase of the Cave of Machpelah, D. W. Amram, GBag.
Lawton, Gen. Henry W., O. O. Howard, AMRR; Home; P. MacQueen, NatM.
Leibnitz, Ideal Philosophy of, E. M. Chesley, CAge.
Librarian, What It Means to Be a, H. Putnam, LHJ.
Libraries, Public, and the Masses, Cham.
Library of Congress, H. Putnam, Atlant.
Lincoln's (Abraham) Home in Springfield, Teresa B. O'Hare, Ros, January.
Lincoln (Maine) Bar, R. K. Sewall, GBag.
Literature, American, Classical Influences Upon, W. C. Lawton, Chaut.
Literature, English, of the Nineteenth Century—II., L. E. Gates, Crit.
Literature, Harmonic, J. H. Choate, Jr., NineC.
Literature: The West and Certain Literary Discoveries, E. Hough, Cent.
London, American in, C. Lanier, Int.
London as Seen from St. Paul's, W. B. Northrop, LeisH.
London, Military Defense of, A. H. Atteridge, Cass.
London Housing Problem, H. P. Harris, NatR.
London, Old, Street Names and Shop Signs of, Emma Endres, Cath.
Longevity and Degeneration, W. R. Thayer, Forum.
Lotteries, Luck, Chance, and Gambling Systems—II., J. H. Schooling, PMM.
Lowell, James Russell, Edin, January.
Lynch Law, Remedies for, SR, January.
Macbeth and the Bible, L. G. Barbour, PQ, January.
McGiffert, Dr., Historical Methods of, W. P. Dickson, PRR.
Machine Shop Economies, O. Smith, CasM.
Machine Shop Practice, Revolution in—V., H. Roland, Eng.
Mahdism, Rise and Fall of, Dial, January 16.
Mammoth, Truth About the, F. A. Lucas, McCl.
Mapping the Continent, T. Waters, Home.
Mardi-Gras Festivities, D. A. Willey, Int.
Marriage and Divorce, J. D. Enright, Cath.
Mars as a World, R. A. Gregory, NatR.
Martineau, James, Recollections of, Frances P. Cobbe, Contem; P. H. Wicksteed, Contem; E. E. Hale, Out.
Master, Life of the—II., John the Baptist; The Baptism and Temptation of Jesus, J. Watson, McCl.
Medical Expert Evidence, W. Bartlett, ALR.
Mental Diseases, Prevention of, J. Mosel, San.
Mental Health and Disease, J. W. Winkley, Mind.
Merchant Navy, Our, F. W. Fitzpatrick, Int.
Millais, John Everett, Edin, January.
Millet, Jean François, Home of, C. Johnson, Out.
Missions:
Aoyama, Shosaburo—Japanese, Christian, Gentleman, R. E. Speer, MisR.
China? What Can Christianity Do for, A. H. Smith, MisR.
Chinese Turkestan, L. E. Högberg, MisR.
Disciples of Christ, Jubilee Missionary Conventions of the, A. McLean, MisR.
German Protestant Foreign Missions, A. Bernstorff, MisR.
Greenland Mission, P. de Schweinitz, MisR.
Jaffna College, Ceylon, J. L. Barton, MisH.
Japanese Blow at Missions, E. Schiller, MisR.
Livingstonia Mission in South Africa, G. Smith, Cham.
Missionaries in Turkey, H. O. Dwight, MisH.
Results from the Ecumenical Conference, MisR.
Mississippi Valley, Future of the, A. B. Hart, Harp.
Mitchell, Donald G., the Master of Edgewood, A. R. Kimball, Scrib.
Montalembert and French Education, R. B. S. Blakelock, Dub.
Montana—the Treasure State, J. H. Crooker, NEng.
Moody, Dwight L.:
"Coronation Day" of Mr. Moody, W. R. Moody, Record.
Inner Life of Dwight L. Moody, C. M. Stuart, Chaut.
Moody, Dwight L., G. P. Morris, AMRR; J. Stalker, Sun.
Moody, Dwight L., the Evangelist, A. T. Pierson, MisR.
Northfield Home of Mr. Moody, M. L. Osborne, NatM.
Power of Mr. Moody's Ministry, L. Abbott, NAR.
Mormon Breach of Faith, A. T. Schroeder, Arena.
Mormon Power in America, J. M. Scanland, Gunt.
Mormons: Roberts, the Dreyfus of America, T. W. Curtis, Arena.
Mormons, The, R. L. Hartt, Atlant; C. B. Spahr, Out.
Mortality Among Infants, Prevention of, P. Strauss, RRP, January 15.
Moulton, William F., G. G. Findlay, LQ, January.
Municipal Art, E. H. Blashfield, MunA, December.
Municipal Art Conference in Baltimore, MunA, December.
Municipal Memorials, J. Stübben, MunA, December.
Music, Metaphysics of, H. W. Stratton, Mind.
Mysticism, New, in Scandinavia, Hermione Ramsden, NineC.
Napoleon, Talks with, B. E. O'Meara, Cent.
Natural Selection, Divine Action in, W. Seton, Cath.
Nature, Catastrophes of, A. Sieveking, Cass.
Nature-Worship a Pagan Sentiment, J. McSorley, Cath.
Negro, American, of To-day, P. A. Bruce, Contem.
"Neminism," President Jordan's, APS.
Newspapers, French, A. Cohn, Bkman.
Newspapers, The, W. Reid, NineC.
New Testament Canon in the Syrian Church, J. A. Bewer, AJT, January.
New York: Central Park in Winter, R. S. Spears, Mun.
New York City Monuments, H. K. Bush-Brown, MunA, December.
New York: Midwinter in, J. A. Riis, Cent.
New York, Municipal Art in, MunA, December.
Nile, Land of the, Florence M. Thomas, AE, January.
Nile, Low, of 1899, S. W. Wallace, Black.
North Carolina, Log Colleges in, PQ, January.
North Pole, Race for the, W. Wellman, McCl.
Novels of 1899, Some, W. E. Henley, NAR.
Nurse, What It Means to Be a, YW.
Ocean Grove, the Strange Holy City of New Jersey, C. S. Clark, WWM.
Ocean Liners, QR, January.
Ohio Country, Emigrating to the, G. T. Ridlon, Sr., NEng.
Old Testament: Historical Books "the Word of God," G. L. Robinson, Record.
Oliphant, Mrs. M. O. W., W. A. Guerry, SR, January.
Ontario, Western, A. H. Flower, CAge.
Opera in America and Europe, H. T. Finck, IntM.
Opera in the Nineteenth Century, W. S. B. Mathews, Mus.
Organists, Two Famous, F. J. Crowest, Sun.
Panama Canal, Actual Condition of the, C. Paine, Eng.
"Paolo and Francesca," Mr. Stephen Philips', R. Garnett, AngS, December.
Paris Exposition, Sculptors of the United States Pavilion at the, Georgia Fraser, BP.
Paris Exposition, United States Government Building at the, C. de Kay, MA.
Paris Revisited: Governmental Machine, R. Whiteing, Cent.
Paris: Stroll Through the Louvre, J. J. Benjamin-Constant, Nou, January 15.
Paris, Suburbs of, F. M. Warren, Chaut.
Parks, City, Beatrix Jones, MunA, December.
Parliamentary Speech, Changes in, A. Lyttelton, AngS, December.
Passports in a Trip Around the World, J. F. Fraser, Cass.
Pastor's Relations to God, S. M. Smith, PQ, January.
Patagonia, Southern, Geographic Features of, J. B. Hatcher, NatGM.
Pater, Walter, A. D. Malley, Cath.
Paul, Second Imprisonment of, J. Macpherson, AJT.
Patterson, Elizabeth, J. de Nouvion, RRP, February 1.
Pensions, Old-Age, Plea for, M. Davitt, Forum.
Pensions, Old-Age, Why I Oppose, W. H. Lecky, Forum.
People's Party, M. Butler, Forum.
Personality, Loss of, Ethel D. Puffer, Atlant.
Philanthropy, Science in, C. R. Henderson, Atlant.
Philippine Islands and Their Environment, J. Barrett NatGM, January.

Philippines and the Oriental Problem, N. P Chipman, Over, January.
Philippines, Our Rule in the, T. M. Anderson, NAR,
Phillips, Stephen, Poetry of, Edin, January.
Photography:
Daguerreotype, Teachings of the, J. Waterhouse, WPM, January.
Dark-Room Light, Safe, WPM, January.
Hand-Camera, Choice of a, WPM, January.
Hands in Portraiture, F. M. Sutcliffe, APB.
History, Early, of Photography, PhoT.
Horses, Photographing, F. W. Cole, APB.
Hypo, Removal of, After Fixing, C. Jones, WPM. January.
Lantern Slide Making for Beginners, PhoT.
Mounts and Mounting, WPM, January.
New York Camera Club, S. Hartmann, PhoT.
Oxy-Magnesium Lamp, New Form of, for Portraiture, F. C. Lambert, APB.
Pin-Hole Photography, Practical, O. I. Yellott, PhoT.
Portraiture, Old Versus New Methods in, WPM.
Reproduction as a Means of Improving Negatives, J. A. Hodges, WPM, January.
Spotting Negatives, WPM, January.
Pingree, Governor, and His Reforms, W. P. Belden, ALR.
Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, E. White, BankNY, January.
Plague, The, A. Weichfelbaum, Deut; E. Duclaux, RPar, February 1.
Poetry of the American Plantations—II., W. P. Trent, SR.
Poets of Young Germany, A. von Ende, Crit.
Poland, Future of, A. Leroy-Beaulieu, RRP, January 15.
Population, Movement of, J. Cummings, QJEcon.
Preaching and the Preacher—II., H. Johnson, Hom.
Preacher With or Without the Manuscript, R. Wilson, MRN.
Precipice-Riding in the Continental Armies, B. Waters, Str.
Prophetic Teaching, Origin of the, L. B. Paton, Hart.
Printing, Electrical Inkless, A. Sanderson, Cham.
Psychical Research: "A Side Scene of Thought," Edin.
Public Bath at Brookline, J. A. Stewart, AJS, January.
Publishers, Some Pioneer New York, F. Dredd, Bkman.
Quaritch, Bernard, Bkman.
Race-Preservation Dogma, A. Llano, AJS, January.
Radicalism—East and West, A. Watkins, Arena.
Railroad and the People, T. Dreiser, Harp.
Railroads, Policing the, J. Flynt, Mun.
Railway Discriminations and Industrial Combinations, C. A. Prouty, Annals, January.
Railway Mail Service, R. C. Jackson, FrL.
Ranch Life in America, Art, January.
Religion in Greek Literature, J. Iverach, LQ, January.
Religion, Science of, Recent Work in the, C. H. Toy, IntM.
Respiration and the Vocal Organs, W. Shakespeare, Wern.
Revival, Conditions of a, J. B. Shaw, Hom.
Revolution, Traditions of the, E. E. Hale, AMonM.
Rhode Island, Old Plantation Life in, G. C. Mason, NEng.
Rhodes, Cecil: The King and His Country, A. Sangree, Ains.
Richmond, Fall of, Ina C. Emery, NatM.
Roads, Roman and French, C. Jullian, RPar, February 1.
Roman Catholic Church, Danger from the, R. F. Horton, NatR.
Roman Catholic Jubilee Indulgence, H. Thurston, Dub.
Rome, Ancient, in 1900, Edin, January.
Rome, Genius of, QR, January.
Rome, Italy, Helen G. Smith, Ros, January.
Rostand, Edmond, E. Tissot, RRP, January 15.
Roycrofters, Fra Elbertus and the, B. O. Flower, CAge.
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[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

Ains.	Ainslee's Magazine, N. Y.
ACQR.	American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.
AHR.	American Historical Review, N. Y.
AJS.	American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.
AJT.	American Journal of Theology, Chicago.
ALR.	American Law Review, St. Louis.
AMonM.	American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.
AMRR.	American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.
ANat.	American Naturalist, Boston.
AngA.	Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.
AngS.	Anglo-Saxon Review, N. Y.
Annals.	Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.
APB.	Anthony's Photographic Bulletin, N. Y.
APS.	Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Arch.	Architectural Record, N. Y.
Arena.	Arena, N. Y.
AA.	Art Amateur, N. Y.
AE.	Art Education, N. Y.
AI.	Art Interchange, N. Y.
AJ.	Art Journal, London.
Art.	Artist, London.
Atlant.	Atlantic Monthly, Boston.
Bad.	Badminton, London.
BankL.	Bankers' Magazine, London.
BankNY	Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
Bib.	Biblical World, Chicago.
BSac.	Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.
BU.	Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.
Black.	Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.
BTJ.	Board of Trade Journal, London.
BB.	Book Buyer, N. Y.
Bkman.	Bookman, N. Y.
BP.	Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
Can.	Canadian Magazine, Toronto.
Cass.	Cassell's Magazine, London.
CasM.	Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.
Cath.	Catholic World, N. Y.
Cent.	Century Magazine, N. Y.
Cham.	Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh.
Char.	Charities Review, N. Y.
Chaut.	Chautauquan, Cleveland, O.
CAge.	Coming Age, Boston.
Cons.	Conservative Review, Washington.
Contem.	Contemporary Review, London.
Corn.	Cornhill, London.
Cos.	Cosmopolitan, N. Y.
Crit.	Critic, N. Y.
Dem.	Demorest's Family Magazine, N. Y.
DH.	Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg.
Deut.	Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.
Dial.	Dial, Chicago.
Dub.	Dublin Review, Dublin.
Edin.	Edinburgh Review, London.
Ed.	Education, Boston.
EdR.	Educational Review, N. Y.
Eng.	Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
EM.	España Moderna, Madrid.
Fort.	Fortnightly Review, London.
Forum.	Forum, N. Y.
FrL.	Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.
Gent.	Gentleman's Magazine, London.
GBag.	Green Bag, Boston.
Gunt.	Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.
Harp.	Harper's Magazine, N. Y.
Hart.	Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn.
Home.	Home Magazine, N. Y.
Hom.	Homiletic Review, N. Y.
HumN.	Humanité Nouvelle, Paris.
Int.	International, Chicago.
IJE.	International Journal of Ethics, Phila.
IntM.	International Monthly, N. Y.
IntS.	International Studio, N. Y.
IA.	Irrigation Age, Chicago.
JMSI.	Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.
JPEcon.	Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.
Kind.	Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.
KindR.	Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.
LHJ.	Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.
LeisH.	Leisure Hour, London.
Lipp.	Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.
LQ.	London Quarterly Review, London.
Long.	Longman's Magazine, London.
Luth.	Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.
McCl.	McClure's Magazine, N. Y.
Mac.	Macmillan's Magazine, London.
MA.	Magazine of Art, London.
MRN.	Methodist Review, Nashville.
MRNY.	Methodist Review, N. Y.
Mind.	Mind, N. Y.
MisH.	Missionary Herald, Boston.
MisR.	Missionary Review, N. Y.
Mon.	Monist, Chicago.
MunA.	Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
Mun.	Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.
Mus.	Music, Chicago.
NatGM.	National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
NatM.	National Magazine, Boston.
NatR.	National Review, London.
NC.	New-Church Review, Boston.
NEng.	New England Magazine, Boston.
NIM.	New Illustrated Magazine, London.
NW.	New World, Boston.
NineC.	Nineteenth Century, London.
NAR.	North American Review, N. Y.
Nou.	Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
NA.	Nuova Antologia, Rome.
OC.	Open Court, Chicago.
O.	Outing, N. Y.
Out.	Outlook, N. Y.
Over.	Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
PMM.	Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Pear.	Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
Phil.	Philosophical Review, N. Y.
PhoT.	Photographical Times, N. Y.
PL.	Poet-Lore, Boston.
PSQ.	Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
PRR.	Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila.
PQ.	Presbyterian Quarterly, Charlotte, N. C.
QJEcon.	Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
QR.	Quarterly Review, London.
RasN.	Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
Record.	Record of Christian Work, East Northfield, Mass.
RefS.	Réforme Sociale, Paris.
RRL.	Review of Reviews, London.
RRM.	Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
RDM.	Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
RDP.	Revue du Droit Public, Paris.
RGen.	Revue Générale, Brussels.
RPar.	Revue de Paris, Paris.
RPP.	Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
RRP.	Revue des Revues, Paris.
RSoc.	Revue Socialiste, Paris.
RPL.	Rivista Politica e Letteraria, Rome.
Ros.	Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
San.	Sanitarian, N. Y.
School.	School Review, Chicago.
Scrib.	Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
SelfC.	Self Culture, Akron, Ohio.
SR.	Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Str.	Strand Magazine, London.
Sun.	Sunday Magazine, London
Temp.	Temple Bar, London.
USM.	United Service Magazine, London.
West.	Westminster Review, London.
Wern.	Werner's Magazine, N. Y.
WWM.	Wide World Magazine, London.
WPM.	Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Yale.	Yale Review, New Haven.
YM.	Young Man, London.
YW.	Young Woman, London.

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SIR ALFRED MILNER, G.C.M.G., K.C.B.

(Governor of Cape Colony and High Commissioner of South Africa.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Status of Puerto Rico and Hawaii.

Since the period of reconstruction after the Civil War and the adoption of the new amendments to the national Constitution, Congress has not shown so much vigor and sustained strength in the discussion of deep-lying problems of government and public policy as in the protracted debates last month over the relations, political and financial, that are to be established between Puerto Rico and the United States. Various theories have been brought forth and various practical expedients have been proposed. Through all the confusion and bewilderment that so much discussion has caused, one clear, simple fact has remained unobscured. That fact is that we acquired both Puerto Rico and Hawaii under circumstances which entitle the people of those island domains to the very highest consideration at our hands. The further fact has remained sufficiently clear to be beyond serious dispute—that the people of the United States, in raising their flag at San Juan and Honolulu, had not for a moment any other thought than that they were annexing these bits of territory in the same full and unrestricted sense in which former additions have been made to the territory of the United States. President Harrison's administration had consummated an annexation treaty with Hawaii which, if President Cleveland had supported it, would have been ratified. Under that treaty the Hawaiian group would have become an integral part of the territory of the United States and the people would have become United States citizens. The delay of five years in making Hawaiian annexation an accomplished fact did not alter the popular understanding of the principles that were involved. For a long time there had been a reciprocity treaty between the Sandwich Islands and the United States which made trade practically as free as between any two of our States; and it was always taken for granted that the commercial union brought about for a limited period by the reciprocity treaty was to be established permanently by annexation.

What Annexation Meant to the Public.

Undoubtedly it was the common understanding that the Hawaiian Islands were to have free trade with the United States; that their people were to be regarded as citizens of the United States; that they were to have self-governing institutions somewhat on the plan of one of our Territories; and, finally, that the question of their having representation in the national Government at Washington was one which could be trusted safely to the indefinite future. Now it was also true, undoubtedly, that the American people as a whole understood Puerto Rican annexation as signifying just what had been involved in the popular discussion, for some years previous, of Hawaiian annexation. Puerto Rico was to become American soil, and the Puerto Ricans were to become American citizens in the same sense in which Mexicans in New Mexico and California had become our fellow-citizens after the acquisition of those regions by the United States. And certainly it was quite foreign to the American habit of thought to suppose for a moment that tariff barriers, either high or low, would be continued between the United States and the West Indian island thus annexed. The Puerto Ricans themselves thought they were becoming citizens of the United States, and shared the common view that they were to be brought inside the working of our scheme of national taxation.

To Every Question Its Own Answer.

It is not necessary to complicate questions now on our hands for immediate decision like that of Puerto Rico with others which must be met on their own merits when they come up. The Philippine question is separate and distinct. There are many reasons why it would not appear feasible to bring the Philippine archipelago into commercial union with the United States. Our Constitution prescribes unrestricted freedom of trade between the States; but it does not follow that our Government may not exercise political authority outside of the United States. And it is not the popular

understanding that we have annexed the Philippine Islands in the same full sense in which we have acquired Puerto Rico. We are not now speaking so much of legal distinctions as of popular understandings. When it comes to the future of Cuba, that also is a question by itself. Cuba will presumably become an independent republic under our protection, its foreign affairs being intrusted to our charge and its trade relations being secured under a favorable reciprocity arrangement with the United States. Such an arrangement ought to work well enough for twenty or thirty years. By that time the younger generation of Cubans would know English as a second language, and Cuba would probably be ready for full admission to the Union as a State.

Organizing Hawaii as a Territory.

While the House of Representatives was at work on a Puerto Rico bill, the Senate, in its leisurely way, was debating a measure for establishing territorial government in Hawaii. This interesting Pacific group was so well organized as an independent government under President Dole and his able and patriotic associates that it has managed to get on very comfortably, in spite of some inconveniences, during the nearly two years that it has been waiting, since its annexation by this country, for Congress to ordain its plan of government under the terms of the measure which the Hawaiian Commission had drawn up and which the Senate with some modifications adopted and sent to the House early in March. The Hawaiian group becomes the United States Territory of Hawaii. Its domestic government will continue to be carried on under a plan which virtually reënacts the existing Hawaiian constitution. The present law-making body at Honolulu has two houses, the lower one of which is selected by voters able to read and write either the English or Hawaiian language. Besides having this intelligence qualification, voters for members of the upper chamber must have a certain property qualification. The Hawaiian Commission advised the continuance of these restrictions upon the suffrage, but the Senate finally struck out the property clause, so that the intelligence qualification alone remained. The Senate ought to have borne in mind, however, that there is a broad difference between establishing new restrictions and merely leaving undisturbed for a time those that already exist. It is best for all races in Hawaii, for the present, that the people of American, English, and German origin, together with the better element of the Hawaiian natives, should continue in control. The existing franchise system was worked out several years ago with much care and study. It is always easy to broaden the terms of the elective franchise, but it is never easy to contract or disqualify. Congress could at any time in the future strike out the property qualification upon satisfactory assurances that it served no necessary purpose. The Hawaiian Commission, after studying the problem carefully, thought the existing terms of the franchise ought not at present to be altered.

A Satisfactory Solution.

The measure that passed the Senate is designed to stop permanently the coolie labor system on the Hawaiian plantations, inasmuch as it extends to the Sandwich Islands the contract labor laws and the Chinese exclusion laws under which we live on the mainland. The United States tariff and revenue system are of course extended to embrace Hawaii, and all the people become citizens of the United States who were citizens of Hawaii when we annexed the islands. All local laws and institutions are continued without change, unless inconsistent with the Constitution of the United States. Thus the problems of government in Hawaii, which a few years ago seemed so excessively difficult and complicated, bid fair to be worked out in a thoroughly satisfactory way. Annexation secures for the group the stability in its foreign relations and the security from revolutionary changes at home that it had needed for so long a time. On the other hand, its brief experience as an independent republic forced it to work out many of its own governmental problems of a strictly local nature, and the results are now accepted and confirmed in the measure pending at Washington. In many ways the problem of Puerto Rican government is much simpler than that of Hawaii. Japanese, Chinese, and Portuguese were flocking to the Sandwich Islands a few years ago, and no region in the world presented a greater variety of delicate and dangerous race problems. According to the latest available population statistics of the group, the native Hawaiians now number about 39,000, the Chinese about 26,000, Japanese 27,000, Portuguese 15,000, and all others, including Americans, English, Germans and other Europeans, barely 10,000.

Treat Puerto Rico on the Hawaiian Plan.

Puerto Rico, on the other hand, has a homogeneous population. It is supposed to number somewhere between 800,000 and 1,000,000, about two-thirds being white and one-third colored, all speaking Spanish. The simple and obvious way to provide for the government of the island is to treat it in a way quite analogous to the treatment we are according to the Territory of Hawaii. When General Miles, in July, 1898, landed with his

military expedition near Ponce, he declared in a formal proclamation that the people of Puerto Rico under the American flag should "enjoy the same privileges and the same immunities as citizens of the different States and Territories of the Union." It is not necessary to raise the question whether or not the policy of the country was fixed or its faith pledged for all time by the language of General Miles' proclamation. It is merely enough to observe that none of us contradicted General Miles at that time, and we all supposed as a matter of course that the annexation of Puerto Rico was going to mean precisely what the general himself had said. Puerto Rico was a fairly comfortable and prosperous place even under the Spanish colonial system. It will certainly become an American island in which we shall have just pride twenty-five years hence for its great progress under our flag, if we only keep the wisdom of our first intentions. There should be conferred upon Puerto Rico the benefits of full commercial union with this country. And other privileges in due time should be extended by act of Congress to make the people of Puerto Rico citizens not only of their own island, but also of the United States. Our system of justice should be made to include that island as it includes Arizona and Alaska, and as it will include Hawaii by virtue of the measure to which reference has been made. At present Puerto Rico is in a state of the most serious distress. The island imports breadstuffs and exports such articles as sugar, coffee, tobacco, and fruit. Our people need what the people of Puerto Rico have to sell, and the people of Puerto Rico need in turn the flour and other food products of which we have always a great exportable surplus.

Puerto Rico and the Tariff.

In his message last December, as our readers are well aware, President McKinley advocated the full inclusion of Puerto Rico in our commercial zone of unfettered trade. The Republicans in the House of Representatives, however, decided in favor of establishing a low rate of duty, and they agreed to make this 15 per cent. of the existing Dingley tariff rates. It was claimed with entire truth that this arrangement would relieve Puerto Rico's immediate commercial stagnation practically as well as if the entire duty had been abolished. It was held further that the moderate revenue that would be collected from this low custom-house tax was needed in Puerto Rico for current expenditures, in the lack of a suitable income from other sources, and that Puerto Rico would really be much better off under the low duty than with unrestricted trade. Those best qualified, however, to speak for the Puerto Ricans seem unanimous in declaring that the island can readily enough get all the revenue it needs from other sources, and that the one thing requisite to the establishment of a stable equilibrium is to do just what everybody in the United States and in Puerto Rico expected as a matter of course when we took the island—namely, make Puerto Rico part of the United States for all purposes of trade, commerce, and national taxation. The 15-per-cent. bill was made a strict party measure in the House, and it passed on February 28 by a vote of 172 to 160. The earlier proposal of the Ways and Means Committee had been for a 25-per-cent. rate. The dissatisfaction, however, was so great that this was reduced to 15 per cent., with the further proviso that it was to be limited to a period of two years.

Viewed as a Party Issue.

Whatever else may be said of this plan, it is excessively bad politics for the Republicans. Certain protected interests are strongly opposed to Puerto Rican free trade, but they can hardly be pleased with the outcome in the House. They ought to have saved their ammunition for a real occasion. What they have succeeded in doing has been to put the Republican party in a somewhat ridiculous position, all for the sake of being able to



WHOOP LA!!
Puerto Rico means to get in anyhow.
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

impose a tariff tax only one-seventh as much as the ordinary tax on other imports, and this for a scanty two years. The common-sense way to look at it was that in annexing Puerto Rico we had simply added a few square miles more to the sugar lands of Louisiana, a little more to the tobacco lands of Connecticut and Virginia, and something more to the fruit lands of Florida and southern California. It is as if another county or two had taken to raising oranges, or the sugar belt on our Gulf coast had been widened a few miles. If we must raise tariff barriers, let them be against outsiders and not against our own; and little Puerto Rico in all decency belongs on our side of the line. When the House passed its bill there was a storm of disapproval throughout the country. This was met by a recommendation on the part of President McKinley that Congress should immediately appropriate for the relief of Puerto Rico a sum of money equal to the amount of duties that had been paid on goods brought to this country from Puerto Rico since our annexation of that island. This was estimated at about $2,000,000 to January 1, 1900. Although the proposal came as a surprise, it was promptly accepted and adopted by the House of Representatives on March 2. The Senate proceeded with more deliberation, but passed the same measure on March 16. In neither House was there any disposition to make a party issue of this relief bill, every one professing to wish Puerto Rico well.

The Merits of the Question.

The Puerto Rican tariff question is purely one of expediency, good faith, and simple common sense. Some of the Republicans seem to have labored under the impression that it was necessary to impose a duty on Puerto Rican products in order to show that we could do so if we desired. They feared the spread of the doctrine that free trade necessarily follows the flag, and that the Constitution in that regard is self-acting and obligatory. A sufficient answer would seem to be that we have now for some time past owned Puerto Rico, and yet we have enforced a tariff tax on trade between the island and our mainland. To charge one-seventh of the McKinley rate for two years longer would do nothing more to establish the principle. In other words, the constitutional question as it may henceforth relate to the treatment of the Philippine Islands will not be embarrassed through doing with Puerto Rico the thing that is expedient. This sound and statesmanlike position was immediately taken by Senator Davis, of Minnesota, when the bill came before the Senate. He introduced an amendment extending our system to Puerto Rico in a manner virtually analogous to the treatment accorded Hawaii.



SENATOR CUSHMAN K. DAVIS.

The Free Trade Amendments of Senators Davis and Beveridge.

His amendment took the form of incorporating into the bill those provisions of the Constitution of the United States which prescribe freedom and uniformity in the commercial relations of the States. There is nothing whatever in Senator Davis' amendment that is not in perfect harmony with the doctrine so ably expounded in the present number of the REVIEW by Professor Judson, of the University of Chicago. This view is exactly the opposite of the one which Mr. Bryan and the Democrats take, to the effect that the Constitution itself goes into operation with the acquisition of new territory. Senator Davis' amendment was introduced on March 5. On the 19th, Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, reduced the matter to its very simplest terms by introducing the following as an amendment to the Puerto Rican Tariff bill:

All articles coming into the United States from Puerto Rico, or going into Puerto Rico from the United States, shall be admitted free of duty, but this act shall not be construed as extending the Constitution of the United States, or any part thereof, over Puerto Rico, and it is hereby declared that the Constitution of the United States is not extended over Puerto Rico.

Neither in the practical object meant to be accomplished, nor yet in legal theory or doctrine is there any inconsistency between the Davis amendment and the Beveridge proposal. Both seem to us to be right in policy, sound in principle, and

in the line both of the duty and of the disposition of the people of the United States toward the people of Puerto Rico.

Cuba's Approaching Elections.

Last month the Secretary of War, Mr. Root, paid a visit to Cuba, where he made a considerable tour of inspection in company with Governor-General Wood and held numerous conferences. Cuba is now progressing steadily. To the native editor of one of the Havana newspapers—who declared that the Cubans were not being allowed to show whether or not they were prepared for self-government, and were in that respect no better off now than under the Spaniards—Mr. Root made the pointed reply that out of four hundred employees in the Havana custom-house only four were Americans. Our readers will scarcely need to be reminded that under Spanish rule the custom-house in Havana, from the top to the bottom, was packed with Spaniards. To-day the *personnel* of the establishment is almost wholly made up of Cubans. Nearly every civil and judicial office in the island of Cuba to-day is filled by a man of Cuban birth. Under the Spanish *régime* the municipal elections were an absurd farce ; they resulted almost invariably in the selection of Spaniards for all offices. There were times when every single member of the municipal council of the city of Havana, for example, was a Spaniard. At other times the Cubans had not more than one or two members in a body of considerable size. This month is to see the completion of preparations for the holding of an entirely new sort of municipal elections in Cuba, in which Cubans for the first time in their history will have a real chance to elect their local governing bodies. It is announced that these municipal elections will occur in May. Let no one suppose that there has been any delay in the process of establishing self-governing institutions among the Cubans. On the contrary, there has been as great speed as has been either possible or desirable. By the terms of the treaty of peace with Spain, the Spaniards resident in Cuba were to be accorded a period of one year from the date of the final exchange of the treaty ratifications in which to make a final decision as to their allegiance. That year ends on April 11. Nothing whatever for the cause of Cuban self-government could have been gained by any attempt to institute government based upon local elections during this preliminary year. The result of these elections will be watched with great concern. Some time later—nobody now knows just when—a general convention will be elected to deal with the larger questions of Cuban government. Senator Platt, of Connecticut, chairman of the Committee on Relations with Cuba, together with Senators Aldrich, of Rhode Island, and Teller, of Colorado, of the same committee, went to Cuba last month to gain personal insight into the situation, in view of the interesting political changes that will speedily follow the first anniversary of our completed peace with Spain.



SENATOR DAVIS WITH HIS AMENDMENT PUNCTURES DEMOCRATIC HOPES BASED ON THE PUERTO RICO TARIFF.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

Cuban Orphans and Education.

Since there were no accurate population statistics at the outbreak of the insurrection in 1895, it can never be known exactly how large a proportion of the population of Cuba perished in consequence of the hardships of the war period. The starvation and disease attributed to General Weyler's reconcentration policy caused the death of scores, if not hundreds, of thousands. It is reported that the practical problem of providing for the orphaned children in Cuba is one of very serious dimensions. Meanwhile the women of the United States have formed a Cuban orphans' aid society, and they can show excellent results already realized, which, they assure us, are only the small beginning of the great things they have determined upon. A wonderful fair is soon to be held in New York for the benefit of this Cuban orphans' fund, and plans now on foot are quite certain to result in the speedy establishment all over Cuba of homes for orphan children under

the auspices of American women. With all possible aid and encouragement from Governor-General Wood, the work of establishing free public schools throughout Cuba has been going on with much enthusiasm. The schools are under the direction of Mr. Alexis E. Frye, and late reports indicate an enrollment in the new schools of 150,000 children. It is reported that an effort is going to be made in the coming summer to bring 1,000 Cuban teachers to this country, where, if the plan is carried through, they are to enjoy some of the advantages of the summer school for teachers at Harvard, and are afterward to be taken on an extended tour of observation through the country. The plan is an excellent one on many accounts. The Cuban Educational Association, in a quiet and unpretentious way, continues to find places in the schools and colleges in this country for deserving young Cubans who have money enough to pay a part of their expenses. All these and other kindred agencies are simply doing their part toward the honorable and successful completion of the work that the United States took upon itself in 1898 when it determined to deliver Cuba from an intolerable situation. Spanish misgovernment is at an end in Cuba; but during the period of the island's convalescence, so to speak, there will be special need for the neighborly offices of the philanthropists and educators of the United States.

Philippine Notes.

The new Philippine commission has been completed. We announced last month the selection of Judge Taft, of Cincinnati, as its chairman. Of the old commission one member is retained, namely, Mr. Dean C. Worcester. The other three members are Judge Henry C. Ide, of Vermont, Gen. Luke E. Wright, of Tennessee, and Prof. Bernard Moses, of the University of California. Judge Ide has served as chief-justice of Samoa. General Wright is a Memphis lawyer of high repute. Bernard Moses is a political scientist of distinction, and American historical students are familiar with his attainments in the field of Spanish colonial administration and law. The commission is exceedingly well-constituted for the purpose of organizing and establishing civil government in the Philippines. Bishop Henry C. Potter, of New York, who returned last month from a visit to Manila in the interest of Episcopal missions, came back with most unqualified praise for General Otis in the work he has been doing. Bishop Potter takes the ground that we are in the Philippines to stay, and could not get out honorably if we would; and that, therefore, to discuss the question whether we ought or ought not to have assumed sovereignty there is to deal with a purely academic question. In the Senate, on March 7, Mr. Lodge, of Massachusetts, made a speech generally regarded as the most important of his career hitherto, in which he advocated the bill which authorizes the President to proceed to establish government in the Philippines, and took occasion to review the whole history of our acquisition of the islands and our dealing with the natives. His speech is one which will be greatly used by the Republicans in the campaign this year. Serious complaints are made of the prevalence of American beer saloons in Manila.

The Hay-Pauncefote Treaty Amended.

After duly considering the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, the nature of which we discussed last month, the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations under the leadership of Senator Cushman K. Davis, of Minnesota, decided that it would be unwise to ratify the instrument without material amendment. Mr. Davis' amendment took the form of a clause admitting the right of the United States Government to use the canal for defensive purposes in time of war. During the wide discussion of the subject last month, it became evident that the country concurs in the views expressed in the March number of this magazine. It is not now probable that the Government of the United States will ever take the money of American taxpayers to a foreign land, there to construct vast public works of an essentially strategic nature,



TAKING UP THE FIRST INSTALLMENT OF THE WHITE MAN'S BURDEN.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul.)



Luke E. Wright.



Bernard Moses.



Henry C. Ide.

THREE MEMBERS OF THE NEW PHILIPPINE COMMISSION.

on the express understanding that such works should never be a benefit to this country in a time of military need. Senator Davis in the present instance as on more than one previous occasion, has shown himself a true exponent of American policy. If England should be unwilling to join in the simple abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, or to accept the Davis amendment of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, the people of the United States would not be slow to draw the appropriate inferences. In any case, as we remarked last month, the Hay-Pauncefote treaty is recognized by the opponents of any isthmian canal whatever as having for the present most effectively blocked the pending bills for the construction of a waterway by the Government of the United States. Since the Secretary of State seems to be out of sympathy with the plan of a thoroughly American canal, and since such a plan cannot be carried through without diplomatic negotiations which would require more than a half-hearted coöperation on the part of the State Department, the whole subject will probably have to remain in abeyance for some time to come.

Other Matters of a Diplomatic Nature.

Meanwhile, it is announced that the State Department is actively arranging for the holding of another Pan-American conference next year, the meeting-place to be the City of Mexico. It is also said that negotiations are pending on the part of the State Department looking toward the purchase of the Danish islands in the West Indies, and that inquiries are being made as to the possibility of the transfer to our Government by Ecuador, for a due consideration, of one or more of the Galàpagos Islands. There has been a great deal of uneasiness and incipient revolution brewing in Central America, and the State Department has instructed our representatives there to do everything in their power to keep the pot from boiling over. A certain element in Nicaragua has seemed disposed to acquire and annex so much of the territory of Costa Rica as may be affected by the route of the proposed Nicaragua Canal. The Nicaraguans would like to be able to control the canal negotiations without having Costa Rica concerned in them. The only simple solution of the whole complicated situation is for the United States to acquire by purchase from the two states such bits of territory as are necessary for the full control of Lake Nicaragua, the canal route, and a port on either ocean. Apropos of relations with England, it is to be noted that the British Ambassador at Washington, Lord Pauncefote, has received instructions that he is to remain for some time yet to come. He reached the retiring age more than a year ago, but it was thought best that he should stay on at Washington through the past winter. He had made all his arrangements to leave Washington on March 28 and sail from New York on the following day. The unfavorable reception by the Senate and the country of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, and the status of some other matters like the Alaskan boundary question, seem to have supplied the reasons for the retention of Lord Pauncefote at the American post. The people of

our far Northwest are greatly disturbed by what they regard as the danger of the sacrifice of American territorial rights in the settlement of the dispute about the boundary. The continued reports of the wealth of the Cape Nome gold diggings form the chief burden of the news that comes from Alaska; and American miners are said to have been leaving the Canadian Klondike in great numbers in order to try their luck under the Stars and Stripes on the icy beaches of Cape Nome.

The Gold Standard Act, Signed March 14.

Questions of monetary standards, currency, and banking held the first place in the politics and discussion of the Presidential year 1896. The Republican party can now say that it has embodied its position in the laws of the land. The new enactment not only declares the gold standard and authorizes a large Treasury reserve to maintain that standard, but it assigns to the Secretary of the Treasury the power and the duty to maintain the reserve, if the necessity arises, by the sale of gold bonds. This legislation, of course, does not put it out of the power of the American people to take any course they may prefer in the future; but it makes it highly improbable that there will be any successful attempt to change the standard at any time in the near future, and still further unlikely that any serious effort will ever be made to treat any part of the existing public indebtedness of the United States as if it were payable with silver. The measure as reported from the conference committee of the two Houses passed the Senate on March 6 by a very strict party vote of 44 to 26. One Democrat, Mr. Lindsay, of Kentucky, supported the bill, and one Republican, Mr. Chandler, of New Hampshire, voted against it. The bill was passed in the House of Representatives on Tuesday, the 13th, by a majority of 46, and was signed by President McKinley on the following day.

Refunding the Debt at 2 per cent.

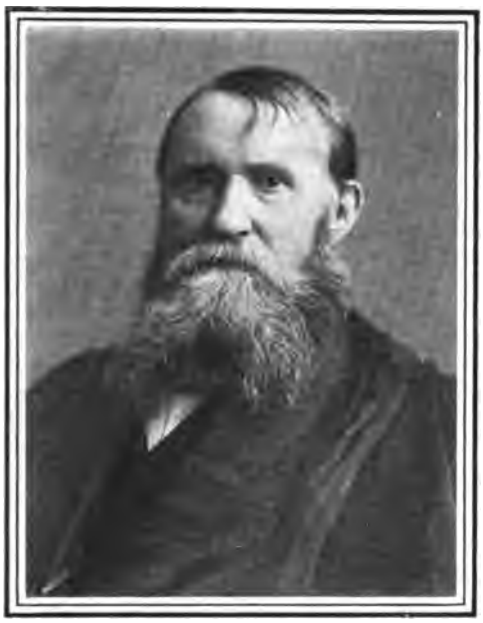
The part of the measure that was of the most immediate interest was that which had to do with the refunding of the public debt on a 2-per-cent. basis, and the changes in the national banking law, intended to promote the absorption of the new bonds by the banks as the security for their issues of circulating notes. The new law permits banks to issue notes up to the extent of their capital, and reduces the annual tax on circulation by one-half. It also permits the establishment in small places of national banks with a capital of $25,000. The new 2-per-cent. bonds are to be issued in voluntary exchange for outstanding bonds which aggregate altogether about $800,000,000 par value. These outstanding bonds would in any case fall due in from three or four to seven or eight years. For purposes, therefore, of trust funds and bank circulation, the new 2-per-cent. bonds, which will not mature for a long time, will be regarded as very desirable. The high quotations which they already command would seem to give promise of a very rapid presentation of the old bonds for exchange, especially as the law authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to pay a premium in connection with the exchange. A month or two hence it will be possible to speak with some certainty upon the measure of success that this huge refunding operation is destined to obtain. Meanwhile, it is at least worth while to note the fact that there is a ready market for the securities of the United States Government at 2 per cent., and that such securities immediately command a high premium. The credit of our government is now far better than that of any other in the world. It is also worth while to note the fact that the position of New York as an international money market is developing by leaps and bounds, and that this has been evinced lately by large subscriptions toward a Russian loan, and by the report that a large part of the new British war loan—which, by the way, draws 2¾ per cent. interest—would have been readily taken in New York, as shown by the subscriptions, if British capital had not been far more than equal to its absorption.

Presidential Politics.

The period of the presidential campaign will soon be upon us. As yet, no large movement of an independent or third party nature is visible. Mr. McKinley's re-nomination is still undisputed in the Republican camp, and Mr. Bryan's name is the only one mentioned in connection with the Democratic nomination. The fusion Populists will hold an early convention, the date having been set for May 9, and the place selected being Sioux Falls, South Dakota. This is the home of Senator Pettigrew, who has been the most bitter and irrepressible opponent of the various policies of the McKinley Administration of all



SENATOR PETTIGREW.



JUDGE HENRY C. CALDWELL, OF ARKANSAS.

the opposition Senators. Mr. Pettigrew was formerly a Republican; he would now perhaps be classed as a Populist supporter of Mr. Bryan, although he belongs nominally to the Silver party. The Sioux Falls convention is expected to nominate William J. Bryan and Judge Henry C. Caldwell, of Arkansas. The non-fusion, or middle-of-the-road Populists, it will be remembered, held their convention as long ago as September, 1898, and nominated Wharton Barker, of Philadelphia, and Ignatius Donnelly, of Minnesota. They are to have another convention, however, at Cincinnati, on May 9, the very day that the fusion Populists meet at Sioux Falls. Early last month the "Social Democrats" convened at Indianapolis, and promulgated a ticket headed by the name of Eugene V. Debs, with Job Harriman as the candidate for Vice-President. The Republican convention, as already announced, will meet at Philadelphia on June 17. The Prohibitionists will hold their convention ten days later, at Chicago. The Democratic National Committee finally decided against the claims of Milwaukee, and the convention will be held in Kansas City, on July 4. It will be an enthusiastic Bryan convention, and it is declared in some quarters that Judge Caldwell will be readily accepted as the candidate for Vice-President. Henry C. Caldwell is a judge of the United States Circuit Court, who was originally a Republican, but is said to have become a supporter of Mr. Bryan. Mr. Bryan, by the way, was forty years old on March 19.

Kentucky's Political Troubles.

The disturbed political situation in Kentucky was somewhat relieved by the adjournment of the Legislature on March 13. By agreement, the questions at issue in the gubernatorial contest had been left for decision to the law courts of the State. Governor Taylor meanwhile continued to hold the office. If he is ousted, it must now be by virtue of a decision of the Court of Appeals. The Legislature had appropriated $100,000 for the arrest and conviction of the assassin of Senator Goebel, and there was fear lest serious disturbance should result from the attempt to fasten this crime upon politicians of some prominence. The Legislature also appropriated $100,000 for the organization of a new State militia force under the authority of Mr. Beckham, the Democratic claimant of the governorship. The situation is extremely unfortunate, and it continues to be fraught with danger. Nothing but the steadying reflection that Kentucky, after all, is part of a great nation which would certainly intervene to put down a civil war, has thus far availed to prevent actual conflict. The history of the past few weeks in Kentucky makes it easier for us to understand the nature of those revolutionary outbreaks that occur so frequently in the small and turbulent Latin-American republics.

Southern Problems.

The South as a whole is suffering greatly from the uncurbed spirit of violence. Submission to the processes of law is the lesson that above all others needs to be learned in that part of the country. The lynching statistics of the past year would seem to indicate a slight improvement, but the betterment is not marked enough yet to indicate conclusively that the lynching habit is soon to be broken up. The worst thing about the mob rule of the South



THE PEN IS MIGHTIER THAN THE SHOTGUN.
From the *Herald* (New York).

is that it has quite frankly abandoned its old pretext that lynching was reserved for the punishment of men unmistakably guilty of crimes of violence against women. Nearly all the lynchings of the past two or three years have been for other offences, and many of them on mere suspicion of things so trivial as to be either not punishable at all by law or else deserving only a small fine or a few days' detention. The South itself, of course, must rise to the solution of its own problems. An important conference to discuss these questions is to be held in Montgomery, the capital of Alabama, on the 8th, 9th, and 10th days of May. The conference has been called by southern white men, who announce the problems to be discussed with eminent fairness and frankness. The neighboring State of Mississippi meanwhile has a new governor, the Hon. A. H. Longino, whose position on the subject of lynching, as set forth in his inaugural address in January, is all that could possibly be desired. Governor Longino advocates a law which would give to the surviving family of every man who is lynched a large fixed sum of money, to be paid out of the treasury of the county in which the lynching occurred. Governor Longino's address made a brave plea for the education of the negroes.



HON. A. H. LONGINO.
(Governor of Mississippi.)

Industrial Training for the Colored Race.

One of the topics set for the conference at Montgomery is negro industrial training. The possibilities, as they appear to us, are presented elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW in an article entitled "'Learning By Doing,' at Hampton." That great institution in Virginia is sending many hundreds of well-qualified colored teachers to assist in the wise training of the colored race throughout the South. Other important institutions, such for example as the one under Mr. Booker Washington at Tuskegee, in Alabama, and the one of which Mr. Woodworth is the president at Tougaloo, Mississippi, are doing noteworthy work of a kindred sort. It is to be hoped that the Montgomery conference may recognize to the full the usefulness of these institutions as sources for the supply of exactly the right kind of colored teachers and neighborhood missionaries that the immediate situation so greatly demands throughout the regions where eight or ten millions of colored people form the principal agricultural and industrial population. The North, meanwhile, it is also to be hoped, will contribute with more liberality and heartiness than ever to the support of such institutions as the one at Hampton. The carrying on of these schools with efficiency is impossible without a large income. No better use could be found for money. To maintain an industrial school that can supply teachers for other industrial schools and that can set the pace for agricultural and normal education for the colored race of the South is not to carry on a profit-earning enterprise. On the contrary, it is a business that shows a heavy deficit every year; and this money has to be made up by contributions. It is to speak volumes in a sentence when one simply remarks that the great majority of the plucky colored boys and girls at Hampton manage to pay by their own work—either in a productive industry of the school or in teaching or other work outside—for their board, clothing, and general expenses. But it is too much to suppose that they should be able also to pay the cost of the extensive and elaborate educational organization of which they enjoy the benefit. There has to be raised every year a sum amounting to about $100 *per capita* for the entire student population. It is to be regretted that Dr. H. B. Frissell, who succeeded on the death of General Armstrong to the principalship of the institute, has to give so much of his time to the necessary annual money-raising. He is fortunate, however, in having the support of an ideal board of trustees, under the chairmanship of Mr. Robert C. Ogden, of New York; and it is always to be borne in mind that the campaigning for the support of such an institution as Hampton helps to instruct a great many people in the North who otherwise might not have the benefit of knowing what such institutions are doing to help solve the country's great problems.

The Surrender of Cronje.

Our review of operations in South Africa last month closed with the relief of Kimberley, the retreat of the Boer forces under General Cronje, and the expectation that Lord Roberts would soon be in occupation of Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State. The movement toward Bloemfontein was interrupted by the success of General Macdonald of the Highland Brigade, and General French, commanding the cavalry division in a great manœuvre that resulted in the surrounding of General Cronje's retreating army, which was rendered slow of movement by the limitations of the ox as a transport animal. Kimberley had been relieved on February 15. The entrapping of Cronje's army occurred on the 19th. It was not until eight days later, namely, February 27, that General Cronje unconditionally surrendered, turning over to Lord Roberts some 4,000 men. The English forces to which Cronje surrendered numbered not less than 40,000; and, since reinforcements had been arriving constantly, the number was probably greater than that. Cronje's troops had intrenched themselves in the bed of the Modder River at Koodoos Rand Drift. They had not lost many men in the protracted and continuous artillery fire of the English army, but their animals had been killed, and their further resistance was useless. Part of the Boer artillery was captured, but some of their largest guns had mysteriously disappeared. Lord Roberts in his despatch to England emphasized the fact that the surrender of Cronje had occurred on the anniversary of the British defeat by the Boers at Majuba Hill and the British public and press rang the changes upon the avenging of Majuba with an unrestrained exulting over a brave enemy that seemed scarcely justified by the facts. Nothing could have been more unlike than the conditions of February 27, 1881, and February 27, 1900. Turning to a contemporary account of the former engagement, we read as follows:

General Colley proceeded to occupy with about 700 men the height of Spitzkop on Majuba Mountain, which commanded the Boers' position. On the following day, February 27, the Boers carried the eminence by storm, with the most heroic exertions. The British commander, Sir George Pomeroy Colley, who was also the High Commissioner for Southeast Africa, was slain with 82 others, and 184 were disabled or captured. The repeated successes which the Dutch farmers gained over the British regulars were won in nearly every instance with astonishingly small numbers, although the *morale* of the British troops was not particularly defective.

We may merely add that not more than 200 Boers were engaged in the famous Majuba Hill battle of nineteen years ago. If the English had not distinctly challenged these comparisons by their own allusions, it would seem hardly kind to recall the facts. It was reported that Cronje and his men would be sent to St. Helena. This idea seemed to appeal quite irresistibly to the same sentiment in England that had been so carried away with exultation over the military splendor



GEN. PIET CRONJE.
From *Black and White* (London).

of the achievement by which 40,000 or 50,000 well equipped troops had secured the surrender of 4,000 farmers. The average British jingo is probably more deficient in the sense of humor than any other contemporary type of man.

The Relief of Ladysmith.

It had now become the obvious part of wisdom for the Boers to withdraw from the neighborhood of Ladysmith. This they did with entire success, taking their guns with them, although to cover their retreat they kept up a show of steady resistance to General Buller's fourth, or, as some writers reckon it, his fifth attempt to reach the beleaguered town. The siege of Ladysmith had lasted for 118 days. The garrison had suffered from failing food supplies and the prevalence of disease. The tone of the jingo press in England in its exultation over the relief of Ladysmith is well shown in the fol-



THE TOWN OF LADYSMITH.

lowing sentence, which appeared in the most widely circulated London newspaper: "The Almighty God, Whose arm is strength, has blessed the efforts of General Buller's army in Natal with complete victory." The forces of Buller and White combined could not have been less than 40,000. Ladysmith was entered on March 1. Never at any time since the beginning of January was the Boer force in that neighborhood larger than 7,000, and for some time previous to the Boer withdrawal at the end of February the number had been much smaller. Buller's "complete victory," therefore, when stripped of the rhetoric of British jingoism, reduces itself to the simple proposition that four or five thousand Boers prudently and safely marched away with all that was valuable of their belongings, and left ten times as many Englishmen in unmolested possession of the British town of Ladysmith. This, indeed, was a most substantial desideratum for the English, but it was not exactly an exhibition of superior British prowess.

The Occupation of Bloemfontein.

While Cronje's stubbornness was detaining Roberts' great army, several thousand Boers had assembled in the neighborhood of Bloemfontein under Commandants Botha Delarey, and De Wet. British reinforcements had been arriving constantly, however, and nothing more than desultory fighting occurred in the further march toward the capital of the Orange Free State. The Boers had never expected to make a decisive stand at so unstrategical a point, and, accordingly, withdrew without exposing themselves to loss, making for the more mountainous strongholds of the northern part of the Free State. So it happened that the peace party, led by Mr. John Fraser of Bloemfontein, came out a mile or two with official keys and welcome words for Lord Roberts; and the pretty village accordingly became British headquarters, with Roberts comfortably lodged in President Steyn's mansion. Whereupon Lord Roberts sent another of those despatches which have made him so idolized in England. "By the help of God and the bravery of Her Majesty's soldiers," cabled Lord Roberts from Bloemfontein on March 13, "the troops under my command have taken possession of Bloemfontein." In the same despatch, however, he remarked that the enemy had withdrawn from the neighborhood, and that the officials of Bloemfontein had met him two miles from the town and presented him the keys of the public offices. It was only a figure of speech, therefore, which General Roberts had used in his opening sentence when he declared that Bloemfontein had been won by the bravery of the troops. Or else it was what



THE MARKET SQUARE OF BLOEMFONTEIN.



BLOEMFONTEIN, CAPITAL OF THE ORANGE FREE STATE.

lawyers might call "constructive" bravery. Doubtless, they would have been wholly brave in the assault on Bloemfontein if any resistance had been offered. Everyone knows that the men on both sides in the South African war are as brave as could be desired; so there is all the less occasion for bombast and bragging.

The Military Situation late in March.

With the occupation of Kimberley, Bloemfontein, and Ladysmith, there was still a little fighting in the rear to be done where parties of Boers were active below the Orange River along the northern borders of Cape Colony. General Gatacre, General Clements, and General Brabant operated on this line, with the effect of driving the Boer commands across the river, where it was their natural policy, if possible, to get past Bloemfontein and join the larger Boer bodies to the northward. It now remained to relieve the town of Mafeking, north of Kimberley, where Colonel Baden-Powell had maintained so long and so plucky a resistance. Colonel Plumer had been approaching Mafeking from the north, and a detachment was sent under Colonel Peakman from Kimberley. It was expected that Mafeking would be relieved almost any day in the latter part of March. Thus, the war, considered from the military point of view, had passed through its initial stages. The Boers had withdrawn to the positions where it had been supposed that a war would naturally begin. The British, meanwhile, had been constantly forwarding men and supplies until they were prepared to advance in overwhelming numbers. Lord Wolseley and the English military authorities felt themselves justified, late in March, in the announcement that Pretoria would be occupied and the war brought to an end by May 15. This certainly seemed to be a reasonable prediction from the military point of view, while from the standpoint of politics there seemed good reason to hope that the Boers might give up the unequal contest and enter upon peace negotiations much sooner than the middle of May.

From the Boer Point of View.

The second stage of the war may indeed prove very short; but if so it will not be due to strictly military considerations, but to the sensible decision to give up a hopeless resistance. Although so tiny a people, the Boers have already inflicted fearful punishment upon the great empire that is opposing them. Our readers will remember that in the exchange of predictions before the war began English statesmen and English generals alike had taken the view that the march to Pretoria would be a practically bloodless holiday picnic, while President Krüger's prediction was that if the English marched to Pretoria they must expect to do it with the loss of 10,000 men. What happened was that the Boers, by way of preliminary strategy, went over into English territory to meet the enemy as he approached, with the result of inflicting a loss about equal to Krüger's prediction before the war had got as far as Transvaal territory. The English rejoicing over Cronje's capture and the relief of Ladysmith and Kimberley was so great last month that many readers of the newspapers were misled into supposing that these events were great victories in the military sense and that the war was virtually ended. It is not strange that the English relatives and friends of the 12,000 men of General White's army, who were on short rations and suffering from disease at Ladysmith, were overjoyed when the Boers gave up the siege and withdrew. But it should be borne in mind that from the strict military point of view the Boers had won most of the substantial points in the game. Their object had been simply to hold White's army in check at Ladysmith for the longest possible time, in order to put the English to the heaviest possible cost in men and money by the attempt to relieve White—thus diverting the English from their original plan of campaign. This piece of Boer strategy was carried out with brilliant success from the beginning to the end. It would have done the Boers no particular good to capture Ladysmith, inasmuch as the position itself would have

been valueless and they would have had White's army to guard and feed as prisoners of war. So long as they could maintain the siege the army was virtually imprisoned, while compelled to find its own supplies. When at length the massing of immense English armies made the Ladysmith siege no longer feasible, the Boers quietly departed with their guns and munitions. For many weeks the Boer army near Ladysmith had been only 7,000 or 8,000 strong, though it had effectually penned up 12,000 British soldiers under General White and repeatedly repulsed a great army of relief under General Buller. General Joubert, as chief in command of a body of undisciplined Boer farmers, had for months outwitted and outfought about seven times as large a force of British troops led by famous generals, and had then retired in fairly good order and fighting trim, having inflicted far greater losses upon the enemy than had been visited upon his men in return.



MAJOR-GEN. GEO. ARTHUR FRENCH.
(Commanding the Cavalry Division under Roberts.)

Their Superior Strategy.

No one doubts or disparages the valor of the English soldiers, who have unquestionably fought with unflinching courage. But if one is looking at this war merely from the point of view of military science, his admiration for the Boers must predominate. General Cronje had kept up the siege of Kimberley in pursuance of the same strategy that General Joubert had exercised at Ladysmith. As at Ladysmith, so at Kimberley the Boers were inflicting a heavier penalty upon their enemies by merely maintaining the siege than if they had taken the town. Unfortunately for the full success of his plans, Cronje waited a little too long before beginning his withdrawal. He was overtaken and surrounded. Even then Cronje showed his qualities by compelling the forces of the great British empire to struggle and storm for days before he surrendered. His plucky command, safely honeycombed in the river bed, had suffered very little loss from the furious bombardment of the 40,000 surrounding British troops. From the strictly military point of view, the general results of the Boer siege of Kimberley had been so brilliant a success for the Boers that the subsequent capture of Cronje's entire army was not a heavy price to pay. Its seriousness to the Boers was due, of course, chiefly to the fact that they have so scant a population from which to recruit fighting men that the disappearance of even 4,000 or 5,000 is a matter of considerable moment, while Cronje himself would not willingly have been spared. Every war raises up leaders of its own, however, and the Boers do not seem to be lacking for generals of considerable efficiency. Several of their less known commanders have been recently promoted to high rank.

The Beginning of the "Second Half."

As for the occupation of Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, we remarked last month in anticipation of that event that the town was not, in the military sense, a stronghold; and to have made a serious attempt to hold it would have weakened the Boers, without any compensating results. From the very outset of the war it was obvious enough that in due time the British would have made their way across the Orange Free State without serious resistance. There had all along been a peace party in the Free State opposed to the war alliance with the Transvaal Republic and friendly to the English. The head of this party was a Scotchman, Mr. John

Fraser. It was not strange, therefore, that when the British marched into Bloemfontein they were welcomed by Mr. Fraser and his associates of the minority party in the Free State. This was, of course, to be expected. Thus from the military point of view the first half of the war may be said to have ended in the withdrawal by the Boers from the temporary positions they had assumed in British territory and with the occupation by Lord Roberts of the president's house at Bloemfontein as his headquarters. The second half of the war has for its object the British conquest of the Transvaal, the small republic in which are the richest gold mines in the world. This was not to begin without explicit understandings as to the purposes of the belligerent powers. Presidents Krüger and Steyn improved the opportunity afforded by the relief of Ladysmith and Kimberley and the partial recovery of British prestige to insist upon raising the question of peace with the English Government.

The Objects of the War.

They had several objects in opening diplomatic communication with England. First, of course, they profoundly wished for peace, and they may have hoped that some honorable basis for it might be reached. But in any case they wished to clarify beyond dispute the motives and purposes with which the war was to be prosecuted henceforth, if indeed it must go on. English statesmen assured the world when they entered upon the war that their sole object was to secure certain concessions and privileges for immigrants in the South African Republic, and that they had no intention of destroying the independence either of the Orange Free State or of the Transvaal. In reply to the overtures of Presidents Steyn and Krüger for peace, Lord Salisbury has now plainly informed them that peace upon the basis of the independence of the republics is no longer possible. It is officially avowed in England, with the enthusiastic approval of all the politicians and all the newspapers supporting Lord Salisbury's administration, that both the Orange Free State and the Transvaal are to be annexed by conquest to the British empire. This declaration brings the whole war into harmonious line with the movement of which the Jameson raid was a part, and it will, of course, confirm the conviction of the South African Dutch that the British Government never really cared a fig for the pretended grievances of the Uitlanders at Johannesburg, but was deliberately trying to find ground for fastening a quarrel upon the Transvaal in order to provoke a strife which might give excuse to the policy of conquest.

The Boer Address to Salisbury.

The overtures for peace on the part of the two presidents were made under date of March 5 in a brief address of great eloquence and power. It is destined, if we mistake not, to prove a document of unusual historical note, and we cannot make better use of our space than to quote it in full. It is as follows :



A. Wolmarans. F. W. Reitz State Secretary). S. M. Berger. J. H. M. Kock.
P. J. Joubert (Com.-Gen). S. J. P. Kruger (President). P. A. Cronje (Superintendent of Natives).

THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC.

The blood and the tears of the thousands who have suffered in this war and the prospect of the moral and the economic ruin with which South Africa is now threatened make it necessary for both belligerents to ask themselves, dispassionately and in the sight of the triune God, for what they are fighting, and whether the aim of each justifies all the appalling misery and devastation.

With this object, and in view of the assertions of various British statesmen to the effect that this war was begun and is being carried on for the set purpose of undermining her majesty's authority in South Africa and to set up an administration over all of South Africa independent of her majesty's government, we consider it our duty to solemnly declare that the war was undertaken solely as a defensive measure to safeguard the threatened

independence of the South African republics, and is only continued in order to secure and safeguard the incontestable independence of both republics as sovereign international states, and to obtain the assurance that those of her majesty's subjects who have taken part with us in this war shall suffer no harm whatever in person or in property.

On these conditions, and on these conditions alone, are we now, as in the past, desirous of seeing peace re-established in the South African republics and of putting an end to the evils now reigning over South Africa. While her majesty's government is determined to destroy the independence of the republics, there is nothing left to us and to our people but to persevere to the end in the course already taken.

In spite of the overwhelming preëminence of the British empire we are confident that the God who lighted the inextinguishable fire of love of freedom in the hearts of ourselves and of our fathers will not forsake us, but will accomplish his work in us and in our descendants.

We have hesitated to make this declaration earlier to your excellency, as we feared that as long as the advantage was on our side, and as long as our forces held defensive positions far in her majesty's colonies, such a declaration might hurt the feelings and the honor of the British people. But now that the prestige of the British empire may be considered to be assured by the capture of one of our forces by her majesty's troops, and that we were thereby forced to evacuate other positions which our forces had occupied, that difficulty is over and we can no longer hesitate clearly to inform your government and people, in the sight of the whole civilized world, why we are fighting and on what conditions we are ready to restore peace.

Independence Denied.

This, of course, is not in the least the document of defeated men humbly craving peace. It is rather a political paper calculated to affect public opinion in South Africa, Europe, and America, and above all designed to put Lord Salisbury on record as to his intentions. The receipt of the address by the English Government was kept secret for a few days, and meanwhile the two presidents, through the consular representatives at Pretoria, had sent out to Europe and America appeals for intervention. The European countries took no action on receipt of these appeals, but our State Department, which is supposed to have a very close understanding with the British Foreign Office, went through the form of instructing our embassy at London to inform Lord Salisbury that we had been asked to intervene, and to say that our friendly offices would be available if desired. Of course it was perfectly known already that they were not desired by England, and our approaches in the matter merely gave England the opportunity to say plainly that no outside interference of any sort would be acceptable, and that England proposed to deal with the South African republics according to her own will. Under all the circumstances it became necessary for Lord Salisbury to give to the public the address received from the Dutch presidents and also to make a reply on behalf of England. His answer reviews the causes and beginnings of the war in a way that an impartial critic might consider *ex parte* and scarcely accurate, and it ends with the following sentences, which contain the significant conclusion :

The British empire has been compelled to confront an invasion which has entailed upon the empire a costly war and the loss of thousands of precious lives. This great calamity has been the penalty which Great Britain has suffered for having in recent years acquiesced in the existence of the two republics.

In view of the use to which the two republics have put the position which was given them and the calamities which their unprovoked attack has inflicted upon her majesty's dominions, her majesty's government can only answer your honors' telegram by saying that they are not prepared to assent to the independence either of the South African Republic or of the Orange Free State.

British "Reconstruction" in the Orange Free State.

A very obvious reason why England so emphatically repudiates any suggestion of outside mediation in South Africa can be stated in a few words. Any sort of mediation implies the retention of their sovereignty by the two republics as a present and future fact. England now adopts the theory that their existence as republics was entirely at her convenience, and that they are now to be suppressed as a penalty for disturbing the peace. The Orange Free State is already treated as annexed. Lord Roberts, in his first dispatches from Bloemfontein, pointedly referred to Steyn as the "late President." Almost the first work of Roberts was that of political reorganization, with the assistance of Mr. Fraser and the anti-Steyn party. Fraser was made Mayor of Bloemfontein, and former officials and functionaries of all kinds were, in so far as possible, allowed to continue in office on the understanding that they should accept the inevitable in good faith. It is, of course, extremely fortunate for the British outlook in South Africa—as it is also fortunate for the individual average citizen of the Free State—that a man like Fraser is ready at hand, who enjoys every one's confidence, and who can help to tide over the political transition. For a long time Mr. Fraser had represented the Bloemfontein district in the Volksraad, or Parliament. He is a lawyer by profession, and is the son of a famous missionary, the Rev. Colin Fraser, who went out a great many years ago with Dr. Moffett from the Church of Scotland as a missionary to South Africa. John Fraser was sent to Scotland for his education, and after leaving the University of Aberdeen returned to practice law among the farmers of the Free State. An English paper



President Steyn. Mr. John Fraser.

THE RIVAL LEADERS OF THE FREE STATE.

last December made the following interesting remarks about this notable personality:

Every available moment from his busy professional life of something like thirty years, John Fraser has given to the affairs of the Free State. Its railroads, the building up of its remarkable educational institutions, founded in the first instance by the great Sir George Grey, its charitable institutions and countless details of what may justly be described as the model Republic of the world, the Free State owes to the man who, because of his British parentage and openly professed affection and friendliness for England, has twice been denied the Presidency by the Boers of the Free State. It is not too much to say that had John Fraser been at the helm of his country's affairs in the recent crisis there would have been no war to-day in South Africa. There it is an open secret that his defeat in 1896 was managed by Krüger's secret service funds, for after repeated efforts to win over the sturdy Scottish Africander, Oom Paul gave it up as a bad job, and turned his attention to more promising soil. "That's the only man I can do nothing with," growled angrily his Honor on one auspicious occasion, referring to Fraser.

Undoubtedly it is now the feeling of the people of the Orange Free State that they made a great mistake in having anything to do with the war; and it is not to be supposed that after their recent experiences they will very strenuously oppose some sort of reconstruction under British auspices. Inasmuch as in any case their foreign relations, military affairs, and financial system will undoubtedly have to be subject henceforth to British authority, it can scarcely matter much to them whether they become a British self-governing colony like Natal and the Cape, or retain the nominal form of a republic.

The Political Future of the Transvaal.

Nor can it really matter much which of these alternatives is offered to the Transvaal. As we have shown repeatedly, there has been no chance for a permanent Dutch republic in that region since the development of the gold district had in a few brief years resulted in an alien population outnumbering the original Boer element. However great the provocation, it was manifest last fall that Krüger had entered upon a hopeless war, and by appealing to arms had only made doubly certain the fate which he desired to avert. The best thing he could possibly do now would be to lay down arms and accept the best terms that he can get. During the months when the English were collecting their forces in South Africa and suffering reverses, it was to the interest of the British generals in the field and the War Office at London to make it appear that the Boer armies were very large and formidable. Thus they absurdly exaggerated the numbers of the men against them. Mr. Cecil Rhodes, in an interview with Julian Ralph last month, reminded us all again of the perfectly well-known facts as



MR. CECIL RHODES.

(From a recent Cape Town photograph.)

to the Boer population, and made it clear that the British generals had stretched the truth by at least 50 per cent. in their statements as to the number of armed men in the Boer camps. With 8,000 or 10,000 men from outlying British colonies, and 20,000, more or less, from British South Africa, in addition to the troops regular and volunteer belonging to the British army proper, including the successive bodies of men embarked during the month of March—it would

appear that before May 1, Lord Roberts will have under his control in South Africa a force aggregating much nearer 300,000 than 200,000.

Will the Boers destroy the Mines?

On the other hand—the Orange Free State men having largely returned to their farms, and the disaffected Dutch of Cape Colony having nearly all of them given up their more or less open disposition to take part in the Boer cause—there is scarcely reason to suppose that President Krüger will be able to



Photo by A. Dupont.

MR. MONTAGU WHITE.

keep together under arms a compact force of more than 10,000 or 12,000 men. It would be possible, undoubtedly, for Krüger to destroy the city of Johannesburg, so that the English army might not find shelter there; and it would also be possible to annihilate the vast aggregation of mining improvements that have cost scores of millions of dollars. Mr. Montagu White, the brilliant representative of the Transvaal in the United States, intimated last month that this would be done as a last resort. But to do this would only be to act with recklessness and desperation, where no military necessity could really justify. The destruction of Moscow was defensible as part of the policy which actually succeeded in making the Russian winter destroy the invading army of Napoleon. But the destruction of Johannesburg and the mines could not in the least avail, as matters now stand, to cause the defeat of the British. Roberts and Kitchener thoroughly understand the business of keeping an army in touch with its base of supplies; and they will not push on to Pretoria until their plans are perfectly matured. It would seem as if the best friends of the Boers are now those who would advise them to give up the unequal contest and accept such terms of peace as they can get. Further fighting will not help them in the smallest degree. Their valor has won for them a great fame; and their acquiescence in the results of the war will gain for them the hearty good will of the British people. Their public cause is lost; their private well-being should now concern them. The best thing they can do is to become part of a federated South Africa which, while under British sovereignty, would enjoy self-government and would for some time at least have a Dutch majority.

Imperial Politics After the War.

The indirect effect of the Boer war upon the internal politics and structure of the British Empire must certainly be important, if not stupendous and revolutionary. Toryism now professes a complete change of feeling toward Ireland. Instead of regarding the wearing of the shamrock on St. Patrick's day as virtually an act of disloyalty toward the Crown, the English last month took exactly the opposite view; and the Queen herself gave orders that all the Irish soldiers should be encouraged as well as permitted to wear the green on March 17. The consequence was that everybody wore shamrock, and there was not enough to go around, and the green flag was allowed to float everywhere. This was construed, primarily, as a tribute to the Irish generals and the Irish soldiers, who had fought so well in South Africa. But it was also—more than that—an indication of a purpose on the part of the British to try to understand better the importance of sentiment in matters of government and politics. In case of a war with France, Ireland's attitude might turn the scale. The Queen, after an absence from Ireland of some forty years, announced her intention to spend part of April in Dublin. Ireland might heretofore have been made as loyal in its attachment to the British Crown as Scotland or Wales, if a common-sense policy had prevailed. Colonial experience has shown how to make a great body of French people contented and happy under British sovereignty in Canada; and a like policy has been successful with the Dutch in Cape Colony. With the exercise of a reasonable amount of tact and good judgment, the Transvaal can be made as contented as the Province of Quebec. Exactly the way, however, to create another po-

litical Ireland in South Africa is to adopt the policy that Mr. Rudyard Kipling advocated in his first letter to London from that region, which also appeared in *Harper's Weekly* last month. He indulged in a bitter diatribe against the Boer sympathizers of Dutch nationality in Cape Colony; and the burden of his advice was that when the war is over England should proceed with



WINSTON SPENCER CHURCHILL.

great deliberation to hang the prominent Dutch-speaking politicians of the Cape for treason. Mr. Rudyard Kipling writes English prose with picturesqueness, and he also makes at times some strikingly good bits of poetry; but his jingoism is of an exceedingly vicious type, and the sort of statesmanship he advocates would break the British Empire to pieces in twelve months. Undoubtedly there has been disloyalty, and a good deal of it, in Cape Colony; but the only wonder has been that the Dutch majority at the Cape has held its natural sympathies in check as well as it actually has. When the war is over it will only be mischief-makers who will propose to hang Cape Town statesmen in cold blood for having been secretly on the fence in the early part of the war period. Mr. Winston Churchill has thus far achieved the one large reputation as a war correspondent that has been gained in South Africa. He has written sense, and has shown wonderful foresight. He bids fair to become an imperial statesman.

The Great Colonies and their Future.

It seems likely enough that the great colonies of the British Empire will expect henceforth to be taken into some kind of active partnership in the management of imperial affairs. It is not possible to forecast accurately what form such demands will take. But if Australia, Canada, and South Africa are to fight for the empire, they must sooner or later expect to take some proportionate part in controlling it. And they must all be brought into closer relationship with one another. Heretofore, the ties that have bound Australia to Canada have been no closer than those that have bound Australia to the United States; and neither Australia nor Canada has had any proprietary interest of any sort in the British Empire in Africa. But now that Canada and Australia have both taken part in a war of conquest which is destined to make important additions to the empire in Africa, they might properly enough take the ground that they had acquired certain minor partnership rights there. If a great war with Russia should arise, Canada, Australia and South Africa would doubtless take part for the defence of the Queen's empire in India; and the consequence would be that, from that time forth, these partners of England would seem fairly enough to have acquired some right to share in the control of the British Asiatic empire.

Politics in England.

The political situation in England is very much mixed up. The Salisbury ministry had become extremely unpopular on account of its alleged shilly-shallying and its lack of sufficient energy in the prosecution of the war. This unpopularity lasted as long as the Boers seemed to be having things their own way. When the tide turned in South Africa, the administration was safe again in England. Although Lord Lansdowne at the head of the war office continues to be unpopular, the sentiment now is that there must be no swapping of horses in the middle of the stream. Mr. George Wyndham, the Parliamentary Under Secretary of the war department, has on the other hand made a great reputation by the clearness of his statements in the House of Commons, and his superior comprehension of the military business in hand. Lord Rosebery has freed himself from responsibility for any association with the Liberal party as at present organized, and has stepped boldly forth as an imperialist who claims to understand the British Empire and its needs better than Lord Salisbury's government. He attacks

the party in power on the ground of its unreadiness to face the serious dangers which lurk in its policies. As for the Liberals in general, the only thing upon which they wholly agree is their intense dislike of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. The England of John Bright and Gladstone seems to be fast disappearing. Lord Rosebery does not hesitate to express the opinion that war with France is imminent, and that the danger must be faced by resorting to the European plan of compulsory military service. The dread of just



GEORGE WYNDHAM.

(British Under-Secretary for War.)

such a measure is already increasing emigration from the British Islands to this country, especially, of course, from Ireland. Crowds of Irishmen landed at New York last month avowedly fleeing from the prospect of "conscription." The "Stop-the-war" party in England has had its meetings broken up everywhere by jingo mobs, and public opinion has been carried away with transports of anti-Boer rage, while the idolatry of "Bobs," as they call Lord Roberts, has become the national religion. When this small scrape is successfully ended, it is going to be hard for Frenchmen and others to live on the same planet with the new British jingoism. As soon as the war is over, there will be a general election. Presumably, the Conservatives will win again, with a large majority in the new Parliament.

England and Russia.

A great deal was printed in the newspapers last month about the possibilities of a war between England and Russia. But the best safeguard of peace is to be found in the fact that there is no nation on earth to-day that does not dread and hate war, and that is not making the avoidance of war the foremost object of its policy. The Russians feel that their vast development as a nation gives them a legitimate right to seek commercial outlets. It is true that the English do not like the recent arrangements by which the Russians have gained a leasehold from Persia of a port on the Persian Gulf. It does not please them that Russia has completed the arrangements for the building of a railroad that will connect her central Asiatic possessions with the Persian seacoast. But the English are perfectly aware that these steps are only in pursuance of a policy of commercial extension that has been going on for years, by virtue of which the Russians have come to monopolize almost every avenue of trade and commerce in the dominions of the Persian ruler. Sooner, rather than later, the Russians are destined to control both Afghanistan and Persia, in connection with their remarkable expansion of political and commercial empire beyond the Caspian. It does not follow at all, however, that these movements are to involve England and Russia in a war.

Russia and Japan.

There is much more likely to be a war between Japan and Russia, growing out of the determination of the Japanese to control the destinies of Korea. We publish elsewhere in this number two articles on the conditions in Japan and China from the pens of exceptionally well-informed contributors, both of them for a very long time resident in the far East. These articles, of wholly independent origin, are from the pens of men—one a citizen of Holland, the other an American missionary—who agree that the present reaction in China is a menace to peace; and that there is a marked tendency in the direction of a close alliance between the Japanese and the Chinese, with the object of an ultimate repulsion of European attempts to control Chinese affairs. The Chinese are a people of great ingenuity. Under the right kind of instruction, it is quite conceivable that they might enter upon the manufacture of modern implements of warfare on a vast scale, and that they might become an exceedingly formidable military force. Mr. van Bergen, who contributes one of the articles to which we have alluded, is of opinion that the Japanese antipathy to Russia is reaching a point where nothing can prevent a collision. He calls particular at-



Rev. A. Merensky, D.D., Berlin. Rev. T. Logstrup, Denmark. Rev. A. Kolmodin, Stockholm. C. F. Harford-Battersby, M.D., England.

DISTINGUISHED DELEGATES TO THE ECUMENICAL MISSIONARY CONFERENCE.

tention in his article to the unfortunate anti-foreign feeling in Japan, which is making it decidedly disagreeable for Europeans and Americans to do business there. Until lately, foreigners in Japan were under the protection of consular courts. Now they are subject in all their rights of person and property to the native tribunals. Unfortunately, as Mr. Van Bergen points out, the new Japanese courts are without an available supply of suitably trained men to act as judges. This is due partly to the fact that the judicial salaries are miserably inadequate. There is no intention, of course, on the part of the higher Japanese officials to permit any injustice to be done to foreign travelers or residents in their country; but the wise administration of a good code of laws throughout a great empire is a matter of patient growth; and even in Japan, where progress has been so marvelous, it will take a long time for modern views completely to permeate the whole mass of the body politic.

A Great Missionary Conference at New York.

Whatever may be one's sympathies toward the cause of modern foreign missions—whether friendly, indifferent, or hostile—he is not an intelligent man who takes the ground that missions have been of small significance. Modern missionary effort has, on the contrary, exhibited a profound influence upon the course of international commerce and politics, as well as upon education, social usages and customs, religious opinion and moral conduct. A great ecumenical conference on foreign missions is to be held at New York, beginning on April 21. The plans for it have been on foot for a long time, and 2,000 accredited delegates are expected, representing the missionary societies of a number of countries, and the fields of missionary enterprise throughout the world. Ex-President Harrison is to have the conspicuous post of honorary president; but the practical work of the conference will be in the hands of the responsible executives of the foremost mis-



Rev. William Ashmore, D.D., China. Rev. John G. Paton, New Hebrides. Rev. J. Hudson Taylor, China. Rev. K. S. Macdonald, D. D., Calcutta.

DISTINGUISHED DELEGATES TO THE ECUMENICAL MISSIONARY CONFERENCE.

sionary societies. Distinguished men will come from Great Britain, Germany, and other parts of Europe; but the most interesting figures will come direct from missionary fields—from India, China, Japan and the Turkish Empire especially. All the principal missionary societies of the Protestant denominations of America are represented on the General Committee of Arrangements, of which the chairman is the Rev. Dr. Judson Smith, of Boston, of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The rivalries and frictions of religious denominations at home, while tending to grow less, undoubtedly exist as a practical evil, especially in small communities. In the missionary field, however, there has been, to a great extent, a laying aside of denominational differences, under a comity that might well be practiced more perfectly at home. Upon no other great theme could Protestant Christianity come together in a representative conference with so much propriety and so much reason to expect practically useful results as upon the subject of foreign missions. Among the great figures at the conference will be the Rev. J. Hudson Taylor, of the China Inland Mission; the Rev. Drs. Kenneth Macdonald and Thomas Smith, of India; Mr. Eugene Stock, of the Church of England Missionary Society; Dr. August Schreiber, of Barmen, Germany, formerly a missionary in Sumatra, and the Rev. Alexander Merensky, of Berlin, for a long time in South Africa. The conference will not by any means be devoted exclusively to the evangelistic work of missions, but will give great attention to the work that is now being prosecuted, under missionary auspices, in the higher education, the training of teachers, the establishment of hospitals and the carrying on of medical relief work, and in many other interesting directions.

Uneasiness in the Balkans.

There is great uneasiness in the Balkan States, and many rumors of war have come from that quarter, none of which has been supported by any very intelligible explanation of causes. One rumor has been of an inevitable outbreak between Bulgaria and Servia, with no sufficient cause assigned apart from the chronic frictions and jealousies between these two small states. Certainly it is not to be believed that Servia would fight in resentment of disagreeable things said in Bulgaria about the ex-king Milan. Another and somewhat better defined rumor has been to the effect that Bulgaria and Turkey are about to go to war over the alleged determination of the Bulgarians to throw off the nominal suzerainty which the Sultan still holds over the Bulgarian principality. Undoubtedly, Bulgaria desires at the first favorable moment to become a full-fledged, independent kingdom like Servia and Roumania. But in fighting for the shadow the substance might be endangered. As matters have stood for some years past, the suzerainty has cost Bulgaria nothing, either of money or of entire freedom of action; while it has, on the other hand, given



THE LATE REV. THOMAS K. BEECHER.

the Bulgarian Government a certain asset in the nature of a claim upon Turkey for military support under conceivable emergencies. There have been many war scares in the Balkan region in times past that came to nothing, although they seemed far more serious than that of last month.

Some Obituary Notes.

The obituary list of the month contains the names of many well-known people who had led lives of usefulness to the community in widely varied capacities. Hon. E. J. Phelps, the well-known lawyer, had served as our minister to Great Britain. Mr. Harmer, a representative in Congress from Pennsylvania, was known as the "Father of the House," in view of his long continued service. Two members of the Beecher family, brother and sister of the late Henry Ward Beecher, died on the same day. One of these was the Rev. Thomas K. Beecher, of Elmira, a great preacher and religious leader, and the other was Mrs. Mary Beecher Perkins, of Hartford, who had attained the age of ninety-five. Our records contain the names of many others as well known.



THE LATE HON. EDWARD J. PHELPS.
(Minister to England in President Cleveland's first administration.)



THE LATE HON. A. C. HARMER, OF PENNSYLVANIA.
("Father of the House.")



THE LATE COL. WM. S. KING.
(For more than forty years a prominent citizen of Minneapolis.)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From February 19 to March 19, 1900.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

February 19.—In the Senate Mr. Cullom (Rep., Ill.) explains his bill providing a form of government for Hawaii....The House begins debate of the Puerto Rican tariff bill; the Committee on Military Affairs introduces an army reorganization bill prepared by the Secretary of War.

February 20.—The Senate considers the Hawaiian bill....The House continues debate on the Puerto Rican tariff bill.

February 21.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the Samoan claims treaty.

February 23.—The Senate, by a vote of 34 to 28, decides to take up the case of Matthew S. Quay (Rep., Pa.) as claimant to a seat in the Senate; the conference report on the currency bill is presented by Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.)....In the House Mr. Littlefield (Rep., Maine) speaks against the Puerto Rican tariff bill.

February 27.—In the Senate Mr. Depew (Rep., N.Y.) defends President McKinley's Philippine policy....In the House general debate on the Puerto Rican tariff bill is closed.

February 28.—After eight days' debate the House passes the Puerto Rican tariff bill by a vote of 172 to 161.

March 1.—The Senate passes the bill providing a territorial form of government for Hawaii.

March 2.—The Senate begins consideration of the bill providing a form of government for Puerto Rico....The House passes a bill, in response to a special message from the President, granting relief for the people of Puerto Rico by appropriating $2,095,450, being the amount of customs revenue received on importations by the United States from that island from the Spanish evacuation to January 1, 1900.

March 5.—Mr. Bard, the new Senator from California, takes his seat.

March 6.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the currency bill by a vote of 44 to 26.

March 7.—In the Senate Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) defends President McKinley's Philippine policy....In the House Mr. Overstreet (Rep., Ind.) presents the conference report on the currency bill.

March 10.—The Senate passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

March 12.—The House passes an urgent deficiency appropriation bill ($1,439,580).

March 13.—The House adopts the conference report on the currency bill by a vote of 166 to 120.

March 15.—The Senate begins consideration of the Puerto Rican relief bill....The House passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill.

March 16.—The Senate passes the Puerto Rican relief bill.

March 19.—The Senate passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill and the bill establishing a Spanish claims commission.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

February 19.—All the members of the Kentucky Legislature meet at Frankfort.

February 20.—The Democratic members of the Kentucky Legislature, in joint session of the two houses at Frankfort, ratify the former proceedings by which J. C. W. Beckham claims the governorship....Secretary Root appoints a board of officers to perfect plans for an army war college.

February 21.—An agreement is reached at Frankfort for the settlement in the courts of the contests over the offices of governor and lieutenant-governor of Kentucky.

February 22.—The Democratic national convention is called to meet at Kansas City on July 4, 1900....A proc-

lamation abolishing slavery in the island of Guam goes into effect.

February 23.—The anti-imperialist conference in Philadelphia adopts resolutions condemning President McKinley's policy in the Philippines.

February 24.—The contract for the building of the rapid transit tunnel in New York City is signed.

February 26.—The United States Court of Claims decides adversely to Admiral Dewey in a claim for bounty arising from the battle in Manila Bay.

March 1.—The United States Industrial Commission's preliminary report on trust legislation is made public (see page 445).

March 3.—Arguments in the Kentucky governorship contest are concluded at Louisville.

March 6.—Rear Admiral John C. Watson, U. S. N., is relieved from the command of the Asiatic station and Rear Admiral George C. Remey is ordered to succeed him....The membership of the new Philippine Commission is completed by the appointment of Prof. Bernard Moses, of the University of California; the other members are Judge Taft, of Ohio; Prof. Dean C. Worcester, of Michigan; Luke Wright, of Tennessee; and Judge Henry C. Ide, of Vermont.

March 7.—A split in the Texas Republican convention will result in the sending of two sets of delegates to the national convention at Philadelphia....Orders are sent to General Otis to begin sending home troops from the Philippines.

March 9.—The Social Democratic convention at Indianapolis nominates Eugene V. Debs, of Indiana, for President and Job Harriman, of California, for Vice-President.

March 10.—The Circuit Court at Louisville decides the Kentucky governorship case in favor of the contention of the Democrats; two Republican officials are arrested charged with being accessory to the assassination of William Goebel before the fact.

March 13.—Secretary Gage makes a statement explaining the provisions of the currency bill passed by Congress.

March 14.—President McKinley signs the gold-standard currency bill.

March 17.—Cincinnati Republicans nominate Julius Fleischmann and Democrats and Independents Alfred M. Cohen for mayor of the city.

March 19.—Nebraska Democrats and Populists hold conventions endorsing W. J. Bryan for President.... The United States Supreme Court sustains the Texas anti-trust law.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

February 19.—In the Newfoundland Legislature Premier Winter's government is defeated on a question of confidence by a vote of 15 to 9....The Italian finance minister says that the receipts for the past seven months show an increase of 24,000,000 lire.

February 20.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 286 to 152, rejects a resolution offered by Mr. Thomas (Liberal) for reopening the inquiry into the Jameson raid in 1895.

February 21.—In the German Reichstag a motion is carried to repeal the dictatorship paragraph in the law of 1871 regarding Alsace-Lorraine.

February 23.—The Austrian Reichsrath reassembles ....In the French Chamber the bill to exempt schoolmasters in the public service from the second period of twenty-eight days' service as reservists is agreed to without debate....The French High Court sentences Deputy Marcel-Habert to five years' banishment for inciting soldiers to mutiny.

February 24.—The debate on the public safety bill is opened in the Italian Chamber.

February 25.—The French senatorial committee reports favorably on a bill for admitting women to join the bar.

February 26.—The naval estimates are introduced in the British House of Commons.

February 28.—John O'Donnell (Nationalist) is elected to the British Parliament for South Mayo. Ireland, to succeed Mr. Michael Davitt.

March 5.—The British House of Commons passes the Boer war budget; it is proposed to raise £43,000,000, partly by bonds or stocks and partly by increased taxation.

March 6.—The British House of Commons, in committee of the whole, adopts, by a vote of 161 to 26, a resolution authorizing a war loan of £35,000,000.

March 8.—Queen Victoria receives a great demonstration of loyalty in the streets of London.

March 13.—The German Reichstag passes by a large majority the coinage bill providing for calling in the gold 5-mark pieces and 20-pfennige pieces, issuing silver up to 15 marks per head of the population, and calling in provincial coins for reminting; an amendment proposing the purchase of silver bullion for minting the new coins is rejected by a vote of 161 to 61.

March 19.—In the British House of Commons the budget passes second reading.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

February 19.—The Newfoundland Legislature unanimously votes to extend the *modus vivendi* regarding the French shore rights for one year.

February 21.—A commission of the German Reichstag adopts a new meat-inspection bill containing severe reflections applying to American meats....The executive council of Jamaica approves the reciprocity treaty with the United States.

February 22.—At Constantinople the Russian ambassador and the Turkish foreign minister meet and discuss the questions of the repatriation of the Armenian refugees and the Russian protectorate of northern Asia Minor....A mob of Mussulmans attacks the British consulate in Beyroot, Syria.

February 23.—The ambassadors at Constantinople protest against the Sultan's prohibition of foreigners acquiring further interests in Turkish mines.

February 27.—The Anglo-Abyssinian boundary is settled by treaty.

March 6.—It is announced that the term of Lord Pauncefote as British ambassador at Washington has been extended.

March 7.—Ratifications of the Samoan claims treaty are exchanged at Washington between representatives of the United States, Great Britain, and Germany.

March 9.—The Senate Committee on Foreign Relations amends the Hay-Pauncefote treaty so as to permit

the United States to defend the Nicaragua Canal in time of war.

March 10.—The Swiss tribunal of arbitration reaches a decision on the claims of American and British investors against Portugal in the so-called Delagoa Bay cases.

March 12.—Ratifications of the Chilean claims treaty are exchanged at Washington.

March 16.—Secretary Hay and Ambassador Pauncefote sign a protocol extending the time for ratification of the reciprocity treaties between the United States and British colonies.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.

February 19.—The Boers evacuate Colenso, withdrawing their troops north of the Tugela....Lord Roberts issues a proclamation to the burghers of the Orange Free State in English and Dutch.

February 21.—The British Fifth Division crosses the Tugela by pontoon bridge and drives back the Boers; Cronje still holds his position....Lord Roberts drives off his reënforcements and occupies a kopje a mile southeast of Cronje's laager....Supplies of food and forage are pushed on to Kimberley.

February 22.—Severe fighting between Cronje's forces and the British continues at Paardeberg.

February 23.—Cronje's force still holds out at Paardeberg . . . . Severe fighting between General Buller's force and the Boers on the road to Ladysmith.

February 27.—General Cronje and his force capitulate unconditionally to Lord Roberts; 4,600 prisoners and 6 small guns are taken.

February 28.—Lord Dundonald's force enters Ladysmith, and General Buller reports that the way to Ladysmith is open.

March 5.—General Gatacre occupies Stormberg; General Brabant captures the Boer fort at Dordrecht.

March 7.—General Roberts turns the Boer position at Poplar Grove, near the Modder River, causing the Boer forces to retreat with the loss of tents and forage and a Krupp gun.

March 10.—General Roberts drives the Boers from a strong position east of Bloemfontein, after a severe engagement, the Boers leaving 102 dead on the field and 20 prisoners in the hands of the British.

March 13.—Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, is occupied by British troops and a formal surrender of the town is made to Lord Roberts....In the British House of Commons a letter from Presidents Krüger and Steyn relating to possible terms of peace and Lord Salisbury's reply rejecting the proposition for the independence of the two republics are made public; the offer of the United States to be of assistance in bringing about peace is declined by the British Government.

March 17.—Many Free State Burghers surrender to Lord Roberts at Bloemfontein.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

February 19.—Three new cases of plague are discovered in Honolulu, two of which prove fatal; the total of deaths to date is 53; recoveries, 10.

February 20.—A meeting of prominent Cubans protests against the appointment of Mgr. Sbarretti as bishop of Havana.



THE LATE GEORGE WARRINGTON STEEVENS.

(Mr. Steevens, who was one of the ablest and most versatile of the younger English journalists and authors, was stricken by enteric fever at Ladysmith while on duty as war correspondent of the London *Daily Mail* and died there on January 15.)

February 23.—A fire in Birmingham, Ala., causes a loss of about $1,000,000.

February 26.—The suit of minority stockholders in the H. C. Frick Coke Company against the Carnegie Steel Company is begun at Pittsburg.

February 28.—Hugh J. Grant is appointed temporary receiver of the Third Avenue Railroad Company of New York City.

March 1.—A riot takes place in the streets of Montreal as a result of the celebration of British success in South Africa....Filipino insurgents near San Fernando de la Unión ambush 10 men of the Third Cavalry.

March 3.—Continued activity of the Philippine insurgents is reported....Sixty thousand men are reported on strike in Chicago.

March 6.—More than 50 lives are lost in a coal-mine explosion at Fire Creek, W. Va.

March 7.—The building contractors of Chicago make known their refusal to arbitrate.

March 8.—The famous Théâtre Français at Paris is burned.

March 10.—In order to permit the rebuilding of the Lincoln monument in Springfield, Ill., the coffin containing the body of President Lincoln is removed from the monument's base.

March 12.—The answer of Andrew Carnegie and his associates to the suit of H. C. Frick is filed at Pittsburg (see page 433)....The sash, door, and blind manufacturers of Chicago vote to close their mills till the labor troubles are settled.

March 17.—St. Patrick's Day is celebrated throughout Great Britain.

March 19.—The bi-centenary of the Prussian Academy of Science is celebrated at Berlin....The Metropolitan Street Railway Company, of New York City, secures control of the Third Avenue system.

OBITUARY.

February 19.—A. W. Whelpley, librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, 67.

February 20.—Leander J. McCormick, of the famous Chicago harvester machinery firm, 81....William H. Beard, the American painter of animals, 75....Ex-Congressman Charles C. Comstock, of Grand Rapids, Mich., 82.

February 21.—Henry Duff Traill, editor of *Literature*, 57....Dr. James Henry Smart, president of Purdue University, Indiana, 59....Dr. Charles Piazzi Smyth, British astronomer, 80....Dr. Leslie E. Keeley, discoverer of the so-called "gold cure" for the liquor habit, 64....Wash-a-Kie, chief of the eastern Shoshone Indians in Wyoming, 93....Benjamin Wood, proprietor of the New York *Daily News*, 79.

February 22.—Gen. John McNulta, of Chicago, 60....Ex-Congressman Henry C. Miner, of New York, 58.

February 24.—Ex-Congressman William S. King, of Minnesota, 72....Emanuel R. Boyer, director of the Chicago Institute, 42....Richard Hovey, the poet, 36.

February 25.—William Butterfield, the famous English architect, 86....Dr. A. R. Wright, of Buffalo, N. Y., a leading homeopathic physician, 74....Gen. Benjamin E. Cook, of Northampton, Mass., 96....Lycurgus F. Laflin, manufacturer of gunpowder, 65.

March 2.—Rt. Rev. Mahlon N. Gilbert, bishop coadjutor of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Minnesota, 52....Representative Sydney P. Epes, of the Fourth Virginia District, 34.

March 3.—Rev. Charles Seccombe, a pioneer "home missionary" in Minnesota, 83.

March 4.—Most Rev. John Hennessy, Roman Catholic archbishop of Dubuque, 74.

March 6.—Representative Alfred C. Harmer, of the Fifth Pennsylvania District, the "Father of the House," 74....Herr Daimler, the German motor-car inventor, 66.

March 7.—Dr. John Friederich, a well-known Swiss-American editor, 53.

March 8.—Henry D. Farnandis, a prominent Maryland lawyer, 83.

March 9.—Hon. Edward John Phelps, formerly United States minister to Great Britain, 78....Dr. Charles E. West, of Brooklyn, N. Y., a pioneer in the education of women, 92....Prof. Oliver Payson Hubbard, of Dartmouth College, 90.

March 10.—Johan Peder E. Hartmann, the Danish composer, 95.

March 13.—Père Henri Didon, French Dominican preacher and author, 60....Gen. John J. Elwell, of Cleveland, Ohio....Charles H. Coster, a well-known New York banker, 48.

March 14.—Rev. Thomas K. Beecher, of Elmira, N. Y., 76....Mrs. Mary Foote Beecher Perkins, of Hartford, Conn., 95....Rev. George Leon Walker, of Hartford, Conn....Mrs. Lucinda H. Stone, of Kalamazoo, Mich., a writer and educator of note, 86.

March 16.—Sir Frederic William Burton, former director of the National Gallery, London, 84 ...Judge Justin Dewey, of the Massachusetts Superior Court, 63.

March 17.—Gen. Henry Harnden, of Wisconsin, 77.

March 18.—Gen. Sir William Stephen Alexander Lockhart, commander-in-chief of the British forces in India, 59....Andrew Bolter, of Chicago, a noted entomologist, 80.

March 19.—John A. Bingham, formerly United States minister to Japan, 85.



THE LATE HENRY D. TRAILL.
(Eminent English writer and editor of *Literature*.)



THE LATE DUKE OF WESTMINSTER.
(Said to have been, at the time of his death, the richest man in England.)



THE LATE GEN. SIR W. S. A. LOCKHART.
(Commander-in-chief of the British forces in India.)

SOME RECENT CARTOONS, CHIEFLY WESTERN.



THE MAKING OF A LOYAL SUBJECT.

"We shall never cease our efforts until every Boer is a loving and loyal subject of the British Empire."—(Recent editorial in the London *Times*.)

From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



"BOBS" ENTERS THE FREE STATE.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



PERSISTENCY AGAINST RESOURCES.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



THE REAL PURPOSE REVEALED.

"Her Majesty's government can only answer your honors' telegram by saying it is not prepared to assent to the independence either of the South African Republic or of the Orange Free State."—Salisbury's Reply to Boer Peace Proposals.—From the *Leader* (Des Moines).



THOSE COLONIAL CUBS.

Canada scores the first catch.

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



A POOR EXCUSE IS BETTER THAN NONE.

FRANCE: "I wish I didn't have this exposition on my hands; I would like to mix up in that fuss."

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



GENERAL BULLER'S FIRST SIGHT OF LADY SMITH.

GENERAL BULLER: "Goodness, Lady Smith, how you're changed! you're thin as a rail."

LADY SMITH: "Well, you're a pretty tough-looking customer yourself."—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



MAJUBA DAY.

Brer Fox celebrates the anniversary by catching Brer Rabbit.

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



MORE TROUBLE AHEAD FOR THE GRAND OLD REPUBLICAN PARTY.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

THE American cartoonists, especially those of the virile western newspaper press, do not stand in much awe of the British lion; and their views of the recent course of events in South Africa, some of which we have reproduced on the two foregoing pages, are not of an ambiguous character.



UNDER WHICH FLAG?

We used to have some Americans once who wouldn't have asked leave to dig an American canal, but now——

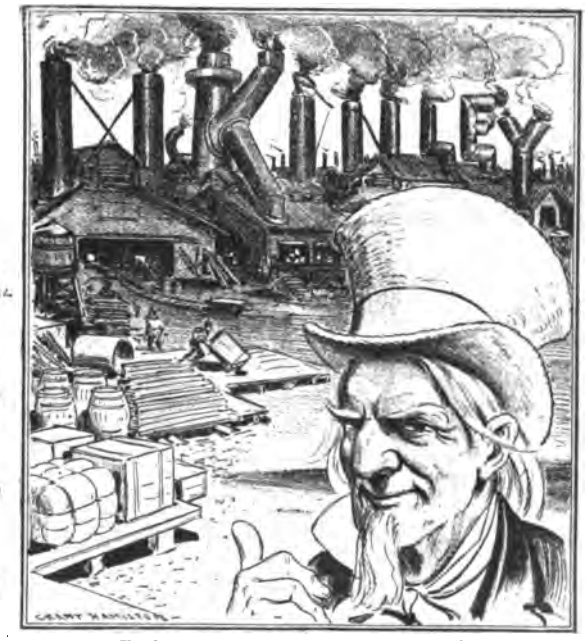
From the *Journal* (New York).



HAS THE ELEPHANT BALKED?

From the *Herald-Transcript* (Peoria, Ill.).

As the presidential campaign period draws near, the cartoonists are becoming more partisan in their allusions to American questions and events. The present indication is that the political cartoon will play a larger part in this campaign than at any previous time in the history of the country. We would like to warn the cartoonists, for whose influential position in journalism we have the highest respect, that they ought to try this year to avoid the semblance of bitter personality. The most telling cartoons are not those that strike at indi-



WHO WILL BE OUR NEXT PRESIDENT?

UNCLE SAM: "Read your answer in the smoke-stacks of the country."—From *Judge* (New York).



BRYAN'S POSITION.

He stands upon a platform
Whence all but him have fled;
The tide is slowly rising
Up to his stubborn head.

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



THE DEMOCRACY, IN NEED OF AMMUNITION FOR ITS ATTACK UPON THE ADMINISTRATION, GIVES THANKS TO THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES FOR THE PUERTO RICO TARIFF.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

viduals. One of the cartoonists whose work we have pleasure in reproducing this month is Mr. Rehse, of the *Pioneer Press*, who makes his points with unusual directness.



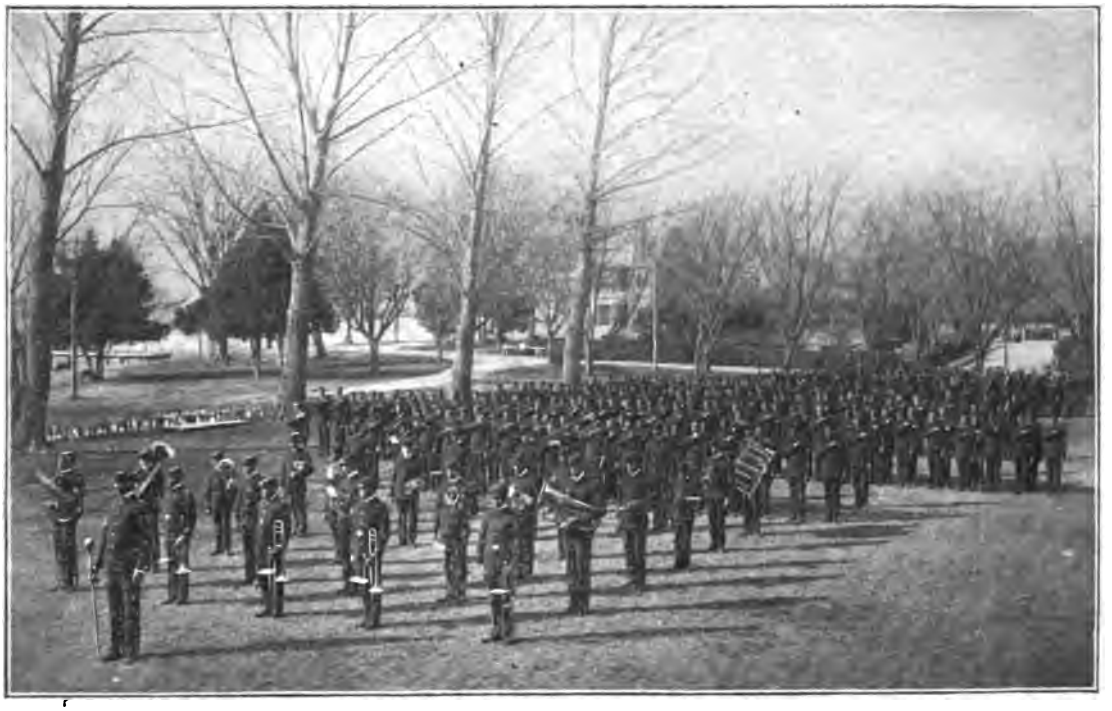
CONVENTION NOTES.

Kansas City captures the National Kicker—Strange taste of Sioux Falls.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



"GREAT SCOTT! HERE'S SOMETHING NOURISHING AT LAST!"

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE BATTALION.

"LEARNING BY DOING" AT HAMPTON.

THE ancient town of Hampton, Va., with its immediate environs, is almost a microcosm of American history and life. Its old church goes back to the beginnings of colonization, and the locality has had its part in every successive scene of the national drama. To-day it is a congeries of more or less distinct little communities. Such, for example, is the military community that occupies the famous Fort Monroe. Another is the ever-shifting community that moves across the decks of the numerous coastwise steamers and the piazzas of the famous hotels that crowd together along the Old Point Comfort wharves. Then there is the community of old veterans, four or five thousand strong, who live in the Soldiers' Home as the nation's guests. As a foil for the self-respecting and well-appointed town of Hampton is the humble and rather straggling settlement which calls itself Phoebus and is about to be incorporated under that name, although the "vets" who patronize its drinking places too much for their own good contemptuously dub it "Plugtown." Only a little distance away—a short trolley ride—is the famous shipping terminal called Newport News, with its remarkable commercial developments.

Thus I have named six distinct groups of people, each forming a little social organism by itself, yet having interrelations that illustrate enough contemporary problems and phases to supply the Old Point visitor with something to think about besides meal hours and golf. The army, the navy, maritime commerce, railroad monopoly, agriculture, the race problem, the drink question, the industrial trust, the organization of labor, the death-rate, lynching—all sorts of subjects and problems are forced upon the active mind by the human elements and interests that cluster within a mile or two of one another, at the point of the peninsula between the estuaries of the James and the York; and these topics present themselves in fashions that might well cause perplexity, doubt, and depression. There seems a great deal that is not as it ought to be in our country, and there are times when things look hopelessly confused and are drifting apparently from bad to worse.

Now, it happens that there is another community in the Hampton series that is yet to be mentioned; and the seventh one, happily, gives hopeful and encouraging answers to many of the difficult questions that the other six suggest.



THE WATER-FRONT (ON THE FAMOUS HAMPTON ROADS) OF

This seventh community is known to the world as the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute. It is, of course, in one sense a school; but that word in its common meaning does not go far enough, for the Hampton Institute is a settlement or community of people who are trying to work out not intellectual progress alone, but all phases of that most practical of questions —namely, how plain boys and girls and men and women, under the conditions now existing in our country, can make their own lives useful and successful and can help others to do the same.

Better than at almost any other place in this country, they have at Hampton grasped the conception of what we may call *integral education*. Some day the people of this country—including the wise ones and the prudent and some of the educational leaders—will more or less suddenly



CLASS IN DRESSMAKING IN THE DOMESTIC SCIENCE BUILDING.



THE BUILDINGS OF THE HAMPTON NORMAL INSTITUTE.

wake up to the realization of a very curious fact. This fact is that by all odds the finest, soundest, and most effective educational methods in use in the United States are to be found in certain schools for negroes and Indians, and in others for young criminals in reformatory prisons. If I paid $10,000 a year for it I could not possibly give my own small boy anywhere in or about New York City the advantages of as good a school as the raggedest little negro child of Phoebus, Va., freely enjoys, whose education is under the care of the Hampton Institute and is carried on under the institute's normal department in the John G. Whittier School. This remark might seem a digression, but it leads straight to the heart of the matters which I will discuss briefly in the paragraphs that follow.

Where it would be easy to multiply words I



A CORNER OF THE TAILOR SHOP.

have thought it better to multiply pictures. The life of the Hampton Institute is above all things a life of *learning by doing*, and the pictures show the methods and processes better than an equal amount of space given to descriptive text. It is now about a third of a century since Gen. S. C. Armstrong founded the Hampton Institute. Its primary purpose was to give the right kind of instruction to young colored men and women who had emerged from slavery and who needed to be taught and trained in good conduct, the rudiments of book knowledge, and the plain tasks that go with farming, the ordinary handicrafts, and the duties of home and family. It was also plainly seen from the beginning that a great many of these young people so taught must go forth to become the teachers of the children of their own race.

Some ten years later circumstances brought a handful of young Indians to Hampton, and experience soon showed that their association with the young negroes was not only feasible, but in many ways mutually beneficial. The United States Government has now for many years contributed annually toward the support of a considerable number of Indian boys and girls averaging somewhere between fifteen and twenty years of age.

The institute community at the present time may be said to contain on a rough estimate 1,000 souls. Of these about 100 belong to the white race and somewhat less than 200 to the Indian race, the rest being negroes. The white element includes teachers, superintendents, matrons, and others engaged in one way or another in car-



SEWING CLASS AT THE WHITTIER.



KINDERGARTEN: WASHING AND IRONING



A GYMNASTIC CLASS.



AN OLD-TIME BARN.



A MODEL BARN, WITH SMALL SILO.



AN OLD-TIME CABIN.



A GRADUATE'S HOME.



"THE OLD FOLKS AT HOME."



AN EDUCATED FAMILY AT DINNER.



A CLASS IN AMERICAN HISTORY.

rying on the various branches of work, together with the wives and children of some of the corps. The general population estimate as given above does not include the 500 or 600 colored children enrolled in the Whittier School. These come from the humble homes of the surrounding neighborhood, and are taught by the most approved methods and the most kindly and accomplished body of teachers, who carry them from the kindergarten through successive grades. all on a plan of object-teaching that never for one minute loses sight of the general conditions under which these children have been born and the range of social and industrial possibilities that the future has in store for them.

There are small school children in thrifty Northern communities who do not greatly need to be taught in the schools to save their pennies. But no lesson is more needed among the negroes of the South; and the children of the Whittier School are bank depositors in connection with the Penny Provident Fund system of New York. In the present month of April every one of them will spend a part of the school day out of doors working in a little garden plot. Meanwhile, as a part of the shop work I found last month that these tiny children, girls as well as boys, had been engaged in fashioning the sharpened stakes which were to be used in marking off the little patches of ground. Over in the institute's department of agricultural science I found Professor Goodrich—a man deeply versed in the chemistry of soils and all the methods of the agricultural experimentalist—giving a part of his time on a holiday to the kindly task of working out on paper the planting scheme for the Whittier children's gardens, in order that the best practical and educational results might be obtained.

A large part of the secret of the future unlocking of the South's vast possibilities of wealth and culture and happiness lies in the thorough and contented acceptance of agriculture by the colored race. Generally speaking, the young colored people of the South associate farm and plantation life with the most repellent drudgery And so they look instinctively toward the gregarious life of towns, with the accompaniment of the good clothes and the luxuries that do not go with the old tumble-down cabin of the farming life that they have known. Nevertheless farming must go on in the South, and the negro race must continue to do the bulk of the farm work. The negro's best chance for the advancement of his personal fortunes now lies in the purchase and cultivation of a piece of land. A large part of



THE HARNESS SHOP.



CLASS IN PLASTERING.



HOUSE BUILT AND FINISHED BY HAMPTON STUDENTS.

the mission of the Hampton Institute is to teach the young negro that it is just as fine a thing to be a good farmer as it is to be President of the United States.

Besides the home farm immediately adjacent to the buildings of the community—a tract comprising 150 to 200 acres—there is another and much larger institute farm four or five miles away comprising about 600 acres. The practical work of carrying on these farms serves a twofold purpose. First, it enables a large number of the students of the institute to pay their way through several years of Hampton life and schooling. Second, it exemplifies the best principles and methods in tilling the soil, raising live-stock, gardening, fruit culture, and so forth. The surplus products of the large farm are readily marketed in the neighboring town of Hampton and at the great hotels. Particular care is taken that every colored boy who learns scientific agriculture on the large scale shall also be carefully shown exactly how to carry on a small farm. Thus there is conducted as a constant object-lesson a model four-acre farm, with its small barn and appurtenant buildings, its proper succession of crops, and its diverse problems from the point of view of the soil and from that of the pocket-book. Dairying is taught with the best possible machinery and appliances; but at the same time the young student of farming who cannot hope to be able to buy patent separators and various other expensive parts of the equipment of a modern creamery is shown how to get the same results with ordinary milk-pans and a cheap thermometer by giving proper concern to the factors of time, temperature, and cleanliness.

In the domestic science building I was passing through a room which is kept as an object-lesson in the simple but effective draping and furnishing of a sleeping chamber. My guide was Major M——, a young colored man who embodies in his own character and personality the answer to many questions that one hears asked. One



STUDENT ENGINEERS AT ONE OF THE MILL ENGINES.



AT THE SAWMILL.



THE SCIENCE AND ART OF DRAINAGE.

system is exactly the opposite in every way might perhaps be the best short-cut method of telling about the work that Dr. Frissell and his associates are carrying on so steadily and so successfully.

In the ordinary boarding-school or college the whole ordering of work and play, however valuable and agreeable, is so different from the workaday course of life in the world outside that most students find the wrench rather severe when, on leaving school, they try to take their places in the social and industrial commonwealth. There is, indeed, never the slightest danger of educating anybody too thoroughly or too highly. But there is always some danger of an incomplete and imperfect kind of education that renders it difficult for so-called educated people to find useful absorption in the general life of the community.

The remedy lies in the symmetrical or integral education. The tiniest negro girls in the kindergarten branch of the Whittier School on Mondays have their small washtubs out, and on Tuesdays they play at ironing. And this play is not for amusement only, for it accomplishes two things. First, it helps to teach them how much more important in the real world are such things as washing and ironing and cooking than are reading and writing, and this keeps them from growing up with false notions about honest work. In the second place, it actually teaches them how to do the real thing; for the ironing of the Whittier School on Tuesdays, although on a miniature scale, is with hot irons, and the teach-



JUDGING HORSES.



CLASS STUDYING ROOTS.

ing is of a kind that means to perpetuate the race of laundresses. Children taught in this way are able to be of some use at home, and can stand any amount of subsequent "book-larnin'" without being made "good fer nuffin'."

The same principles apply in the instruction of the several hundred young women, negroes and Indians, who are pupils in the institute. They may and generally do acquire some accomplishments. But these are all supported upon the firm foundation of practical capacity in common things. It is enough to say that the dignity and worth of plain labor are infinitely better appreciated and understood by the young negroes at the end of their Hampton course than at the beginning.

To explain with precision all the methods by which agricultural and industrial training on the one hand and academic instruction on the other are so carried on at Hampton that they seem to blend naturally, would necessitate the writing of an article much more precise and pedagogical than this brief chapter of impressions can aim to become. To secure this result has been one of the chief solicitudes of Dr. Frissell and his educational associates at Hampton as they have been steadily improving and developing the material plant and the methods of instruction year by year.



MIXING FERTILIZERS.



EXPERIMENTING WITH PLANTS AND SOILS.

The principal mission of Hampton, so far as the negro race is concerned, has thus far been to provide teachers. The whole country has shown an interest amounting to the point of enthusiasm in the personality and work of the negro educator Mr. Booker Washington, who is himself at the head of the Tuskegee Institute (at Tuskegee, Ala.), which carries on a work almost identical in its ideals and methods with what is done at Hampton. But it must be remembered that Tuskegee is the child of Hampton. Another individual leader as capable as Mr. Washington might not easily have been found to plant the

Hampton idea in the black belt of Alabama; but the idea and the cause are greater than any one man. Booker Washington's entire training and education as a young man were received in the Hampton Institute. Although his name is always, and properly, used in connection with Tuskegee, he would be the very last man to deny the importance of the work there of his colleagues and associates. More than forty graduates of the Hampton Institute have been among those who have assisted Booker Washington at Tuskegee as members of the staff of instruction or in similar capacities.

Tuskegee has now a more than national fame, but there are several other industrial institutes, not so large, but of great usefulness, elsewhere in the South that have been established and manned by graduates of Hampton, and that are not only doing an excellent work for the education of young negroes, but are also, like Tuskegee and Hampton, valuable centers from which the best influences are helping to transform the negro population for many miles around.

The greatest work of all, however, is that which the individual teacher in the ordinary common school is carrying on. Literally thousands of young colored men and women who have lived and studied for from one to three or four years at the Hampton Institute are now serving as teachers in the free schools for colored children supported by taxation in the Southern States.

These young people go out from Hampton with the understanding that it is their business to serve as neighborhood missionaries. The ne-



SPRAYING TREES IN THE ORCHARD.



A CORNER OF THE BLACKSMITH SHOP.



THE SHOE SHOP.

gro race does not chiefly need the type of missionary who holds protracted meetings and inculcates emotional religion. It needs rather the missionary who will inculcate the gospel of hard work, thrift, temperance, and practical morality—who can show the men how to finance the purchase of a small farm, how to cultivate it, and how to get out of debt, while showing the women the value of the practical domestic arts. At Hampton they hold the doctrine that morality and civilization are almost vitally affected by the kind of houses in which people live. The graduates go out with a great zeal for encouraging their race to live in something better than one-room cabins or shanties. And they are having a most marked success in this direction.



A COOKING CLASS IN THE DOMESTIC SCIENCE BUILDING.

Young negroes at Hampton are taught to take the historical rather than the controversial view about slavery. They are made to see that slavery at least supplied the South with an industrial system. Each well organized plantation, or each village that served a group of plantations, had its own means for perpetuating the knowledge of agriculture and the practical handicrafts. Under the old system many negroes were skilled wood workers, brick and stone masons, harness makers, shoemakers, blacksmiths and wheelwrights, tinsmiths, coopers, and workers at other skilled trades and crafts. The breaking up of the old system has involved the disappearance of those means by which such skill was transmitted. And now that the old generation has practically passed away the need is clearly apparent.

It does not follow that there can at once be established all over the South a series of great institutions like Hampton for the teaching of skill in the trades; but it does follow that the teachers who go out from normal training schools like Hampton to take charge of the education of negro children—for which the taxpayers of the Southern States provide many millions of dollars every year—should understand thoroughly the nature of the Southern industrial problem. And it is important that they should be deeply convinced that what the negro children need above all things is the gospel of character and hard work.



COTTON SPINNING AND RUG WEAVING.

There cannot well, indeed, be too many of these fountain centers of training and instruction like Hampton, provided the money can be found to support them. It remains to be said, however, that Hampton is likely to continue on many accounts to hold the preëminent place as the teacher of colored teachers. In the first place, Hampton has had longer

experience than the others. It was Captain Pratt's experience at Hampton—where in the 70s he brought the first young Indians, remaining there with them for a year or more—that led him to establish the great Indian school he has conducted so successfully at Carlisle, Pa. And, in turn, it was the value of the work at Hampton and Carlisle that prepared the way for the creation of the series of new Indian industrial schools now supported by the United States Government in the States and Territories further west. Hampton, in addition to its regular work



SAMPLING MILK.



CHEESE MAKING.

Let us concede that Mr. Booker Washington has ability far beyond that of most men, whether white or black. It is not his ability, however, that makes him a noteworthy man, but the way in which he uses it for the good of his race and of the country. He is a colored educator, trained to certain convictions and methods. General Armstrong conceived of Hampton Institute as a place for the turning out of colored educators of the very type which Mr. Washington so finely represents; and Hampton to-day is just as well calculated to produce trained men and women of that fine type as the military academy at West Point is calculated to turn out good army officers, the academy at Annapolis to turn out good naval officers, or the Johns Hopkins Medical School to turn out scientific and

for its own pupils, maintains a special normal course through the long summer vacation. This makes it possible for its former students, now teachers, to come back for fresh instruction and inspiration, and also gives opportunity for negro teachers who have not had the Hampton advantages to have that useful experience. As an illustration of the use to which this summer normal school is put, it may be remarked that Booker Washington will this year send twenty of his teachers from Tuskegee to Hampton for the summer term.



COOKING CLASS STUDYING MEATS.



EMERGENCY LESSON IN PHYSIOLOGY CLASS.

accomplished members of a great profession. To visit Hampton is to find an almost ideal adaptation of spiritual, moral, intellectual, and material means to definite ends.

The little community leads its own serene, busy, and contented life without for a moment losing its contact with the life round about it. Thus the tidy little hospital on the grounds—it is the only hospital, by the way, for many miles around—is not limited to caring for the quite infrequent cases of serious illness among the students themselves; it receives accident cases from the ship yards and docks at Norfolk and Newport News, and all the doctors of the region use it and are its allies. In connection with it, as a practical part of the work of the institute, is an excellent training school for young colored nurses. It adds its weight and influence to the other departments of the institute in making for improved hygienic conditions among the colored population.

Nor is the religious life of the institution exclusive in any sense; for many people, old and young, from the surrounding neighborhood attend its interesting Sunday services. And, reciprocally, many of the young men of the institute on Sundays go out in various directions to conduct Sunday-schools.

Although the South spends a great deal of money for free common schools, the funds are, generally speaking, not large enough to support such schools for a longer time than from four to six months in the year. Thus it happens that Hampton keeps in all the closer touch with the educational work that has to be done outside, by always having a large number of students on its rolls who as teachers for a few months are earning money with which to pay for their education at Hampton during the remaining months of the year. Thus they combine district-school teaching outside with the varied *régime* of study and work in the institute; and it is by no means to be regretted that these young people get their education by just such a method.

I might have preferred to enumerate in an orderly way the trades that are taught at Hampton, but I have thought it better that my comments should be suggestive rather than systematic, and I believe that the numerous illustrations for which space is allowed will suffice to convey a great deal of information about the practical part of the Hampton work.

It should be remarked, perhaps, that books are by no means banished from Hampton, but that, on the contrary, they are used with immense effect, simply because they are used for real and not for false purposes. Every student in Hampton, it should be said, learns to draw—simply because drafting bears an important rela-



PHYSICS CLASS MAKING AND REPAIRING TELEPHONES.

tion to the best methods of doing almost anything. The study of the sciences is carried on by objective methods; and students thus taught soon discover what books are for. History and geography also are taught to a considerable extent in the same natural and concrete way. The readier tendency, doubtless, of the negro student would be toward artificial bookishness and toward literature rather than science; and we have surviving to-day some excellent white people, not all of whom live in New England, who believe that the salvation of the negro race in the South is to be worked out by way of the irregular Greek verbs and so many pages a day in text-books of mental philosophy and English literature. The philosophy and the literature are well enough, to be sure; but there is a natural, as distinguished from an artificial, way of getting at them, and in my opinion the Hampton method "arrives" very much more surely than that which we may call the conventional collegiate method.

Hampton publishes an excellent periodical—the *Southern Workman*—from its own printing office, which office, by the way, forms one of the school's departments of industrial training. The young men of the school are under military organization as a six-company battalion, with drill enough to have an excellent influence upon general discipline without interfering with other work or duties. There is a large brass band competently instructed and led, and various other outlets for the natural musical genius of the colored people.

Hampton does not intend to make a white man out of the negro, but its aim rather is to help him be himself, in the very best sense. The so-called "educated negro" is sometimes a pathetic specimen of unhappiness and discontent. But the educated young negro of the Hampton type is more, rather than less, of a negro than ever. He loves his race, and wants nothing better than the splendid chance he finds to-day in the United States to work with and for his people. He sees the true drift of things, and declines either to be despondent or defiant. While he must see that the people of his race have to undergo some hardships and some injustice, he also sees that the white people of the South are in the main the negro's friends and well-wishers; and he is taught at Hampton that since the war the white people of the South have voluntarily paid out in taxes for the support of negro schools something like $60,000,000. It is the concern of the Hampton negro and those whom he represents to see that the colored teachers are provided who shall know exactly how to secure good results from the money that continues thus to be expended.

ALBERT SHAW.



AN ENGLISH CLASS STUDYING IN LIBRARY.



THE HOMESTEAD STEEL WORKS (ONE OF THE CARNEGIE STEEL COMPANY'S PLANTS).

THE GREAT STEEL MAKERS OF PITTSBURG AND THE FRICK-CARNEGIE SUIT.

BY JULIUS MORITZEN.

I.—THE SUIT BROUGHT AGAINST MR. CARNEGIE.

WHATEVER the final outcome of the Frick-Carnegie litigation, certainly the industrial world has not, since steel became an armament of warfare, witnessed a dispute so notable as this between the multi-millionaires who built up an industry international in its operations.

If the suit should go to court the country will witness an object-lesson of considerable worth. What no legislative body would be able to accomplish might be revealed if the secrets of the great Carnegie corporation have to pass in review. Already enough has been told to whet curiosity. Should a compromise be effected, it will undoubtedly be because of what is still to be told. The process by which the Carnegie millions rose to an earning power of almost $500,000,000 would certainly be interesting to know. To avoid even an inquiry Mr. Carnegie may be willing to give Mr. Frick a few more millions than he claims are due him. From an authoritative source it has been learned, however, that Mr. Carnegie will never consent to grant the sum of $16,238,000, which Mr. Frick demands as his share. That the profits of the Carnegie Steel Company are enormous Mr. Carnegie's estimated share of $24,867,000 for the year 1900 stands witness to. The salary of President McKinley for an entire year is less by several thousands of dollars than the income which comes to Carnegie in a single day. With the exception of the Czar of Russia, the combined incomes of the leading rulers of the world dwindle into insignificance before the capital which this one person commands.

Mr. Frick has engaged as his attorneys John G. Johnson, of Philadelphia, and D. T. Watson and Willis F. McCook, of Pittsburg. Arrayed against them stand Richard C. Dale and G. Tucker Bispham, of Philadelphia, with the firm of Dalzell, Scott & Gordon and Clarence Burleigh, of Pittsburg, as the lawyers for the defense. As to Mr. Watson, it was this shrewd attorney who drew up for Andrew Carnegie the very "iron-clad" document which enters so conspicuously in the litigation. It was a document, Mr. Watson claimed at the time, absolutely invulnerable against legal attacks. Assuredly no better man could have been selected to pick flaws in the paper than the one who made it.

THE DETAILS OF THE PLEADINGS.

The papers which have been filed at the Allegheny court-house say that in 1892 there were

two limited partnerships. One was called Carnegie Brothers & Co., Limited, the other Carnegie, Phipps & Co., with a combined capital of $10,000,000. Carnegie owned more than 50 per cent. of the stocks in the old firms. The new firm, the Carnegie Steel Company, Limited, was organized in 1892 with a capital of $25,000,000. In this concern Andrew Carnegie holds 58½ per cent. of stock, while H. C. Frick has 6 per cent. Mr. Frick, besides, was the chairman of the company until December 5, 1899, and the plants grew in value until, as the legal paper says, "Carnegie valued the entire property at over $250,000,000 and avowed his ability, in ordinarily prosperous times, to sell the property on the London market for $500,000,000." The plaintiff then goes on to recite how "in May, 1899, Carnegie actually received in cash, and still keeps, $1,170,000, given him as a mere bonus for his ninety days' option to sell his 58½ per cent. in this steel company for $157,950,000. Frick's 6 per cent. on that basis would be worth $16,238,000." Then follows how Frick was asked to resign the chairmanship of the company, and this "without reason except to gratify Carnegie's malice."

When the resignation was given and "after Carnegie had thus deprived him of office, he [Carnegie] demanded that Frick should sell his interest in the firm at a figure which would amount to less than one-half of what this interest is fairly worth." Frick refused to sell, when, as the plaintiff alleges, Mr. Carnegie attempted to "reinstate and make operative an unexpected and abandoned so-called iron-clad agreement of 1887, which related solely to Carnegie Brothers of 1887, and also attempted to make binding on Frick another so-called iron-clad agreement of 1892, which Carnegie never before had executed, which Henry Phipps had always refused to execute, and which many other partners had never signed."

THE "IRON-CLAD" AGREEMENT.

When Mr. Carnegie, then, came to the conclusion that the presence of H. C. Frick was detrimental to his own interests, he put into operation the much-discussed "iron-clad" agreement, which was first made known to the public through the legal efforts of the plaintiff's attorneys. The "iron-clad" agreement was a paper drawn up for the purpose, so Mr. Frick alleges, of keeping all the partners under the control of the majority stockholder. Since Mr. Carnegie, during the Homestead strike, disavowed any direct connection with the workings of the concern, it seems rather curious that now should be revealed the fact that at all times he held the controlling lever in his hands. Whether Mr. Frick will take advantage of this point, should it come to court proceedings, or whether Mr. Carnegie will let this fact influence him in allowing a sum large enough to satisfy Mr. Frick in a compromise, is not easy to foretell.

This much-talked-of "iron-clad" agreement provides for a resignation blank which the individual about to become a member of the firm deposits with the Carnegie Steel Company. In other words, the moment partnership is established the resignation is ready also after the proper majority signatures have been affixed.

MR. FRICK'S OPTION ON THE CARNEGIE STEEL COMPANY STOCK.

The Frick option on the Carnegie Steel Company's plants had its origin during the spring of last year, and was the outcome of a plan to place the stock in the market and make of the company the greatest establishment of its kind known to modern times. As Mr. Frick tells in his suit, Andrew Carnegie was given a check for $1,170,000 as a bonus for a ninety days' option to sell his entire interests. The sum to be paid him finally was $157,000,000. Ex-Judge W. H. Moore, H. C. Frick, Henry Phipps, and Andrew W. Mellon, the Pittsburg banker, were the promoters of this enterprise, which in its stupendous dimensions of capital staggered even those accustomed to deal with large sums. The idea was to take in, if possible, the American Steel



THE EDGAR THOMSON STEEL WORKS (OWNED BY THE CARNEGIE STEEL COMPANY).

and Wire Company, the National Steel Company, and the Federal Steel Company, the stock of which three companies alone is valued at almost $250,000,000. The capital represented by the promoters after carrying out their plans would have been little short of $1,000,000,000, and it was proposed that the Carnegie Steel Company should be in control of the new organization.

But the ninety days passed and the capital with which to buy out Carnegie had not been secured. Capitalists did not see their way clear to encourage combination of enterprises. A few weeks before the option expired a hurried journey was undertaken to Skibo Castle, Scotland, where the promoters endeavored to have the time extended. It was then that Mr. Carnegie sprang the surprise which resulted in the rupture between the partners.



THE DUQUESNE STEEL WORKS (OWNED BY THE CARNEGIE STEEL COMPANY).

Instead of granting the extension asked for, he informed the promoters that since the option was given the value of his stock had increased, and that he wanted $20,000,000 more than before. It is on the increase in value thus claimed by Mr. Carnegie that Mr. Frick has based his claim to many more millions than the par value of his stock calls for. Apparently Mr. Frick believes that the same valuation of the plant made when he asked to buy should hold good now that he is forced to sell. But it is here that Mr. Carnegie steps in with his "iron-clad" agreement and says that when a partner retires he is pledged beforehand to sell to him the stock at a value shown by the books.



A SINGLE MONSTER INGOT OF STEEL PRODUCED AT THE CARNEGIE WORKS.

MR. CARNEGIE'S ANSWER.

In the answer filed by the Carnegie Steel Company on March 12 to the suit brought by Mr. Frick the company says that the plan for forming the limited partnership, which Frick now declares to be a general one, was devised by Frick himself; that he acquired much of his interest through the working of the so-called "iron-clad agreement," which he enforced in many instances against unsatisfactory partners; that he paid for his interest, for which he now wants $15,000,000, only $129,000 in bonds of the H. C. Frick Coke Company and $192.83 in cash; and that with the credit from his stock earnings his whole interest cost him only $300,000. It is denied that on December 31, 1899, the association had assets or property which the association in its legal capacity could transfer which were worth $250,000,000.

It is admitted that Mr. Frick proved a valuable member to the company, but

that the plaintiff, "notwithstanding his ability, is a man of imperious temper, impatient of opposition, and disposed to make a personal matter of every difference of opinion, even on questions of mere business policy. At times, moreover, he gives way to violent outbursts of passion, which he is either unwilling or unable to control. He demands absolute power and without it is not satisfied." The answer maintains that the refusal to submit their differences to arbitration was because the company proposes at all times to maintain the integrity of the "iron-clad" contract.

THE COKE SUIT.

The suit of the minority stockholders of the H. C. Frick Coke Company against the company to annul a supposed contract between the concern and the Carnegie Steel Company depends in a measure on the outcome of the former suit. Should Mr. Frick sever his connections with the Carnegies, naturally he will not care to sell them coke at a price far below the market figures. As long as he was a partner in the steel company he got the benefit of the lower price. If the rupture becomes complete he and the other stockholders become the losers, it is affirmed. Carnegie owns 51,213 shares of the stock of the H. C. Frick Coke Company on his own account, while the Carnegie Steel Company owns 59,104 shares. As there are 200,000 shares in all, the Carnegie interests predominate. There is no mincing of words in the phraseology of the papers entered. The plaintiffs are John Walker; John Walker, guardian for Andrew Carnegie Wilson; S. L. Schoonmaker, and John Pontefract. It is charged that irregular proceedings were responsible for a contract which is no contract at all, according to the plaintiffs, and that the board of directors of the coke company, "pretending that more than a year previously the coke company had contracted to sell the steel company all the coke that the steel company might require for a period of five years," had fixed the price to be $1.35 per ton, and the amount to be furnished annually about 2,500,000 tons of coke. This would be about one-third of the entire production of the H. C. Frick Coke Company.

The minority stockholders now claim that should the supposed contract be carried out the company will lose about $4,000,000 on the delivery of the coke to the steel company during 1900.

II.—HOW ANDREW CARNEGIE BECAME A MULTI-MILLIONAIRE.

In the make-up of Andrew Carnegie the phase most responsive to analysis must be looked for elsewhere than in the many millions that are his. The man who challenged the world's criticism by exclaiming that he who dies rich dies disgraced, and applying the maxim to himself affirmed "That is the gospel I preach, that is the gospel I practice, and that is the gospel I intend to practice during what remains of my life," has a right to stand prominently before the country as one of the most individual characters that ever embraced American citizenship. Whether his business relations are severed in justice to his partner or otherwise, whether the steel magnate takes a right or wrong exception to the expansion doctrines in the Philippines, whether he considers "triumphant democracy" the one saving clause to the nation, Andrew Car-



THE GREAT FURNACES OF THE DUQUESNE PLANT.

negie has never for an instant been suspected of going contrary to a conviction outspoken as a Scotchman's plaid.

MR. CARNEGIE'S PARENTAGE.

Andrew Carnegie was born in Dunfermline, Scotland, on November 25, 1835. His parents were poor, but not extremely so. His father, William Carnegie, was one of that class of weavers which the introduction of immense machinery has now largely relegated to the rear. In 1845 William Carnegie, with his wife and two sons, Andrew and Thomas, came to America, where two years later the family settled in Pittsburg. The subject of this sketch was now twelve years of age, old enough to work as things were looked upon then, and Andrew secured employment as a bobbin boy in a linen factory. He has said himself that none of his many millions since gave him the pleasure of possession as that $1.20, his wages for the first week's work. Think of this boy grown gray who every few seconds has this sum as income!



A HOIST HOUSE AND FURNACE STACK AT THE DUQUESNE WORKS.

HE BECOMES A TELEGRAPHER.

The factory was the same in which his father was employed, but after working for a while longer attending a stationary engine in the place young Carnegie gave it up. He was fourteen years of age when he secured a position as messenger with the then Atlantic and Ohio Telegraph Company of Pittsburg. He was quick to learn the business of telegraphy when that chance presented itself. In reality this was the beginning of his eventful career. Andrew Carnegie was the third operator in the United States to read the Morse signals by sound. He went with the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, gained the good-will of Thomas A. Scott, superintendent of the Pittsburg division, and after thirteen years' service with the company he left it as superintendent of the division. Thomas A. Scott, who had become Assistant Secretary of War, asked Andrew Carnegie to take charge of the military railroads and telegraphs of the Government. He was then about twenty-four years of age, of a quick, wiry temperament, but war did not appeal to him, and he was glad to embrace the opportunity of returning to Pittsburg and his former duties with the railroad company. Little did he dream that, almost thirty-five years later, when another war clouded the horizon, decisive victories were to be won by battleships which he clad in their armor strength.

HIS FIRST INVESTMENT.

It was due to Thomas A. Scott that Andrew Carnegie made his first investment—ten shares of stock in the Adams Express Company, valued at $500. This he did with considerable trepidation. He had labored hard for the money he had saved up while he had worked as a telegrapher. It is part of railroad history how he later fell in with the inventor of the sleeping car, saw the enormous advantages which that manner of travel held out to passengers and promoters, and how he interested others in the invention of Mr. Woodruff. This occurred shortly after his return from Washington, when the problems of transportation were still upmost in his mind. He was now on the road to success and wealth as he then pictured earthly possessions. The Pennsylvania oil fields yielded large returns when Carnegie with others turned their energies in the direction of the newly discovered territory. In one year land purchased for $40,000 increased in value so that it paid a dividend of $1,000,000.

A FORTUNE OF PROBABLY $250,000,000.

When Mr. Carnegie was thirty years of age he began his career as an iron and steel manufacturer. He built bridges, made steel rails, fur-

nished the Government with its armor plate, in due succession. Naturally things did not spring forward as if by magic or of their own accord. Hard work, shrewd guessing, driving bargains which always attempted to be fair—these combined produced the result attained. In the distant Northwest he saw the great deposits of ore awaiting capital to mine it. He dug deep into the mountain sides, brought forth the fundamental ingredient of shining steel, and through the masterful converting processes which he now obtained Andrew Carnegie laid the real foundation for his colossal fortune of $250,000,000 or more. He went into the railroad business as well; connected distant mines with harbor facilities for shipment; he built steamers to carry the rude product to his mills in the heart of the Keystone State.



A SHAFT FOR HOISTING COAL IN THE FRICK COKE WORKS.

HIS PRINCIPLES OF PHILANTHROPY.

It would require volumes to describe in detail just exactly how and where the iron master bestowed and still bestows his munificence. The world knows about the many libraries at Braddock, Homestead, Johnstown, Edinburgh, Dunfermline, besides the great Carnegie Library and Music Hall at Pittsburg, which have so stimulated the intellectual pulse of a city tempted to devote itself too absolutely to material pursuits. That he is not charitable in the strict acceptance of the term he rather glories in. At any rate, he has stated emphatically that it is almost useless to give promiscuously and that it is little short of a crime. He wants to help those who help themselves, he says. Let others lift up the "submerged tenth;" to keep them above water is the task which requires attention. He is not a charity giver, he affirms, but looks for the elevation of the race through the elevation of the mind. For this purpose he will give of his millions, but he exacts of the community what he would exact of the individual—that once in possession of its library it must carry the work forward.

MR. FRICK WAS THE DARING PARTNER.

Much as the world may think to the contrary, Andrew Carnegie was never a man to take great chances. In fact, it is said that nearly all the important improvements which came to the plants were forced upon him by Frick, who had a more daring temperament. When the natural-gas fields of Pennsylvania astonished the far-seeing manufacturers of the period, Mr. Carnegie did not look enthusiastically ahead in the belief that here were millions to be saved in fuel. It was due to Mr. Frick that the steel company leased thousands of acres of gas territory which saved the firm large sums in fuel bills. Nevertheless Mr. Carnegie had implicit faith in the judgment of his partner. Perhaps had this faith been less firm, had Mr. Carnegie remained at home during that memorable Homestead strike, who knows but that the trouble could have been averted and the country saved a spectacle it had seldom seen before? There will always remain a veil of mystery over this period when Carnegie went to Scotland and denied himself to all in search of information regarding the Homestead strike. H. C. Frick was the man in charge. It was for him to deal as he considered fit, presumably. Still the people of Homestead listened in surprise to the remarks of Mr. Carnegie—when in that city recently with his wife—that he and Mrs. Carnegie regretted always the lamentable conflict between labor and law. In a very few sentences he conveyed the impression that even the best disciplinarian can at times make mistakes, and that when such a mistake is realized it is courageous to correct it even after a lapse of time.

MR. CARNEGIE AS A JOURNALIST.

In his amusements Mr. Carnegie is almost an ascetic, but with this reservation, however, that what he does in that direction he does with a will. He loves whist and is fond of golf. He adores nature, evidence of which adoration is

found in his Scottish castle, his overland drives in his four-in-hand, the enthusiasm with which he has described his experiences while *en route*. For Mr. Carnegie wields a fluent pen. Had he devoted himself to journalistic pursuits quite certainly he would not now have millions to dispense, but what he would have had to say editorially would beyond a question have been listened to. Besides his "Triumphant Democracy" he has written "Round the World," "Our Coaching Trip," and numerous articles dealing with the affairs of the day. In certain directions Mr. Carnegie has encouraged criticism. He is an anti-imperialist and desires the country to know it. It is somewhat remarkable to see this man stand up against the policy of the administration, when at the same time he looks for government orders for armor plate. His personal feelings, he is quoted as saying, have nothing to do with what concerns his firm. From his point of view he would consider it a crime to remain silent when he had something to say. And it is



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MR. ANDREW CARNEGIE.

right here, in the outspoken manner in which Mr. Carnegie tells his mind, that he portrays his qualities, those of one who has no fear. Whether he takes the right or wrong view of the political situation is his own concern and that of the politicians, perhaps. He cares nothing for local politics—maybe his love of travel is to blame for this—but in the larger questions of territorial possession and the like he takes considerable interest.



THE CARNEGIE BUILDING AT PITTSBURG.
(The general offices of the Carnegie Steel Company.)

AT SKIBO CASTLE.

The life which Andrew Carnegie leads on his estate in Scotland is typical of the vicinity which has Skibo Castle as its center. Once a famous fortress, Skibo Castle was built by Gilbert Murray, bishop of Moray, in 1188. If the warfare which Mr. Frick is about to wage against his senior partner's fortune is no more successful than the ten sieges which Skibo Castle has withstood during its more than seven centuries of existence, the "Scotch laird" who is its present owner can draw a parallel between the situation in those bygone days and now. At Skibo Castle Mr. Carnegie carries out the custom in vogue among the moors and highlands. But he shows his patriotism and love of country by flying here the Union Jack and the Stars and Stripes side by side. He earned for himself the title of the "Star-spangled Scotchman" and caused the introduction of the American flag in the land of his birth.

In America Mr. and Mrs. Carnegie live in New York, 5 West Fifty-first Street. Mr. Carnegie married only a few years ago. His mother had then died, and he felt the strong current of family ties sweep him along. Mrs. Carnegie was Mrs. Louise Whitworth, of New York, and they have one child, Margaret, three years of age. It is in honor of Margaret that her wealthy father is now erecting what promises to be the most magnificent residence in all the country.

III.—MR. H. C. FRICK.

Mr. H. C. Frick made his first money in coke. The son of a Westmoreland County farmer, of Swiss ancestry, he was born at West Overton, Pa., on December 19, 1849. It was a time when coke-making was as yet in its infancy. Young Frick, who had been educated in the country school, had secured a position in a dry goods store in Mount Pleasant, Pa. Following this occupation, he became bookkeeper for his grandfather at Broadford, Fayette County, Pa. It was while here that he was attracted by the coal and coke industry, and he secured coöperation with men of that locality. From this venture has sprung the great industry which is the pride of Pennsylvania and which has made Connellsville famous.

There is considerable matter-of-fact history in the evolution of the fortune which Mr. Frick since then has made. While the country lay spellbound under the panic of 1873, he took advantage of the business depression to buy out his partners and get the entire business under his own control. In 1882 Andrew Carnegie became a member of the firm. It was now the H. C. Frick Company, and notwithstanding recent rumors to the contrary, the most amiable relations existed between the partners up to within a short time ago. Mr. Carnegie had unbounded confidence in the executive ability of Mr. Frick, and with reason. No other one person had ever more enterprises to guard at the same time. When, in 1889, he became a stockholder in the Carnegie company, Mr. Frick at once showed his indomitable will power, while subservient in a measure to the final decision of another. Yet with all that there is reason to believe that when the Homestead strike reached its acute stage the older member of the firm left everything in the hands of Frick. Mr. Carnegie went to Scotland and could not be reached. The plan of campaign was mapped out, perhaps, by Mr. Frick alone. If such was not the case, the opportune moment has arrived for settling the disputed question, for the court will not refuse to listen to whatever evidence may make the lawsuit clear.



THE CARNEGIE PUBLIC LIBRARY, MUSIC HALL, ART GALLERY, AND MUSEUM AT PITTSBURG.
(This building was fully described in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for October, 1895.)



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MR. HENRY CLAY FRICK.

HIS MANAGEMENT IN THE HOMESTEAD STRIKE.

It was Mr. Frick who bore the brunt of that fearful battle between capital and labor when the hand of Anarchist Berkman fired the bullet which went close enough to the mark. Fortunately for the workingmen, they could give clear accounts to show that in no wise were they connected with the dastardly plot. To the writer of the present article that twenty-third day of July, 1892, stands as an indubitable evidence of the grit and insistence which have characterized H. C. Frick in all his later transactions. It must be remembered that public sympathy went out largely to the strikers for some time. The cause of labor stood with capital arrayed against it. Backed by the militia of Pennsylvania, the Carnegie Steel Company was to many the symbolism of autocratic power clad in its coat of mail. The report of the adjutant-general for that year reads like some chapter torn from the book of war. In fact, a state of terror reigned throughout that part of the country which, as the adjutant-general stated in his report, had necessitated the calling out for active service of the entire guard for the first time since its reorganization in 1878.

When Berkman fired the shots Mr. Frick was sitting at his desk facing the door. He saw the man enter, noticed the flash from the revolver, and then felt that he had been hit. His display of self-possession was marvelous. Intense excitement prevailed throughout the building in which the Carnegie Steel Company had its offices. The coolest individual was Frick himself, who gave directions how to place him on the couch while physicians were summoned. On the streets of Pittsburg the news of the attempted assassination spread like wildfire. When the wounded man was brought to his home he displayed the same control of himself, for, being carried past the apartment in which Mrs. Frick lay ill at the time, he cheerily called out as to the baby's state of health. Berkman was sent to the penitentiary, but as an evidence that H. C. Frick can forgive a wrong, his name is among the first signatures to an application for Berkman's pardon.

In his home life Mr. Frick is seen at his best. In contrast to Mr. Carnegie, he is not a traveler to any extent. His children are Mr. Frick's delight. He loves their society, as they love his, and indulging in daily walks, weather permitting, it is interesting to see this keen man of business in his *rôle* of guardian of his home.

A PATRON OF ART.

As a lover of the fine arts Mr. Frick has done much toward fostering the artistic spirit in that vicinity. His private collection of paintings is perhaps one of the finest in this country, and when he bought Dagnan Bouveret's magnificent canvas "Christ at Emmaus," he made the public share its beauty as well by presenting the painting to the Carnegie galleries.

The Pittsburg Orchestra, which has carried the fame of that city as a music center far from home, finds in Mr. Frick a close ally. The late chairman of the Carnegie Steel Company, while not exercising his liberality in the same way as Mr. Carnegie, is exceedingly charitable. He has been known to render assistance to the families of some of the strikers who resisted him to the last. If, as has been reported, Andrew Carnegie, at the opening of the Homestead Library in November, 1898, referred to the strike as an occurrence which he regretted and which might have been averted, not much wonder that Mr. Frick took the speech to heart as something applicable to him, inasmuch as on him rested the burden of generalship during the struggle.

THE COKE COMMUNITY IS ON MR. FRICK'S SIDE.

In Pittsburg, naturally, Mr. Carnegie's name is so closely identified with the growth and



TYPICAL HOUSES OF WORKMEN IN THE STEEL MILLS.

splendor of the iron and steel business that here the people as a whole look upon him as the more prominent of the two principals. But go to Connellsville and that great territory adjacent to the immense coal fields; move among the miners and the thousands of workers employed at the coke ovens; see the neat homes erected for the comfort of the men and their families, and the name of Henry Clay Frick springs to the lip of its own accord. In fact, in the great legal issue not only individuals, but communities, appear to have taken sides. The coke workers are entirely in sympathy with their employer in his fight for millions which he claims are his by right. That the coke industry which Frick made great should ally itself with him is natural. With Carnegie the owner of the majority of the stock, it may work an industrial revolution in that region should Mr. Frick lose in the fray.

IV.—THE CARNEGIE STEEL COMPANY AND ITS PRESIDENT.

When it comes to discussing the far-spreading interests of the Carnegie Steel Company, Limited, the name of Charles M. Schwab, the president of the company, suggests itself even before that of Henry Phipps, who owns 11 per cent. of the stock and is the largest holder next to Mr. Carnegie. Mr. Phipps' connection with the concern has been of a reserved kind. Charles M. Schwab was born thirty-seven years ago in the small town of Loretto, Pa., where he received the ordinary school education. At the age of fifteen years he became the driver of a mail wagon between Loretto and a neighboring town. He came to Braddock, where he worked for $2.50 a week and his board as a grocery clerk, and it was at Braddock that he laid the foundation for his future success. The Edgar Thomson Steel Works were then in the building-up process; the shining steel rails were already finding markets eager for the product. Mr. Schwab obtained a place at the plant as a stake driver in the engineer corps, and he advanced so that soon he was making $30 a month.

MR. SCHWAB'S METHODS AS WORKING PRESIDENT.

Mr. Schwab became chief engineer and built the Homestead steel plant where the armor plates are made. After managing this plant for some years he was placed in charge of the Edgar Thomson Steel Works in a similar capacity. Mr. Carnegie took kindly to this young man, who had the push and confidence of which success is made. In 1896 he was made president of the Carnegie Steel Company, with a salary of $50,000 a year, besides 3 per cent. interest in the company. In his method of dealing with his many superintendents Mr. Schwab is confidential to the degree of sociability, even when



THE PHIPPS CONSERVATORY, IN SCHENLEY PARK, PITTSBURG.



CHARLES M. SCHWAB.
(President of the Carnegie Steel Company, Limited.)

business matters are to be discussed, and to every one of his thousands of employees he has always held out inducements that worked beneficially to the great concern. He encouraged the output of the furnaces by offering premiums; he met the men at their own amusements; none of the workers at the Homestead or Edgar Thomson Steel Works looked more like the every-day mechanic than he when busy about the place while he held the position of superintendent. Mr. Schwab has never forgotten those days gone by when the men of Braddock were his comrades in toil and struggle. Nor have the people of that town forgotten that once he was one of them. His rise in the industrial world has been unprecedented, even more rapid than was that of his benefactor or that of Mr. Frick.

MR. PHIPPS AND THE OTHER STOCKHOLDERS.

As has already been mentioned in passing, Henry Phipps is the next largest stockholder. He was born in Allegheny, Pa., where his father was a shoemaker, and his first work was as transfer clerk. While quite young he formed the acquaintance of Andrew Carnegie, but his first enture in the iron business was with Thomas N. Miller. For thirty-seven years he and Mr. Carnegie were the closest of friends until the recent division and "family" quarrel, which have placed Mr. Phipps in opposition to Mr. Carnegie. Mr. Phipps has endeared himself to Pittsburg in many ways. He gave to that city one of the finest, if not the finest, conservatory in this country. To pass through the crystal halls at Schenley Park on some Easter day is like realizing a dream of floriculture not until then seemed possible. The most recent inventions looking toward the propagation of plants and flowers are here a constant reminder of what Mr. Phipps has done.

The following are the stockholders in the Carnegie Steel Company and their respective holdings: Andrew Carnegie, 58 1-2 per cent.; Henry Phipps, 11; H. C. Frick, 6; George Lauder, 4; C. M. Schwab, 3; H. M. Curry, 2; W. H. Singer, 2; L. C. Phipps, 2; R. A. Peacock, 2; F. T. F. Lovejoy, 2-3; George H. Wightman, 2-3; D. M. Clemson, 2-3; Thomas Morrison, 2-3; James Gailey, 11-18; A. M. Moreland, 11-18; Charles L. Taylor, 1-2; A. R. Whitney, 1-2; W. W. Blackburn, 1-3; John C. Fleming, 1-3; J. Ogden Hoffman, 1-3; Milard Hunsiker, 1-3; George E. McCague, 1-3; James Scott, 1-3; H. P. Bope, 1-9; W. E. Corey, 1-3; Joseph T. Schwab, 1-3; L. T. Brown, 2-9; D. G. Kerr, 1-9; H. J. Lindsey, 1-9; E. F. Wood, 1-9; H. E. Tener, Jr., 1-9; George Megrew, 1-9; G. D. Packer, 1-9; W. B. Dickson, 1-9; A. C. Case, 1-9; John McLeod, 1-9; Charles W. Baker, 1-9; F. T. F. Lovejoy, trustee, 1-2.

MR. LOVEJOY SIDES AGAINST MR. CARNEGIE.

Speaking of Mr. Lovejoy, the former secretary of the Carnegie corporation, the answer which he made to the H. C. Frick suit on his own account shows plainly that he has joined is-



IN THE HOMESTEAD ARMOR PLATE WORKS.



ARMOR PLATE READY FOR SHIPMENT.

sues with the plaintiff. He has placed himself on record as saying that the "iron-clad" agreement, "under the provision whereof the expulsion of the plaintiff from membership in the Carnegie Steel Company, Limited, was sought to be accomplished, was and is, for various reasons not necessary now to set forth, null and void and of no effect," and that even if the so-called "iron-clad" agreement were in operation, no cause existed for the expulsion of the plaintiff. Mr. Lovejoy said this was his reason for refusing to sign the paper which asked Mr. Frick to withdraw, and following which refusal he tendered his resignation.

THE ARMOR PLATE QUESTION.

Figures will fail to convey any correct estimate of what in reality is meant by the Carnegie Steel Company, Limited. Each of the three great plants—the Homestead Steel Works, the Edgar Thomson Steel Works, and the Duquesne Steel Works—has depending upon it other works, classified with names of their own. The Keystone Bridge Company is one of the largest in the country. The armor plate is valued so highly by European governments that they have battleships equipped with the Homestead article. Wherever steel is wanted the Carnegie company steps in as a bidder.

As for the armor plate works and our own Government, it is known to the country at large that Congress is now attempting to solve the problem of what should be paid for armor plate and what should not be paid. The Carnegie Steel Company with the Bethlehem Iron Company insist that at $300 a ton for armor plate the business is ruinous. The much higher price at which the present orders are being filled do not seem warranted from the standpoint of the Congressional body, for which reasons new contracts that are waiting to be made are not executed. Whether the country will go into its own armor-plate manufacturing remains problematic and will be for the Government and the steel makers to fight out. If the figure as to output which the Carnegie company advances relative to the business in general are correct, armor plate does not seem the feature responsible for the $500,000,000 which the property is estimated to be worth.

MAGNITUDE OF ORE MINES.

It is estimated at a rough guess that the Carnegie interests represent about $500,000,000. When it is realized that the company owns one-fourth of all the ore territory in the northwest and Lake Superior region these figures are certainly not too high, if high enough. From authoritative sources comes the information that besides the territory which is being mined, there are still 28,000 acres of undeveloped land owned by the Carnegies. The output at the present time is enormous. The very latest appliances are now in use. With the mining possessions are linked the lake transportation facilities, supplied by a fleet of steamers which ply between the distant ports with the regularity of passenger boats. The ore mines of the Carnegie company have proven a valuable factor in outdistancing competition, it is claimed by those in position to know the facts, and for this very reason, it is added, the Carnegies refused to enter the "consolidation" which embraces almost every other concern in their line.

THE COKE INDUSTRY.

While coke is being manufactured in nineteen States and Territories of the United States, yet the banner region beyond dispute is that which makes Connellsville a sea of fire and flame at night. It is claimed for the Connellsville region that here is produced more than 75 per cent. of the entire output of coke in the United States, and that the H. C. Frick Coke Company owns almost all of the largest plants. The Standard plant has 905 ovens and is supplied with coal from 89 mines, of which there are three kinds—drifts, slopes, and shafts. How H. C. Frick saw his opportunity here has already been alluded to. He ventured much, but won out; and now he proposes to hold his own against all comers and refuses any longer to supply the Carnegie Steel Company with coke at $1.35 a ton which, the market says, is worth almost thrice that amount.

PUBLICITY: A REMEDY FOR THE EVILS OF TRUSTS.

BY PROF. JEREMIAH W. JENKS, OF CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

PERHAPS the most striking fact in connection with the Chicago Conference on Trusts, held in September on the invitation of the Civic Federation of Chicago, was the substantial agreement of the members upon two or three leading points. The members represented all political parties, came from all sections of the country, were representative of various lines of business and the different professions, and were persons whose views when they met appeared to be widely divergent. Three or four days of good-tempered discussion, however, seemed to harmonize many of these conflicting views, to infuse into the members something of a spirit of toleration and conservatism, and finally to secure substantially a unanimous opinion to the effect, first, that the trust question is an exceedingly complicated one that needs much careful study, and that rash action before such study can be made is to be deprecated; second, that further information on the subject is needed most of all, and that in consequence such publicity regarding affairs of great corporations as is possible should be secured; and, third, that in all probability publicity itself would remedy at any rate some of the evils connected with the trusts.

While the word "publicity" was used at the conference perhaps more frequently than any other in connection with remedies, it was not clearly defined. The thought in the minds of most seemed to be that quite exact knowledge regarding the methods of organization and of work of the trusts, together with their effects on prices, their dealings with the workingmen, and their profits should be given to the public, so that more intelligent action could be taken. While doubtless some of the speakers would readily have assented to the opinion that publicity might be carried so far that it would be unjust to some of the corporations that are doing a legitimate business, and in consequence injurious to the community, that point was not at all emphasized. Practically all agreed that publicity was needed. The nature and degree of publicity were not clearly defined.

THE WORK OF THE INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION.

Of much greater significance is the opinion upon the same subject expressed by the United States Industrial Commission in its report to Congress lately made public. The commission was created as a non-partisan body to look impartially into industrial conditions, and to make such recommendations as seemed to it wise both to Congress and to the separate State legislatures. It has carried on investigations into the conditions of agriculture, of education, of labor in many of its phases, of transportation, of manufacturing, etc. Inasmuch, however, as the subject of industrial combination seemed to be the one of chief industrial and political significance, and the one upon which Congress and the State legislatures might well be most anxious to secure the results of careful study, the commission has given much time to the investigation of that subject. The heads of several of the largest and most important combinations have been summoned before it and examined at length; their chief competitors have also appeared and expressed their opinions fully and freely; corporation lawyers have explained the nature of the regulations in several of the States regarding large corporations and the manner in which they were enforced. Besides hearing these witnesses, the commission made some statistical investigations into their effects upon prices and a careful study of all the statutes on the subject which have been passed in all of the States, together with the results of these laws as they appeared from a comparison of all the decisions of courts of last resort. It has been engaged in his investigation for over a year and the report sums up the results.

THE COMMISSION'S CONCLUSIONS.

They believe that "industrial combinations have become fixtures in our business life;" that "their power for evil should be destroyed and their means for good preserved." They recommended that the hands of the Interstate Commerce Commission be strengthened in order to prevent the evils arising from freight discriminations; but their chief remedy for the suppression of the evils was publicity, and in this case the publicity was defined. It is best to give their suggestions, with the reasons for them, in their own words:

"To prevent the organizers of corporations or industrial combinations from deceiving investors and the public, either through suppression of

material facts or by making misleading statements, your commission recommend:

"(*a*) That the promoters and organizers of corporations or industrial combinations which look to the public to purchase or deal in their stocks and securities should be required to furnish full details regarding the organization, the property or services for which stocks or securities are to be issued, amount and kind of same, and all other material information necessary for safe and intelligent investment;

"(*b*) That any prospectus or announcement of any kind soliciting subscriptions which fails to make full disclosures as aforesaid, or which is false, should be deemed fraudulent, and the promoters, with their associates, held legally responsible;

"(*c*) That the nature of the business of the corporation or industrial combination, all powers granted to directors and officers thereof, and all limitations upon them or upon the rights or powers of the members should be required to be expressed in the certificate of incorporation, which instrument should be open to inspection by any investor.

"The affairs of a corporation or industrial combination should be carried on, without detriment to the public, in the interest of its members and under their lawful control. To this end the directors or trustees should be required:

"(*a*) To report to the members thereof its financial condition in reasonable detail, verified by a competent auditor, at least once each year;

"(*b*) To inform members regarding the method and conduct of business by granting them, under proper restrictions, access to records of directors' meetings, or otherwise;

"(*c*) To provide for the use of members, before the annual meetings, lists of members, with their addresses and their several holdings; and

"(*d*) To provide, in whatever other ways may be named in the certificate of incorporation, means whereby the members may prevent the misuse of their property by directors or trustees.

"The larger corporations—the so-called trusts—should be required to publish annually a properly audited report, showing in reasonable detail their assets and liabilities, with profit or loss; such report and audit under oath to be subject to government inspection. The purpose of such publicity is to encourage competition when profits become excessive, thus protecting consumers against too high prices and to guard the interests of employees by a knowledge of the financial condition of the business in which they are employed."

THE REAL VALUE OF "PUBLICITY."

It will be noted that the intention is, first, to protect stockholders and investors by enabling them to learn, if they will, the basis on which the corporation is organized and the stock issued and the results of the carrying on of the business, as well as to enable them to check their directors in any way that seems to them necessary. It is thought also that the fact that profits of the large corporations, those which might become monopolistic in power, will be known to the public, would, by the encouragement of competition, prevent too high prices, and would besides enable the laborers to know better how to negotiate to advantage with their employers.

It is a noteworthy comment upon the methods of our law makers and upon the temper and intelligence of the American people that while during the last year the word "publicity" has been so constantly on the lips of those who are advocating a change in the laws controlling corporations, it is still possible for the compiler of the trust statutes to say: "It is a striking fact that not one of these statutes aims especially at securing publicity regarding the business of the large industrial combinations through detailed reports in order that the publicity itself may prove a remedial measure." That could be said, too, although the years 1897 and 1899 have been two of the most fruitful in the production of these statutes.

NEW YORK LEGISLATION.

The most complete attempt which has been made to define what is meant by publicity in laws regulating corporations is to be found in the proposed New York Business Companies' Act: 1900. In his annual message to the Legislature Governor Roosevelt enumerated as the most prominent evils connected with corporations the following: "Misrepresentation or concealment regarding material facts connected with the organization of an enterprise; the evils connected with unscrupulous promotion; over-capitalization; unfair competition, resulting in the crushing out of competitors who themselves do not act improperly; raising of prices above fair competitive rates; the wielding of increased power over the wage-earners." Speaking of the evils of monopoly, he said that under our present laws, if monopoly could be proved, the corporations would be restrained. Other evils, especially those enumerated, would be largely done away with by a considerable degree of publicity regarding the affairs of corporations. He was sure that it was not safe or wise to hamper corporations attempting to do an honorable business until after more was known regarding the nature of the evils con-

nected with them. Publicity was needed for enlightenment as well as for a remedy. He also emphasized sharply the difference between his opinions and those which seemed to be reflected in many of the anti-trust statutes of the different States which aim directly at preventing or crushing industrial combinations without any effort to distinguish clearly between the evil and the good ones, or the evil and possibly the good results that may come from them. He believes that it is wise to encourage the development of business along normal lines and to protect capital in corporate form, as well as in the hands of private individuals, so long as it is employed honorably. The bill was drawn to put into definite form the suggestions of his message.

THE PROTECTION OF INVESTORS.

The Business Companies' Act meets the evils connected with promotion by providing that every prospectus of whatever kind which is issued with a view of obtaining subscriptions for shares or for bonds in a company organized under the act shall give all details concerning the work of the promoters or directors or the contracts into which they have entered in the organization of the company, the consideration that has been paid for property purchased or acquired, the commissions or awards for subscribing for stock or for procuring subscriptions, the amount of money to be used for preliminary expenses, that to be reserved for working capital, that which is to be paid in whatever form to the promoter himself or to those associated with him, etc. It is believed that in this way the investor will be fully warned regarding the nature of the company which he is joining, so that with a reasonable degree of diligence on his part he will be protected against paying for stock more than its fair value. The promoter is not permitted to sell anyproperty of his own directly or indirectly to the company without disclosing all facts in connection with it. The penalties for the suppression of any material fact or misrepresentation are of such a nature that attempts in that direction would almost certainly lead to the failure of the effort to organize the company or to the great financial loss of the promoter.

Investors are also protected by the provision that the certificate of incorporation must contain a description of the nature of the business to be entered upon, of the limitations upon the rights of shareholders, a statement of the rights and duties of the directors, and all other material information, so that every investor will be fully warned of all obligations. In the certificate of incorporation must be mentioned every contract which affects his rights or the value of the shares, and these contracts must be on file in the registered office for his examination or he can secure a copy of them if he wishes.

Still further is the investor given notice of his rights and liabilities by the certificate of stock, which must contain on its face a notice of any liability or limitation upon the stockholder's rights. If the stock has been issued for property or services the certificate must state that fact, and the proportion of the total stock of the company so issued. The investor finds himself thus protected in the law, inasmuch as all stock will be held as issued for cash unless the contract has been filed which states in full the consideration received. But, on the other hand, the principle of *caveat emptor* applies, inasmuch as if the contract has been filed, so that the investor may readily learn for himself what the conditions of the issue are, the judgment of the directors as to the value of the property so taken or the services for which stock has been issued is conclusive, and no action can thereafter question the validity of the issue.

In the registered office must be kept lists of shareholders with their holdings at the disposition of every *bona-fide* shareholder. In this way it is relatively easy for a minority that feels itself misused to gather its full voting strength at any directors' meeting. At these meetings also every shareholder may have access to the records of the directors' meetings, so that every official act may be known by every shareholder. An attempt to evade such disclosures by failure to call the annual meeting of shareholders, as is sometimes done at the present time, would result in the immediate stopping of the directors' salaries until the meeting was held ; while any failure to provide for the shareholders all proper lists of holdings or other information to which they were entitled would *ipso facto* render the directors ineligible to reëlection to their positions.

The shareholders are likewise entitled to a statement of the condition of the business of the company contained in an annual shareholders' balance-sheet. This balance-sheet is to be verified by auditors elected by the shareholders themselves, and—in the case of the larger companies—duly qualified and bonded, so that their responsibility may be a real one. The balance-sheet itself does not contain details of the business which would be injurious to the interests of the company if put into the hands of a rival. The auditors simply state that it represents accurately the condition of the business without giving the details which are contained in the private balance-sheet, which is open only to the directors and officers of the company and to the auditors. It will be noted also that the general balance-sheet is ac-

cessible only to shareholders. In the case of private corporations which are substantially equivalent to partnerships in their business methods this report will be kept of course entirely private, while in the case of the large corporations with hundreds or thousands of shareholders, whose stocks are dealt in on the exchanges, information given to the stockholders would naturally become public property immediately. In this way it is intended to furnish to the investing public information that will be of service to them in buying the securities of the larger corporations. Thus publicity to the shareholders means publicity to all wherever such publicity is needed.

ADVANTAGES TO CORPORATIONS.

In order that corporations may be willing to make these reports and to organize under this act, many distinct advantages are offered them. Heretofore the larger corporations have been driven from the State of New York by the high incorporation tax and by the heavy responsibilities upon shareholders and directors. In the proposed act these conditions are materially modified.

First. The incorporation tax is reduced from one-eighth of one per cent. of the capital stock to one-fiftieth of one per cent.

Second. The liability of stockholders is limited strictly to the face value of their shares. In case that shares are issued for property or for services, the judgment of the directors regarding their value is conclusive, provided that the provisions regarding publicity are lived up to. It may be urged that this permits stock watering, and it is true that property may be taken under the law at very high figures. On the other hand, every investor can learn the details of the transaction, and can thus make an accurate judgment regarding the real value of the shares. Thus the temptation to water the stock is largely removed. At the same time the purchaser runs no risk of being called upon later by a creditor to make up some value which he supposed to exist at the time the shares were issued. The provision in some laws—for example, those of Massachusetts—that the directors must make oath that property for which shares are issued is taken at its full cash value, is omitted. Such provisions ordinarily do not prevent stock watering, but do prevent conscientious men from taking the responsible position of director—a most deplorable result.

Third. While directors are held rigidly to account for fraud or real neglect of duty, they are not, as under the present law in New York, made responsible for all the debts of a corporation for what may be mere inadvertence or carelessness of some clerk.

Fourth. Capital is encouraged to organize by the very liberal form of the charter. The corporations may engage in any kind of lawful business and in those subsidiary to it as freely as a private individual, provided they live up to the requirements of the law regarding publicity and do not engage in business which would naturally come under the banking, insurance, or transportation laws. Many corporations have been driven to New Jersey or Delaware because the laws of other States confined them to some one narrow line of business. At the present time, in order to secure a steady supply of material, it is necessary that large manufacturing establishments be able also to produce their own raw material. Iron manufacturers own also mines. This act permits such combinations, but only under conditions which permit every stockholder and the public to know the facts; and all the provisions of the present laws against monopoly are retained as a safeguard.

Fifth. To make the transfer of capital to corporations organized under the proposed act easy, those organized under the present law or foreign corporations may come under the act by simply meeting the conditions regarding publicity and payments of fees imposed under the act, and by filing the proper certificate.

TO ENCOURAGE LEGITIMATE BUSINESS.

The intention of the act clearly is to draw the line sharply between corporations organized on a sound basis to do a legitimate business, which will be in the interest of the public, and those organized for speculative purposes in the interest of the promoters or carried on in the interests of the directors. The former are encouraged in every possible way; the latter could not succeed or even organize under the act.

The proposed act has been made optional and not compulsory. A compulsory act with such severe provisions regarding publicity could probably not be enacted now, and, if enacted, would probably work much injustice for a time to corporations organized even with perfectly honorable intentions under an entirely different act. New corporations, however, which organize under this act, or old ones which reorganize under it, will gain at once a reputation for open, upright dealing which cannot fail to be of great benefit to them, in addition to the many advantages offered by the act itself. A line thus drawn between corporations will in time force others under the act, or will probably lead in a short time to material modifications in the old law in the direction of greater publicity.

In this way, without injuring at all the corporations which wish to do a sound business, the greatest evils in connection with the trusts may be eliminated. While the act in many respects

favors corporations, it is believed that in actual practice it will strike a heavier blow at the real evils of the trusts than any anti-trust act heretofore enacted in any State. Certainly the difference between this and them is great enough so that an issue could be easily made along that line.

Some think that the provisions are so rigid that as an optional law no corporation would organize under it, and that it will become a dead letter. Against this opinion is that of many corporation lawyers and business men who are confident that sound business organizations will welcome its provisions, knowing the benefit which they could derive, and that they have nothing to conceal. Experience alone can tell.

The act stands, at any rate, as the most complete expression of what is meant by "publicity" by those who believe it to be an effective remedy for many of the evils connected with large corporations.

FOUR BOOKS ON TRUSTS.*

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

THE Industrial Commission is the first public authority to undertake an exact and comprehensive investigation of the trust question. There have been legislative and Congressional committees, but their work was so hasty and superficial that it ended only in the recommendations to "smash" the trusts. Such legislation was enacted, and, as might be expected from the character of the investigations on which it was based, it has hit the trades unions and railroad traffic associations and not the trusts. The present commission is striving to reach a deeper basis for legislation. The "preliminary report" is of course not adequate for a judgment of the commission's complete work, but it lays down the principles on which all the recommendations are to be made.

The commission recommends three lines of legislation: first, affecting the promotion and organization of corporations; second, publicity of financial affairs in the interest of stockholders; third, increased power of the Interstate Commerce Commission over railroad rates in order to stop discriminations.

It is a curious fact that the last recommendation is not based on conclusive testimony of witnesses before the commission. The only witnesses heard were the representatives of trusts and the competitors of trusts. The latter in some cases charged the former with large profits from freight discriminations, and the former entered a general denial. The commission treated them as gentlemen and did not press them on this or any other shady parts of their business. There was no direct meeting of issues between the two sides. But the commission's recommendations show "inside" information which its public hearings did not bring out. This fact, of course, weakens the value of the published testimony, which is valuable mainly as the uncontroverted opinions of interested parties. As such it has proper significance.

This failure to meet issues is exposed and also is partly counterbalanced by the remarkably well-executed "Topical Digest of Evidence," the work of Professor Durand, on leave of absence from Leland Stanford University (pp. 59–255). This "digest" assembles under appropriate headings the substance of the testimony of each witness. It is something entirely new, as far as I know, in the reports of American commissions of investigation, and makes available for the ordinary reader what would be impossible for him to discover in the mass of stenographic reports of the hearings.

The really authentic and unimpeachable portion of this preliminary report is the statistical tables and charts compiled by Professor Jenks, the expert to the commission, showing the effects of combinations on prices. The combinations treated are those in sugar, whisky, petroleum, tin plate, and steel and wire. The price quotations are based on sources entirely independent of the witnesses before the commission and are as nearly accurate as can be secured. The peculiar value of Professor Jenks' charts is in the lines showing the margins between the market prices of the raw material which the trusts purchase and the market prices of the finished products which they sell. The charts show in general

* **Preliminary Report of the Industrial Commission on Trusts and Industrial Combinations.** Washington: Government Printing Office.

Chicago Conference on Trusts: Speeches, Debates, Resolutions, Lists of the Delegates, Committees, etc. 12mo, pp. 626. Chicago: The Civic Federation of Chicago. Cloth, $1; paper, 50 cents.

Trusts or Competition? Both Sides of the Great Question in Business, Law, and Politics. Edited by A. B. Nettleton. Chicago: The Leon Publishing Company.

Monopolies and Trusts. By Richard T. Ely. 12mo, pp. 290. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.25.

that the trusts have little if any effect toward steadying prices; that prices drop at times when competitors appear and rebound when they disappear; that during the past two years, when the prices of their raw material were rising, the prices of the finished products have risen in still higher ratio, so that they have evidently taken full advantage of returning prosperity; and that in the depression of 1893–98 the sugar and whisky trusts increased their margins between raw and finished products, while the Standard Oil Company diminished its margin.

WORK OF THE CHICAGO CONFERENCE.

The Chicago Conference on Trusts was notable on two grounds: it brought together the leaders of different schools of thought and different practical interests, and it revealed the curious alignment of those interests which is taking place. The eloquence, intellectual power, and representative character of the leading speakers made the sessions something to be long remembered by those in attendance. The peculiar alignment of interests revealed was that of the trusts, the labor unions, and the socialists on one side, and the farmers, small dealers, and anarchists on the other. There were thus two theories of trusts, the *pluto-socialist* theory and the *farmer-anarchist* theory. The former held to the natural evolution of industry from small competitors to monopoly. Their banner was *necessity and success.* The latter held that the trusts are not natural, but are a violation of natural law in the form of discriminations practiced by government and the agents of government. Their banner was *equality and justice.*

The pluto-socialists came forward in three sections. First, the *optimist* section—the trust defenders—holding that this necessary evolution is full of blessings, but the blessings are just now jeopardized by those who would interfere by legislation. Second, the *pessimist* section—the socialists—holding that the process of this evolution is miserable, but must not be hindered, because it will end somehow in the blessings of state ownership. Third, the *opportunist* section—the labor unions—advocating an offensive and defensive alliance between trusts and unions, to hold up the farmer and consumer, and then to divide the proceeds on a sliding scale.

The farmer-anarchist theory was held at one end by Wooten, of Texas, who wanted to smash the trusts as conspiracies hiding under the cloak of law; at the other end by Tucker, the philosopher, who held that private property itself is a discrimination, supported by law, against those without property, and therefore the scientific way would be not to smash the trusts, but to take away all special privileges from everybody in the form of property rights in land, money, and patents. Others saw the causes of trusts in tariffs, railroad discriminations, elevator combines, and corporation charters, all the result of unjust favors from government.

The Civic Federation of Chicago did well in calling this conference and in publishing the stenographic reports. Of course the lively personal interest is missing from the book, but a careful study of its contents, with a clew to the alignments, is invigorating.

A SUMMARY OF RECENT DISCUSSION.

General Nettleton's book is extremely significant. A man of affairs, former Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under President Harrison, with financial interests in trusts, he began his study, as he tells us, with the opinion that "the new movement was legitimate, beneficial, and permanent, requiring only legislation and guidance to safeguard the public welfare." He emerged from a year's study "profoundly convinced that it is fundamentally wrong in theory and incurably evil in operation," and that it "will endure only until the people give to their highest courts an opportunity to apply the law, not to its regulation, which would be futile, but to its removal, which is entirely practicable." In the book which he has published he claims to be only an "editor." He has thrown loosely together a great variety of material on which his own conclusions are based, along with his running commentaries. The material is a valuable compilation and makes a useful handbook (except for the lack of an alphabetical index). It includes the opinions of lawyers, economists, business men, and courts, abstracts of State and federal legislation, a list of the leading trusts, and a summary of the arguments on all sides. Much of the material is taken from the report of the Chicago conference. General Nettleton holds that since the courts and legislatures have chased the monopolists from one form of organization to another until they have resorted to *bona fide* corporations, it is inconsistent to permit this final form to afford them a refuge, and that the courts must follow them up still further, as the Illinois court has done in the Glucose case, and look beneath the corporate charter to find the monopoly intent. This he calls "remedy by trust disintegration." When this last refuge is thus demolished, then the trusts will fall back upon a system of large-scale production without monopoly power, and at the same time the evils of cut-throat competition will be avoided by a "conference of competitors" and a "concert of action without compact." He seems to see no danger

in these secret "conferences" and "concerts," and he offers no suggestion for giving them publicity.

THE ECONOMIST'S ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM.

Professor Ely's book is the scholar's systematic and fundamental treatment of the subject. It is admirable and the best that has been printed. He begins by clearing up definitions. It would seem that that is a good place to begin. Definition leads at once to classification. In fact, classification is definition. These two chapters occupy one-third of the book. So thoroughgoing are they that much useless discussion is later avoided. In Professor Ely's treatment the whole question turns on the classification. His analysis here is a material improvement over that in his earlier books. "Natural monopolies" are those which government cannot suppress. They must therefore be owned by government or regulated. "General welfare monopolies" are those which government creates outright for public purposes, like patents. They can be suppressed, but they generally are of more benefit than injury. "Special privilege monopolies" are those which depend on "public favoritism" or "private favoritism." These are the trusts. Take away these special favors, like tariffs, railroad discriminations, etc., and the trust will fall of its own weight. There need be no "smashing" nor compulsory "disintegration." Large-scale production will continue and will command all the possible economies of production, but will not be monopolistic. Thus Professor Ely, with his careful classification, marks off the field where we may say the pluto-socialist is right and the other field where the farmer-anarchist is right.

A strong feature of the book is its use of facts. Every turn in the argument, every distinction and definition, every law of monopoly price is accompanied by abundant illustrations from actual business transactions. The facts are not supplementary, but are the material from which the economic theories are derived, and the theories, in turn, are illustrated by the facts. The book is therefore both a contribution to economic theory and a handbook of the daily experience of the man of affairs.

THE CONSTITUTION AND THE TERRITORIES.

BY HARRY PRATT JUDSON.

(Professor of Political Science in the University of Chicago.)

THE debate of the present session in both houses of Congress is in many respects unparalleled since the days of Calhoun and Webster. It goes to the very foundations of our system of government. It seeks to detect the essence of the Constitution. On its determination rest not merely national policies of far-reaching importance, but in fact the profoundest meaning of our organic law. We can almost hear again the thunder-roll of Webster's voice: "The Constitution is extended over the United States and over nothing else, and can extend over nothing else. It cannot be extended over anything except over the old States and the new States that shall come in hereafter, when they do come in" (*Cong. Globe*, 30th Cong., 2d sess., App., p. 273, 1849). We can almost hear Mr. Calhoun's incisive argument in the same debate, that as soon as the treaty with Mexico was ratified, at once the Constitution of its own force covered all the newly acquired territory, and therefore it would be necessary that duties should be uniform in California and at points within the States. We seem again to be reading the Republican platform of 1856: "*Resolved*, That the Constitution confers upon Congress sovereign power over the Territories of the United States for their government."

CAN THE CONSTITUTION BE "EXTENDED"?

Among the curious features of this debate is the controversy as to whether Congress can by statute "extend" the Constitution over a given territory, and also as to whether, being thus extended, the Constitution may by further statute be withdrawn. A more grotesque conception can hardly be imagined. Saving only by the admission of new States, Congress has no more power to "extend" the Constitution over a specific area than it has to square the circle by legislation or to repeal the law of gravitation. The Constitution is absolutely beyond the will of Congress. Wherever it is law, it is law irrespective of Congress. Wherever it is the Constitution it is the organic law—and that is law which Congress can neither expand nor contract. In whatever area it is not of its own force the organic law, no possible action of Congress can make it such. The sole effect of legislation purporting to "extend the Constitution, so far as it

may be applicable," over a particular territory, is to take over more or less of the provisions of the Constitution into the statute, and thus to enact them in bulk instead of repeating them in detail. Such provisions of the Constitution thereby become law in the specified territory, not at all in the character of constitutional provisions, but purely and wholly as statutory provisions. As such, undoubtedly Congress may repeal or alter them at will. Of course a statute specifying that certain provisions of the Constitution are extended over a given territory has a like effect. The specified provisions are law, to be sure; but they are law as a statute of Congress, not as parts of the federal Constitution. For their validity they rest wholly on Congressional enactment.

THE REAL QUESTIONS.

The questions whether the Constitution "covers" the Territories, or "extends" to the Territories, or whether "the Constitution follows the flag," are in such form as almost certainly must lead to confusion of thought and to fallacies of argument. "Cover" and "extend" and "follow" are metaphors, and metaphorical terms are always unsafe in a legal discussion.

The questions should rather be these: 1. What power over the Territories does the Constitution vest in Congress? 2. What prohibitions does the Constitution place on Congress with respect to legislation for Territories? A specific answer to these questions will solve the problem now before the federal legislature.

THE POWER OF CONGRESS AS TO TERRITORIES.

So far as governmental powers are concerned, the federal Constitution contains three things: A grant of powers to the federal Government; prohibitions on the exercise of certain powers, either by the federal Government or by the States, or by both of these agencies; the doctrine that residuary powers belong to the States. Either the prohibitions or the grant of powers may be express or implied.

The power of Congress to legislate for Territories is expressly granted in Art. IV., Sec. 3, Par. 2: "The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States."

It has also been held by the Supreme Court to be implied in the power to acquire territory—this latter power being itself implied, according to Chief Justice Marshall, in both the power to make treaties and the power to make war, and according to Chief Justice Taney in the power to admit new States to the Union.

In *extent* the power of Congress over Territories has been held by the Supreme Court to include both the powers of the federal Government as such and the powers of the States. This power, therefore, covers the whole field of government.

These propositions as to the source and nature of Congressional power over the Territories are now too well settled for any further serious question.

PROHIBITIONS ON CONGRESS—UNQUALIFIED AND QUALIFIED.

We then at once come to the question which is the core of the whole matter now in dispute: What constitutional prohibitions are laid upon Congress in legislating for Territories?

Constitutional prohibitions, as has been said, may be express or implied. It is especially necessary, also, to call attention to a further distinction: prohibitions may be *unqualified* or they may be *qualified*. For example, Congress is unqualifiedly forbidden to pass a bill of attainder or an *ex post facto* law (Art. I., Sec. 9, Par. 3). The inhibition is absolute and excludes all action of the kind forbidden under any and all circumstances, whether of time, place, or condition. Hence it is plain that no such legislation would be valid, whether applying to States or to Territories. On the other hand, the next preceding inhibition (Art. I., Sec. 9, Par. 2) forbids the suspending of the writ of *habeas corpus* "unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it." Plainly this is a qualified prohibition, implying that under the special circumstances named the prohibition does not lie.

In order to know the precise limitations which the Constitution places on Congress with respect to Territories, then, we must first enumerate all the unqualified prohibitions on federal legislation. These, of course, must forbid such legislation under any circumstances and for any area, and hence must apply to Territories as well as to States.

In the second place, we must enumerate the qualified prohibitions, and must examine whether the qualifications are such as to cover Territories.

Bearing in mind the judicial construction of the power of Congress to legislate for Territories, it at once appears that the doctrine is exactly the converse of that which relates to federal legislative power over the States. So far as the States are concerned Congress has only powers granted, whether expressly or by implication, while all the residuary powers are in the States (Amdt. X.). On the other hand, so far as Territories are concerned the States severally have no power whatever, and Congress has all powers not denied by

the Constitution—*i.e.*, Congress has all the residuary powers. This distinction is vital.

The prohibitions of the federal Government which are incontestably unqualified are not many and may easily be enumerated. They include the prohibitions of bills of attainder and *ex post facto* laws (Art. I., Sec. 9, Par. 3), of titles of nobility (*ibid.*, Par. 8), of certain modes of legislation (*ibid.*, Par. 7, and also Art. I., Sec. 7), of slavery, of the repudiation of the national debt or the assumption of the insurrectionary debt (Amdt. XIV., Sec. 4), and a few others, express and implied.

The prohibitions on the federal Government which are obviously qualified are also not many. Among them are that directed against the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*, above noted; that which forbids a direct tax unless laid in proportion to population (Art. I., Sec. 9, Par. 4); those which forbid export duties at State ports or commercial discriminations among States (Art. I., Sec. 9, Pars. 5 and 6); of involuntary servitude except as a punishment for crime (Amdt. XIII.); the limitation of suffrage for certain specified reasons (Amdt. XV., Sec. 1); and some others, express and implied.

There are also, of course, prohibitions of both classes on the States. The inhibition of bills of attainder, *ex post facto* laws, and laws impairing the obligation of contracts (Art. I., Sec. 10, Par. 1) is unqualified. The prohibition of State customs duties is qualified by the provision that such duties may be laid with the consent of Congress (Art. I., Sec. 10, Par. 2). But obviously no act of Congress and no other circumstances, aside from a consitutional amendment *ad hoc*, would validate an *ex post facto* law.

It will be observed that the inhibition on Congress to lay export duties is placed among qualified prohibitions. The words of the Constitution are: "No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State" (Art. I., Sec. 10, Par. 5). The Supreme Court has repeatedly held that in the sense of the Constitution a Territory is not a State. Hence the prohibition of export duties is not absolute, but is limited to State areas, and leaves Congress free so far as Territories are concerned.

The same reasoning applies to commercial discriminations among States. The text is: "No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another" (Art. I., Sec. 9, Par. 6). This inhibition cannot lie against legislation with respect to Territories.

This construction is not a new one. In 1804, in the debate in the House of Representatives on a bill for carrying into effect the Louisiana treaty, Elliott (of Vermont) denied that the special privileges granted to France and Spain were in violation of the Constitution as above cited, because, as he said, that prohibition applies only to States, not to "colonial or territorial acquisitions" ("Annals of Congress," 8th Cong., 1st sess., p. 449). The same view was supported by Nicholson (of Maryland), who said (*ibid.*, p. 471):

THE DEBATE OF 1804.

"Whatever may be the future destiny of Louisiana, it is certain that it is not now a State. It is a Territory, purchased by the United States in their confederate capacity, and may be disposed of by them at pleasure. It is in the nature of a colony, whose commerce may be regulated without any reference to the Constitution. Had it been the island of Cuba which was ceded to the United States, under similar condition of admitting French and Spanish vessels for a limited time into the Havannah, could it possibly have been contended that this would be giving a preference to the ports of one State over those of another, or that the uniformity of duties, imposts, and excises in the United States would have been destroyed? And because Louisiana lies adjacent to our territory, is it to be viewed in a different light? Or can the circumstance of its being separated by a river only, instead of the sea, constitute any real difference in regard to the commercial regulations which we may think proper to establish? The restrictions in the Constitution are to be strictly construed, and I doubt whether under a strict construction the very same indulgence might not be granted to the port of Natchez, which does not lie within any State, but in the territory of the United States."

Other speakers on the same side took the same line of argument—*e.g.*, Rodney (pp. 475 and 513) and Mitchell (p. 481). The opposition made no argument on this point. The bill passed the House by a vote of 90 to 25 (p. 488).

THE ESSENTIAL POINTS.

The questions now pending turn, therefore, not on the consideration whether "the Constitution extends to the Territories," but on the nature of certain prohibitions on the federal Government. Are these prohibitions unqualified or qualified? If the latter, exactly what are the qualifications? In short, as to the particular things in question, is Congress forbidden to act within the Territories?

UNIFORM DUTIES—A QUALIFIED PROHIBITION.

One of the main points at issue relates to customs duties, which must be "uniform through-

out the United States" (Art. I., Sec. 8, Par. 1). This is a prohibition on such legislation as involves lack of uniformity. If the prohibition is unqualified it lies absolutely against any such non-uniform legislation, whether as among States, or among Territories, or among States and Territories.

But the contention is made that this is in fact a qualified prohibition; the qualification "throughout the United States" limiting the restriction to uniformity of duties throughout the States, but not requiring uniformity among Territories, or as between States and Territories. This interpretation implies that "throughout the United States" is exactly equivalent to "among the several States which may be included within this Union" (Art. I., Sec. 2, Par. 3). The reasoning upon which this interpretation depends it is not necessary to give in detail. It was considered at some length in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for January, 1899, and since that time it has been exhaustively discussed in the public press and on the floor of each house of Congress.

Its essence is that the political sovereignty of the republic resides in the States; that it is these States, and these States only, which in their political capacity unite to form the "United States of America" as a corporate whole; that the Territories are no part of this political sovereignty, but are by the Constitution distinctly made "property" of the United States (Art. IV., Sec. 3, Par. 2); that the loose geographical use of the name "United States" to include all the States and Territories is a mere convenience arising from the lack of a common geographical name like "France" or "Germany;" but that this loose sense is never employed in the Constitution, which always means by the "United States" either the federal Government or the aggregate of States united to form the republic.

The Constitution uses the term "Union" interchangeably with "United States," speaking now of "the laws of the United States" (Art. III., Sec. 2, Par. 1; Art. VI., Par. 2) and now of the "laws of the Union" (Art. I., Sec. 8, Par. 15). But the Constitution obviously means by "the Union" the States only, not the Territories. Thus: "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union" (Art. I., Sec. 2, Par. 3); "new States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union" (Art. IV., Sec. 3, Par. 1).

Again, with reference to the election of the President, the Constitution provides that "the Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same *throughout the United States*" (Art. II., Sec. 1, Par. 4). In this place "throughout the United States" necessarily means "throughout the States," as the Territories have no voice in choosing the President. Why should the requirement of the uniformity of customs duties "throughout the United States" have a different meaning?

Further, the power of Congress to legislate "for the territory and other property of the United States" clearly implies that the United States and the territory of the United States are two different things.

The same implication is as plainly apparent in the thirteenth amendment: "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude . . . shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction." It would imply the merest tautology to assume that "any place subject to their jurisdiction" are words identical in meaning with the "United States."

What places are there not included within the United States and yet subject to their jurisdiction? The Constitution refers to three classes of such places: the federal district (Art. I., Sec. 8, Par. 17); "places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock yards, and other needful buildings" (Art. I., Sec. 8, Par. 17); and territory which belongs to the United States (Art. IV., Sec. 3, Par. 2). To these three classes of places, then, the thirteenth amendment must refer—a reference historically all the more clear from the long political struggle to keep slavery out of the Territories and to abolish it in the District of Columbia. By parity of reasoning the "United States" within which slavery was prohibited must have referred to the States only, not to the Territories—the very States within which before the Civil War the Republican party had so often admitted that under the Constitution Congress had no power to legislate with regard to slavery, while claiming the undoubted existence of such power as to Territories.

THE THIRTEENTH AMENDMENT AND THE SUPREME COURT.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Cross *vs.* Harrison, at the December term of 1853 (16 Howard 164), took the opposite ground. The court said: "The ratification of the treaty made California a part of the United States, and as soon as it became so the Territory became subject to the acts which were in force to regulate foreign commerce with the United States." This was in brief the view of Mr. Calhoun, above

noted. It will be remembered that in the debate in the Senate in 1849 Mr. Webster dissented vigorously from this view, declaring that a Territory of the United States, "while a Territory, does not become a part, and is not part, of the United States" (*Cong. Globe*, 30th Cong., 2d sess., App., p. 273).

The court sustained Mr. Calhoun's view and not Mr. Webster's.

The political reason which was back of Mr. Calhoun's view is not far to seek. Indeed, he frankly avowed it in the debate. If the Constitution in all its force applies, *proprio vigore*, to the Territories, it at once followed that its shield would serve to protect slavery in the Territories. Otherwise Congress would undoubtedly have power to legislate for slavery restriction. But the court which upheld Mr. Calhoun's view as to the constitutional relations of the Territories in the case of Cross *vs.* Harrison, at the December term of 1853, was in *personnel* the same as that which sought at the December term of 1856 to prevent Congressional legislation adverse to slavery in the Territories in the case of Scott *vs.* Sandford. Their preconceived opinions on the absorbing political issues of the day could hardly help affecting their view of the nature of the Constitution. However, whatever may be said of the correctness of the reasoning by which the court reached their conclusion in Cross *vs.* Harrison, and however clear may be the strong political motive which apparently dictated alike the course of Mr. Calhoun in the Senate and that of the Supreme Court in the two cases cited, it must be remembered also that the plain implication of the thirteenth amendment has overruled the court in both cases and has clearly embodied in the Constitution the doctrine of Mr. Webster. Under the thirteenth amendment the Territories are not "a part of the United States," but are places "subject to their jurisdiction."

This implication of the thirteenth amendment is also a complete reversal of Justice Marshall's well-known opinion in Longhborough *vs.* Blake. Hence if this view of the thirteenth amendment is correct, these cases are no longer in point.

THE BILL OF RIGHTS ON A DIFFERENT BASIS.

The power of Congress to discriminate as to duties between States and Territories rests on the qualification "throughout the United States" —*i.e.*, "throughout the States." In the same way it is claimed that birth in a Territory does not of itself confer citizenship in the United States—"all persons born or naturalized in the United States" (Amdt. XIV., Sec. 1) meaning "born or naturalized in the States." In each of these cases it is held that the qualification is express.

When we turn to the immunities for the protection of personal rights, contained mainly in the amendments, however, we find a different principle, which should on no account be confused with the questions relating to commerce and citizenship. Yet they too frequently have been muddled together. In fact, however, the Supreme Court may quite consistently decide the questions of commerce and citizenship in favor of the power of Congress and the question of personal rights against that power. If these personal rights are confined to the States, it must be held that such qualification is *implied*, as it is plainly not an express one. The qualifications with respect to commerce and citizenship are expressly made.

The first eight amendments contain prohibitions on certain powers of government. The first is in terms an inhibition on the federal legislature; the remaining seven are silent as to whether they relate to the federal Government or to the States, or to both. On their face they seem to be unqualified prohibitions which would lie against either or any form of government. The Supreme Court, however, has decided that they all apply to the federal Government only, and that they do not relate at all to the States (Eilenbecker *vs.* Iowa, 134 U. S. 31). This conclusion has been reached by an examination of the historical circumstances attending the adoption of the amendments. These were such as to convince the court that it was the evident purpose of the States in enacting this so-called Bill of Rights to restrict the federal Government only.

An additional question has been raised with respect to these amendments: Are they qualified not merely with respect to the part of our dual system to which they relate, but also in regard to their territorial application? Do they bind the federal Government outside of the States?

Mr. Webster held trial by jury and the writ of *habeas corpus* inapplicable to Territories unless under special act of Congress. The Supreme Court in several decisions (Thompson *vs.* Utah, 170 U. S. 343; American Publishing Co. *vs.* Fisher, 166 U. S. 464; Springville *vs.* Thomas, 166 U. S. 707; Webster *vs.* Reid, 11 Howard 437; Reynolds *vs.* U. S., 98 U. S. 145; Mormon Church *vs.* U. S., 136 U. S. 1; Callan *vs.* Wilson, 127 U. S. 540) has held that these limitations do apply to the Territories. The reasoning by which this conclusion is reached is in some respects open to grave question. In one case (Springville *vs.* Thomas, 166 U. S. 708) the

decision is supported by an alleged opinion given at the same term of the court (Am. Pub. Co. *vs.* Fisher, 166 U. S. 464), which in fact is not only a misquotation, but a material misquotation, and a distinct *petitio principii*. In another case (Thompson *vs.* Utah, 170 U. S. 349) the learned court supports its argument by an assertion of historical fact which learned historians flatly deny to be fact—the assertion, namely, that judgment of one's peers in Magna Charta referred to trial by jury.

However this may be, the only safe ground on which the doctrine of the court can be defended is that the amendments are in terms unqualified prohibitions on certain forms of action by the federal Government, and that in the circumstances attending their adoption there is no implication which would limit their force to the States.

So far as the limitations themselves are concerned, they are nearly all such as would under any circumstances guide the federal Government, whether in the Constitution or not. They are the common principles of Anglo-Saxon liberty. Trial by jury is the only one which may be open to question. That may not be universally adapted to social conditions in all parts of the Philippines, for instance. Still, the requirement is that the jury shall be "impartial," and hence due legal provision may be made to secure such juries. In that case little harm would result from an affirmation of the existing decisions.

THE QUESTIONS AS TO PROHIBITIONS.

The great questions, then, are narrowed down to these:

1. What are the unqualified limitations on the powers of the federal Government? So far as these are concerned, they are prohibitions which relate to Territories as well as to States.

2. Is a prohibition which applies "throughout the United States" or "within the United States" limited to the States only, or does it apply to the Territories as well? In the former case the prohibition is not unqualified, and duties may be laid for the Territories, or for any one of them, on a different scale from that of the States. If this is true the question at once becomes one of expediency. It may be highly inexpedient to apply a separate scale of duties to Porto Rico, as the writer of this believes, and yet highly expedient to apply such separate scale to the Philippines. But in neither case is constitutional power lacking.

FEDERAL CITIZENSHIP.

But it has been urged that the inhabitants of the newly acquired territory must be either citizens, or subjects, or aliens; that they cannot be aliens, that we have no subjects, and hence they must be citizens.

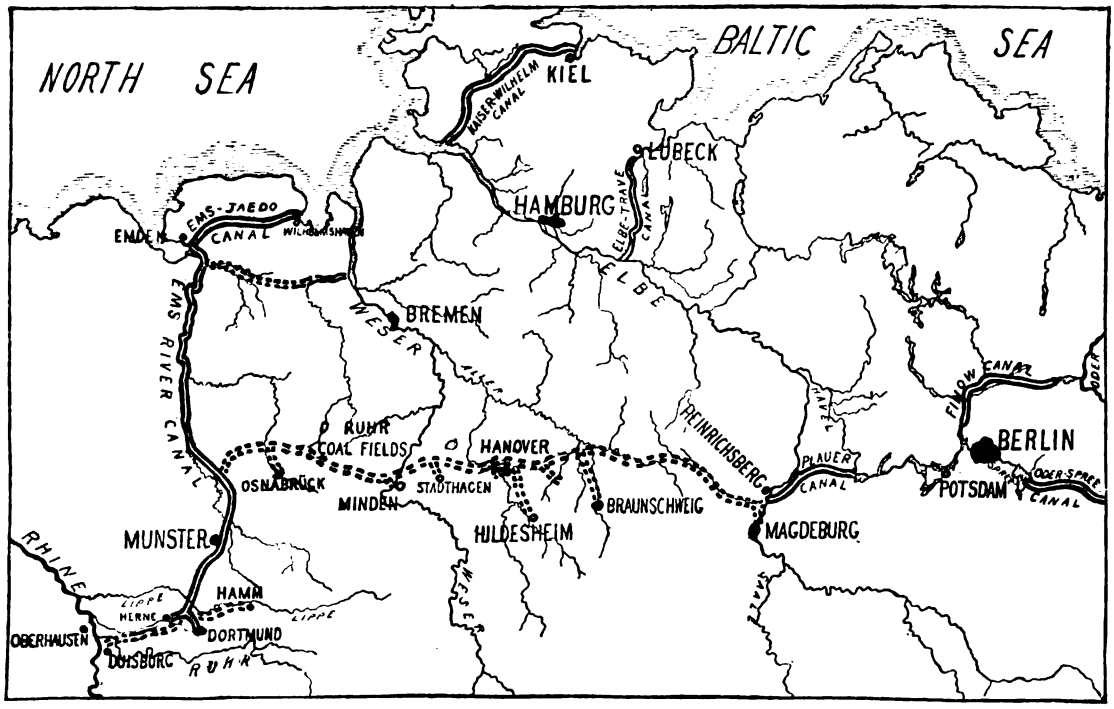
This reasoning is more plausible than sound. In fact, every citizen is subject to the jurisdiction of the United States, and hence is in a very real legal sense a subject. This being the case so far as the national jurisdiction is concerned, the inhabitants of the ceded territory are also subjects, but are they citizens?

Internationally speaking of course they have American nationality, as being subject to the jurisdiction of the United States and entitled to the protection of the federal Government. But citizenship is a matter purely of municipal law. The Supreme Court in interpreting the fourteenth amendment has already held that there are two kinds of citizenship, federal and State (The Slaughter House Cases, 16 Wall. 36), and that these do not necessarily exist in the same person. In like manner there may easily be implied a third kind of citizenship—*territorial*. Territorial citizens may or may not be "citizens of the United States" ("federal citizens," as they may very properly be called). They are federal citizens if, being so already, they have taken up domicile in a Territory, or if they are made federal citizens by act of Congress. Otherwise they are territorial citizens only.

DOES SOVEREIGNTY MEAN TYRANNY?

Does such a legal relation between the federal Government and federal Territories imply tyranny? By no means. The old conception of the colonial system implied government of colonies primarily for the benefit of the mother country. It was against such a system that the American colonies of Great Britain and of Spain revolted and established their independence. The new conception of colonies implies their government primarily for their own benefit. It is this conception which to-day unites Canada and Great Britain by bonds more delicate than silk and yet stronger than steel.

In short, this relation of the United States to its Territories is in essence guardianship, and is based on a high sense of duty. It implies the old Anglo-Saxon safeguards for personal liberty. It implies local self-government, far more, indeed, than is enjoyed by the District of Columbia. But it also implies that federal citizenship in the United States is a high privilege, not to be granted lightly and only to be won by proved desert. It implies, finally, that statehood in the American Union is the highest privilege of all, to which no Territory has an *a priori* right, and which hereafter will be bestowed charily and only after long deliberation.



MAP OF THE RHINE-ELBE CANAL.

THE RHINE-ELBE CANAL—A FEATURE IN GERMAN POLITICS.

BY PROF. JAMES HOWARD GORE

ONE of the most important measures that will come before the Prussian Congress during the present session is the project for a ship canal to connect the Rhine with the Elbe. It is important in itself and also because its fate will decide the continuance of the general canal scheme on which Germany has been working for the past forty years. In discussing the interest taken in this project by the German Government surprise is expressed that so much stress should be put upon this measure. In these discussions sight is lost of the fact that the individual states control their local improvements and vote the needful appropriations. The general government can outline a comprehensive scheme of internal improvements, but when it comes to final action and grants of money the state congresses must be appealed to. In the case of the Rhine-Elbe Canal it is Prussia that must bear the greater part of the cost, and thus it is that such great effort has been put forth to secure favorable consideration from its congress.

A glance at the map of Germany will show that all of the rivers to the west of and including the Elbe flow north and approximately parallel. They follow the channels cut out by glacial action, consequently the dividing ridges are not high. These streams give natural waterways for north-and-south traffic, but there is a lack of facilities for like traffic east and west. This lack was noticed by Napoleon, Frederick II., and the Great Elector, all of whom urged the cutting of a canal to supply this deficiency.

In 1839 the building up of the railroad system began, and so much was expected of this means of intercommunication that for a time canals were ignored. Another hindrance to the construction of canals was the heavy tolls exacted on the navigable rivers. The river toll stations were abolished in 1868, and in 1871 the tolls on the canals were reduced so as to simply provide for the maintenance of the artificial waterways. This stimulated the transportation by water, and because of these reduced rates railroad charges were lowered on all forms of freight for which special haste was not essential. In the course of time an equitable adjustment was reached, and as the railroads as well as the canals belonged to

the state, there was no need to maintain competition for the sole purpose of keeping down freight rates.

But now that Germany is becoming a great manufacturing state producing goods on small margins, it is absolutely necessary that freight on coal and on raw materials be reduced to a minimum. In the industrial districts seven-tenths of the traffic is coal, and in order to lower the rates to the figure demanded by the small profits, all other rates must be correspondingly increased. The lowest charge that the railroad can afford is 1.6 cents per ton per mile, while the canal can carry with profit for one-fifth this amount.

All acknowledge that the railroads are unable to handle the freight offered; hence the cheapest relief could come from the construction of canals to carry the less profitable forms of freight and those classes in whose transportation time does not constitute an important element.

To improve the railroad service more tracks, cars, locomotives, and sidings would be needed, bridges and stations enlarged, and new lines established. This would cost many times as much as the canal, and besides there would be the greater expense of maintenance. The boats are owned by private parties, and each carries as much as sixty cars, which would have to be provided by the state.

Then, again, fertilizers can be cheaply brought to the less productive lands through which the proposed canal will run, thus aiding in bringing about the intensive cultivation demanded in a country which at this time must purchase from abroad two-thirds of its food supplies. Building stone can find cheap transportation from the Teutoburgerwald quarries, as can also brick from along its course.

An improvement so far-reaching as this ought to be entered upon without delay, one would think. But the economical citizen, living at a distance from the route proposed and believing himself to be beyond the zone benefited by the canal, thinks only of the increased taxation which he imagines necessary for the raising of the $100,000,000 required. He marshals a variety of facts to show that first of all canals invariably cost more to construct than was estimated, and cites the Dortmund-Ems Canal, which exceeded the estimated cost by $4,000,000. He then points to the Kiel Canal as being a perpetual burden, since its revenues are insufficient for maintenance. And, finally, technical difficulties in great number are mentioned.

All of these objections have been foreseen by the friends of the canal and shown to be in a great measure without foundation. They have demonstrated that with the springing up manufactories and villages along the canal the neighboring farmer would receive a better price for his products by having consumers near at hand. But in emphasizing this argument care has to be taken to prevent creating the impression that operatives in other sections would suffer an increase in the cost of living, and on the other hand that prices of agricultural products in the large markets will not be lessened by the canal cheapening their cost of transportation.

It is proposed that this canal leave the Rhine near Duisburg, cross over to the valley of the Ems at Oberhausen, and join the Dortmund Canal at Herne, following it to the Ems River. The rival plans call for the crossing of the Hunte and Weser Rivers on aqueducts or the utilization of a portion of the Weser as a canal.

Water is to be taken from the rivers crossed, but as only thirteen locks will be needed the amount of water required will not be great. The total length of the canal to Heinrichsberg, on the Elbe, is 295 miles, and branch canals aggregating 200 miles are contemplated.

The estimated cost for the main canal is $76,080,000, and the annual cost for maintenance is reckoned at 3 per cent. of the cost of construction. In order to cover this yearly charge the canal must carry 1,116,000,000 mile-tons at one-eighth cent per mile-ton. For the construction of the canal Prussia asks of the provinces through which it passes (1) the cost of maintenance, (2) one-third of the 3-per-cent. interest on the construction bonds, and (3) one-half of 1 per cent. on same bonds for a sinking fund. It is thought that the construction will occupy about nine years and that it will be ten years before it will become profitable.

It is admitted by all that the canal can be dug and that the technical difficulties can be overcome. The contention is, therefore, as to the advisability of commencing a work of such magnitude with the uncertainty as to its ability to meet the annual charges. Modern strategists from Moltke to the present Emperor have pointed out the importance of the canal for moving supplies and heavy ordnance in time of war. And connecting the great Ruhr coal fields with the cities of Hamburg and Bremen and the manufacturing districts of central Prussia, it would make a coal blockade impossible, as these centers of activity would be independent of the coastwise traffic from the mouth of the Rhine. Then, again, Germany is rapidly increasing her shipping, and the cost of freights by all-water routes is so much cheaper than all land or part land and part water that every effort should be put forth for facilitating transportation.

The opponents seek to prove that the canal would seriously damage agriculture by lessening the cost of food supplies to the manufacturing districts in West Prussia, and that consequently the farmer would receive less for his surplus crops. It is true new competition might be thus introduced, but it seems to be forgotten that any cheapening of the cost of living for the manufacturing population would lessen the prices of the manufactured articles, so that what the farmer might lose on the price of his crops would be compensated for in the reduction of the cost of such manufactured products as he would buy. Likewise it should be considered that any aid that is rendered the industrial classes would strengthen Germany in her effort to compete with the other industrial countries. This is fully recognized by the Emperor, and he is striving to stimulate the export trade of his empire by the building of a navy and the improvement of the means of internal communication.

It is folly to say that the antagonism to this measure is based on the theory that the canal would enable the American grain-grower to compete on more favorable terms with the agriculturist of East Prussia. Such a canal would cheapen in a far greater proportion the cost of transportation from France and the ports of Antwerp and Rotterdam to which is consigned such quantities of South American wheat. It is even a greater folly to so contort all German legislation so as to make it appear as though that country is commercially inimical to ours. They are mutual complements, and if our artificial barriers were put down the enlarged commercial interdependence would bring about an alliance much stronger than could be shaped by diplomatic conventions.

Chambers of commerce have presented memorials both for and against the canal—to be specific, in the ratio of 43 to 15. But in many cases the opposition was based on purely local considerations. They either feared a deflection of trade from some particular route or the petitioners were so far away that they could not hope to profit directly by the canal. The strongest organized opposition is due to agrarianism, but as only one-third of Germany's population is engaged in agriculture and less than one-half of this number have any surplus to sell, it is readily seen that neither the greatest good nor the greatest number can be associated with the opposition.

As said in the beginning of this paper, the reason this question assumes such importance in the imperial politics is that should Prussia—so closely under the influence of the imperial government—fail to indorse this project, it would be impossible to expect favorable action on the other features which look toward the aggrandizement and the enriching of the empire; but *gebaut wird er doch.*

JAPAN'S NEW ERA.

BY R. VAN BERGEN.

NINE months ago, or, to be quite exact, on July 17, 1899, Japan attained its majority, as it was poetically expressed. The extraterritorial privileges hitherto enjoyed by foreign residents were abolished by the assumption of judicial autonomy, granted by the revised treaties which entered into effect on that date. Except the few hundreds of foreigners in Japan, the world beyond those isles did not evince any great interest in the event. But those few hundreds, whom business interest forbade leaving, trembled with apprehension at the prospect before them.

It is true that for twenty-three years the Japanese had been clamoring in vain for a revision of the old treaties, and that they were perfectly justified in pressing this claim. On the other hand, the avowed object on the part of the Japanese was persistently to bring foreign residents and visitors under Japanese jurisdiction, a demand which was absurd. This was the purpose of the first representative embassy under the Kugé Iwakura Tomomi, which reached Washington in 1873. Every intelligent man acquainted with the country opposed Japan's claims to be intrusted with power over the life and property of a foreigner.

This opposition was based upon unanswerable reasons. The Japanese possessed no written codes, and in criminal cases torture was resorted to for many years to extract a confession. Besides this, the *joï*, or anti-foreign spirit, was daily growing more and more rampant among all classes, and there was ample evidence from cases brought against Japanese and adjudicated in their courts that foreigners *could not* obtain justice against a native. These facts prevented the heads of legations at Tokyo from recommending a favorable consideration of Japan's reiterated

requests, until on July 17, 1894, it was suddenly announced that Lord Salisbury had signed the revised treaty, granting all of Japan's demands on condition that it should go into effect after five years, and provided that at that time the written codes should have been in operation for one year. After this decisive act of Great Britain the other treaty powers could no longer resist, and Japan's most ardent desire was fulfilled.

It was more than a mistake—it was a crime against Japan's real progress. Marquis Ito, then prime minister, had opposed the treaty, as is fully proved by the British Blue Book of 1894, in which the negotiations are published at length. That the Japanese were clamoring for an authority which they would surely abuse was no more excuse for granting it than for an over-indulgent parent to give his child unripe fruit because it cries for it. Admitting that Japan had adopted written codes and that they had been in operation for a year, it would have been a duty to examine these laws. The discovery must have followed that they might suit a Christian nation from whom they had been copied, but that it was ridiculous to expect an essentially Oriental people to obey them. Because our ladies look well dressed in the costumes they wear, it does not follow that their Japanese sisters appear to advantage in similar dresses. Indeed, the Japanese women have wisely discarded our fashions and returned to their *kimono* and *obi*. Even so the codes now in existence in Japan have been quietly disregarded by the authorities when they clashed with old-established usages. (An instance of recent occurrence is cited below.) But they will be amended until not a shred of the original is left.

While the masses of the Japanese were jubilant as the time drew nigh when no consular court should continue to afford much-needed protection, it was not the foreigners only who looked with apprehension upon the approaching date. The government of Japan dreaded the excesses of its uncontrollable subjects, who fancied that from that day the hated *to-jin*—foreign devils—must pay due homage to the divinely descended son of Dai Nippon. As a prominent paper published in Japan * expresses it:

> We have often said, and now repeat it, that from a Japanese standpoint the foreign treaties—since then unfortunately revised—were "the safest and best which the wisdom of Japanese statesmen could have devised or into which they could have blundered." We are still of the same opinion, and we are not alone in it. Japan to-day has the shadow of judicial automony for the substance of solid and substantial progress and international consolidation. The building is completed, but the roof leaks, the wind gets in, the accommodation is dear and defective, and the world is beginning to recognize that there are other and better places to live in.

The fear of the cabinet that the lower classes, the servants and coolies, might interpret the new departure to mean that every foreigner henceforth would be at the mercy of a Japanese was by no means unfounded. Had not the native courts arduously and indiscriminately defended every native guilty of an unprovoked assault upon a foreigner? Had not acquittal uniformly followed the most flagrant case of cheating or embezzlement committed upon an alien? These facts could not be denied. But while this line of conduct had not displeased the government at a time when it could not be held responsible, it was now deemed necessary to invoke the highest power, the Emperor's writ, in restraining the ardent patriots from such embarrassing behavior. An imperial rescript was issued a few days prior to July 17, 1899, strongly advocating a more civil and just line of conduct.

This rescript was unheeded. The majority of those natives whom business or social relations bring into contact with foreigners looked upon it as a mere formality to allay fears. With the strongly biased actions of the judges before them, the people could come to no other conclusion. Regrettable though it be, it is nevertheless a fact that even in the most enlightened countries few judges are wholly indifferent to popular approval. In Japan, where from the immaturity of codes and bench no precedents had been established to assist in the interpretation of the law, and incidentally in restraining the judges, the inexperienced and ill-paid members of the judiciary are wholly biased by national and popular sympathies. To show how deeply seated this is and the danger it constitutes to our American citizens in Japan, the following instance of recent occurrence deserves attention.

On September 30, 1899, the *Tamba Maru*, a Japanese steamer owned by the *Nippon Yusen Kaisha* (Japan Mail Steamship Company) lay at anchor in Moji harbor. The third officer, Mr. H. R. B. Kent, an Englishman not quite twenty-three years of age, bearing an excellent reputation, was in his room, when the door opened and a quartermaster of the ship entered, evidently intent upon mischief. After a wordy attack Umezeko Toyomatsu, the quartermaster, struck his superior, who replied by knocking the man down. The latter rose, and pulling the legs from under Kent bit him severely in the thigh. The noise brought several officers of the steamer on the scene, who witnessed the greater part of the fray. The quartermaster was arrested by Constable

* The *Eastern World*, December 2, 1899, page 4.

Yoda, of the water police. He retaliated by causing the arrest of Mr. Kent.

Kent was refused bail for two days on a simple charge of battery, while Umezeko was at once released on his own recognizance. The trial was postponed for an absurd length of time, detaining both the defendant and witnesses, and it was only on December 7, or *sixty eight days* after the occurrence, that judgment was pronounced. When the trial did take place cross-examination and the calling of witnesses for the defense were prohibited, and when at last Messrs. Hill and De la Hayde, both esteemed officers of the steamer, were examined by the court, their testimony, wholly exculpating the defendant, was simply pronounced "not credible" because it contradicted the unsupported statement of the quartermaster. Mr. Kent was sentenced to *six months of rigorous imprisonment.*

Even the *Japan Mail*, the organ of the Japanese, stands aghast at this miscarriage of justice, while the Japanese mob is jubilant. It is therefore not incredible that a Tokyo merchant named Otaki Motu brought suit against the highly responsible and old-established firm of Worch & Co., of Yokohama, asking for the restitution of 10,000 cases of alcohol deposited with the firm as security for a loan of 132,700 yen. The firm does not know the man, never loaned him any money, and never handled the alcohol. But the Japanese trusts to the bias of the judge and he hopes to obtain judgment in his favor.

When the new treaty went into effect the Japanese expected that foreign capital would pour in for investment. This expectation has not been realized. There is no security whatever for capital in Japan, and those who made careful inquiries withdrew at once. It was not at all necessary to trust to the universal sentiment among foreigners. The anti-foreign spirit predominating among the Japanese is so strong that Marquis Ito, than whom no man can be more patriotic, has repeatedly felt it his duty to openly comment upon and rebuke it. The last time he did so was at a banquet on December 16, 1899. The following fragments of his speech on that occasion are literal quotations :

But it is a matter for deep regret to observe that the conduct of some classes of the people is not altogether free from blame. Whether as a consequence of our late success in arms or from some other causes, it looks as though a section of the nation had become animated by an anti-foreign spirit and inspired by anti-foreign sentiments. Such sentiments are altogether irrational and out of place in our present state of progress. They are simply the products of ignorance and stupidity, and it is a duty of all leaders of thought like yourselves to eradicate the evil and mistaken sentiments of this description from the people's minds.

The occasion of the coming into effect of the revised treaties was made memorable, as you all know, by the issue of an imperial rescript, but judging from what I observed in the course of my recent tours in the country, I am sorry to say that the people in general appear to attach comparatively little importance to the document in question. . . .

It should be borne in mind that imperial rescripts are only issued on occasions of particular importance and in connection with matters of especial gravity. For instance, when a fundamental departure in the national policy is to be proclaimed it cannot be proclaimed by means of a law, but only by means of a rescript under the seal of the Emperor, whom we all obey as our common lord. Such were exactly the circumstances under which the particular imperial rescript we are speaking of was promulgated, and in importance and weight there is not the slightest difference between it and the celebrated imperial message on education. . . .

What should we, then, say of those who in a cowardly manner insult these strangers [the foreign residents and tourists] by jostling them or throwing stones at them? These things may appear to be trifling matters, but really they are very serious affairs, fraught as they are with far-reaching consequences.

This anti-foreign feeling is shared equally by all classes, the government and a very few notable persons excepted. Among these latter the *Jiji Shimpo* and its patriotic editor, E. Fukusawa, deserve mention. They have dared brave a storm of vituperation for insisting that Japan should deserve her rank in the comity of nations by permitting foreigners to own real estate. As the law is now, a lease of twenty-five years is the utmost that can be granted. Japan is anxious that American capital should make investments; but capital is timid and demands the best of security.

Another improvement essential to the execution of the new treaties is an adequate salary for the bench. What can be the *personnel* of the most important branch of the government when an industrious *jinrikisha* coolie, who is entitled to 20 sen per hour, can earn more than a learned judge? The many vacancies now existing evidently point out the fact that bright lawyers do not court the honor of a judgeship.

Those whose financial interests demand the adulation of Japan may offer as an excuse that Chinese coolies have been assaulted in some parts of the United States. Without attempting to palliate the offense, it must be remembered that such acts were committed by an irresponsible mob or its members, and also that the sufferers were of the very lowest class of Chinese. In Japan those who are assaulted are ladies or gentlemen of the very best class of Americans or Europeans; quiet, industrious, reputable merchants or missionaries; and the men committing the offense were often, if not most frequently, of the class of merchants or *shizoku.* There is at

present absolutely no safety for a foreigner in Japan, and ladies especially are liable to be insulted anywhere and in broad daylight. It is out of the question to obtain redress.

This condition of affairs must necessarily come to light and finally will result in serious trouble with Japan. If the authorities of the treaty powers had made an earnest investigation as to the claims of Japan to be admitted on terms of equality into the comity of nations, the request would have been denied. Japan copied institutions, or rather gave fine-sounding civilized names to innovations the scope of which not 1 per cent. of its people understood. Here is an illustration of this fact in the account of an affair of recent occurrence, in which an American citizen was involved.

One of the most ineradicable, because distinctly Oriental, customs, strong enough to defy any law, is the right of parents to sell their daughters for immoral purposes. The custom is based upon the only religious (the word is absurd, but there is no other adequate expression) sentiment possessed by Japanese and Chinese alike—viz., ancestral worship. There are many literary productions in Japan in which a woman who has sold herself to a life of shame in order to relieve her parents is the heroine. It happened that one of these unfortunates held in bondage at Nagoya, disgusted with her life, applied to the courts for release. The Rev. U. G. Murphy, an American missionary located at that place, interested himself in the case, and the girl won the suit, judgment being based upon Article XC. of the civil code: "A juristic act whose intended effect is contrary to the public welfare or good morals is void."

After judgment was pronounced the buyer of the girl, backed by other members of his class, defied the court by refusing to give up the girl, and, what is more to the purpose, he is sustained by the chief of police and the governor of Nagoya. The former official graciously admits that the law may be just, but maintains that he is powerless to enforce it because the local regulations constitute the keeper of an immoral resort the arbiter as to when its inmates shall be released. The governor agrees in this opinion, and the law is set aside. Of what import, then, is Article XXIII. of the Constitution of Japan, which says: "No Japanese subject shall be arrested, detained, tried, or punished unless according to law"?

The question may be asked why foreigners do not leave Japan if conditions exist as described above. The editor of the *Eastern World*, quoted before, answers:

Because the large majority would have more to take away with them than a trunk and a gripsack. They have been here for a greater or lesser number of years, have invested money in the business they have built up, and are only kept here by sheer force of circumstances; but there are few of them who would not leave if they could wind up their affairs without loss or with no more loss than they can well bear.

THE WARLIKE POLICY OF THE EMPRESS DOWAGER OF CHINA.

BY WILLIAM N. BREWSTER.

CHINA is again putting on her war-paint and preparing to bid defiance to the would-be despoilers of her vast domains. For the past year the Empress Dowager has been working with frantic energy to strengthen the defenses of the empire. The chronic lack of funds has been in part remedied by the tour of the lord high extortioner Kang Yi to the maritime provinces, where he managed to squeeze several million dollars from the reluctant officials. With this and other funds an army of nearly 200,000 troops has been equipped with modern arms to defend the capital. Several new cruisers have been built or ordered in Europe. The provincial viceroys have been stirred to diligence in equipping and drilling their armies for local defense. There has also been an abortive attempt at organizing a militia all over the empire. This last is a delusion and a snare. The militia, that at heart hates the government which it is supposed to defend, will be found wanting when most needed and worse than useless if present.

Nevertheless there has been a great deal of military activity, with not a little to show for it, during the year 1899, and such a large number of men armed with Mausers and Maxim guns will undoubtedly make the proposed partition of China more than a mere diplomatic fight among the powers.

And now comes to light a secret edict from

the Empress Dowager, issued on November 21, 1899, but kept so quiet that it has only recently reached the English-speaking public, which indicates that she considers the preparations sufficient to bid defiance to all comers. This edict is addressed to all the high provincial officers of the empire, and orders them to resist with force all foreign encroachments upon their territory. The viceroys are exhorted to cease their perpetual settling of difficulties with foreign powers by the suicidal policy of peace at any price. They are to defend their country at any cost, even though they must resort to arms. They are reminded of the fact that the worst thing that can happen to *them* is to yield to the bullying of foreign powers. They will be punished severely and speedily. At about the same time the Tsung-li Yamen (which is the Chinese Foreign Office) by the Empress Dowager's orders issued an edict to all the high provincial officers commanding them to be prepared to resist with force of arms all foreign encroachments. They are even authorized to do this on their own initiative without waiting for authority from Pekin, as such a delay might prove fatal to the safety of the empire. In view of the fact that all the important provincial capitals are connected by telegraph with Pekin, this latter order is most surprising.

But it requires not a prophet's eye to see in all this seeds of trouble to China in the near future provided the edicts are taken seriously by the provincial authorities. China has no fleet and almost no merchant marine. The long coast line is practically undefended. Troops cannot be transported from the north in Chinese steamers, because there are none; and steamers, if she had them, would require iron-clad convoys. The absence of railroads leaves only the ocean for travel, and that would be policed by the hostile fleet. These provincial armies are, with one or two exceptions in the Yang-tse Valley, mere paper shams. The pay is drawn for a thousand when not half that number are under arms, and these are underpaid, ill-equipped, poorly drilled, and at heart disloyal. France has just settled with China for the murder of two lieutenants in the extreme south by further mining and railroad concessions. She seems to be waiting and watching for the opportune moment and excuse for taking possession of a large strip of Chinese territory adjoining Tonquin. Such a sweeping order to the viceroy of the two Kuang provinces of which Canton is the capital may give France the coveted opportunity to strike. It is a comfort to the friends of China to note that at this juncture the veteran diplomat as well as soldier, Li Hung Chang, has just been appointed viceroy at Canton. Li knows the weakness of ordinary native troops and will not do anything rash, though he is authorized to do so. He will preserve peace with honor if he can, but he will have peace until he has a reasonable fighting chance, unless war is forced upon him.

In the meantime the Russian railroad is nearing completion. It is claimed that through trains will be running in the summer of 1900 from St. Petersburg to Pekin. When that is accomplished, what will avail the 200,000 imperial troops in protecting the Chinese capital if the peace-loving Czar finds it convenient to make good his claim and foreclose his mortgage on Manchuria? Cossacks can be poured into that province to any extent within a fortnight. The belligerent attitude of the Chinese Government will only furnish the desired excuse. Russian capital is invested in the railroad and mines; Russians are numerous along the line; their lives and property are in danger. The Chinese officials are too weak or too bigoted, or both, to protect them. Russia must care for the lives and property of the subjects of the Czar. With such reasoning who can argue? The more belligerent the Chinese Government shows itself, the speedier the coming partition. So events seem to be conspiring against poor old China. The allies are at work and waiting. Russia and France have nothing to lose and much to gain by trouble with China. If this warlike policy of the Empress Dowager is carried out, it seems probable that the crisis is not far off.

If America is to preserve the open door for her trade in all parts of the Chinese empire as now constituted, she will have to be quick about it. "Whom the gods would destroy they first make mad." And "mad" describes the present so-called government of China more accurately than any other word. If America could unite with the other powers interested in preserving the open door and help gradually to reform and thus to strengthen the defense of the empire until China could stand alone and take her rightful place among the family of nations, there would still be hope for that policy. But for China to fight Russia and France at this time invites disaster. For the nations who favor the open-door policy to stand aloof probably means great loss to the commercial nations and endless diplomatic disputes, if not more serious international troubles, in the not distant future.

No matter what promises are made by Russia and France now, once give them legal control over large slices of Chinese territory, and sooner or later *the open door will be shut in our face.*

WASTEFUL METHODS OF FIRE INSURANCE.

BY LOUIS WINDMÜLLER.

PROSPERITY prevails with producers and penetrates through almost every branch of trade, but the business of insuring property against fire grows from bad to worse. Last year aggregate losses, including expenses, in New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia, the three principal cities of the Union, were greater than the premium receipts. Throughout the country fires have increased and compensation for insurance has diminished.

Vexatious laws enacted by various States ostensibly to protect their citizens seriously injure a business which ought to be fostered, as it is allied with the best interests of the nation. Unnecessary taxes are imposed not alone by legislatures, but also by municipalities, aggregating in many instances 4 per cent. on gross income; heavy license fees and fines are levied; deposits are required which small companies can ill afford to make; annual statements of irrelevant details call for useless clerical labor. Commissioners who lack experience are sent from distant capitals to investigate large companies whenever it may please the authorities; on the occasion of every visitation each company must heavily pay for such examination.

Aside from New Hampshire, nineteen Western and Southern States require insurance companies to issue "valued" policies; in other words, they compel them to pay not what it costs to replace the property, but the value fixed upon it by the owner. A man recently insured in Ohio his store for $40,000 (which cost him $20,000) and then destroyed it by fire. He would have succeeded in collecting the larger amount if he had not forgotten a party wall which had supported his building and in which his neighbor was equally interested. Because the neighbor declined to join the conspiracy failed. Insurance commissioners in other Western States have abused their power to coerce payment of valued policy claims by their citizens against licensed underwriters. All indemnity we should in case of fire be permitted to ask from insurers is either to restore destroyed property or pay what it costs to replace it. By forcing them to pay more we encourage incendiarism.

The State of Missouri recently revoked the license of all insurance companies because their agents had established rates dependent on the inspection of property they were asked to insure. In this country, where houses grow like mush rooms and are often carelessly, always hastily, constructed, so that when ignited their swift destruction by the fiery element becomes inevitable, it is the duty of the underwriter by thorough examination to discover defects to which the risk he is expected to assume may be exposed, and to assess a premium commensurate with dangers involved by defects. Concealed behind hollow walls and ceilings, hidden in faulty apparatus for lighting and heating, only a careful examination by experts can lead to their discovery. If in this task the authorities were to encourage instead of hindering him, architecture would be improved and fires become less disastrous. The insurance commissioner of Missouri objected because the companies had agreed with each other to enforce these rules and to exact penal rates where defects existed. Their action he construed to be an unlawful combination. The companies could only buy their readmission by a recision of their sensible agreement and the payment by each of them of a fine of $1,000—for their attempt to form a "trust." Fear of the power of combinations generally is groundless and a ridiculous bugbear in our imagination. The experience of industrial coalitions demonstrates that exorbitant prices for large commodities cannot be long maintained. As soon as the production becomes unduly profitable it will enlist new capital which will cheapen the commodity. This law of trade applies to insurance as much as to any other necessity. Where its conditions become oppressive merchants, manufacturers, and grangers mutually insure each other. Over 200 of their associations last year made reports of their condition.

Fire insurance is concentrated in New York, Hartford, and a few other places. From these central points chief underwriters direct the huge business which they do in every State of the Union; but they must apply different rules to different States according to their respective laws. If the insurance business were controlled by the federal Government as railroads now are controlled by the Interstate Commerce Commission, citizens of all States could fairly be treated alike.

The safety of banks, which offer deserving traders when in need the facility to borrow money, has for more than a generation been under competent supervision of the Comptroller of the

Currency. Reliable insurance for the protection of property in case of fire, being indispensable to every owner and to the credit of every trader, is a necessity as much as banking capital. A department to control the associations engaged in that useful business could readily be established and made self-supporting by a small tax on net profits. If it existed and were delegated carefully to look at periodical intervals into the solvency of underwriters, excuses for interference by legislatures would no longer exist, and the public, while better protected, would be relieved from unnecessary taxes on insurance. State politics would cease to exercise that pernicious influence which now blights the insurance business of the whole country.

In every prosperous town underwriters have established agencies to solicit custom and adjust losses. Few of these agents receive salaries. Their compensation generally consists of a fixed portion of collected premiums irrespective of losses, which by assuming the risks they incur. As a great many agents represent more than one company, they naturally prefer the one which pays 25 per cent. commission over another which pays 15 per cent. only. Although they are conscious that the larger commission is more than their principals, in the long run, can afford to pay, they are eager to take what is in reach. The receipt of commissions regardless of results tempts agents to consider immediate profit of greater importance than the welfare of their companies. A dealer who deliberately would give his traveling salesman 5 per cent. of the gross amount of his sales of staple merchandise, irrespective of prices or the responsibility of buyers, would be considered unworthy of confidence. Yet as stockholder or director of insurance companies he allows the officers to follow such a ruinous policy. Some companies have attempted to pay their agents a small commission —say of 10 per cent.—on premiums and at the end of the year an additional part of the profits made by their transactions. These efforts having been tentatively made in isolated cases have so far met with indifferent success. Certain companies have permitted agents, besides paying them the compensation paid by rivals, to share in profits. It is doubtful if in the long run such competition can be made profitable. Until it becomes a general practice to pay remuneration contingent on profits, most agents will prefer to deal with companies from whom they get the largest possible commission as soon as policies are written. The representative of one company recently accepted a risk of $50,000 from a trader whose antecedents were unknown to him. In his anxiety to earn the commission he neglected to take the usual precaution of inquiring into his character, which was bad. If he had been interested to make the business profitable his employers would not have lost that amount, as they did soon after issuance and before receipt of the policy at the home office. The fear that they may offend the agents and lose their favor deters officers from taking a firm stand against incautious methods of doing business.

When losses occur the same agent is in many cases employed to adjust them. As his income depends on the good-will of his customer, he inclines to indemnify him in accordance with his wishes. A reputable firm of dry goods merchants suffered recently by two fires one after another. While loss by the first was being adjusted one underwriter, who personally had come to the meeting and who was not represented by a local agent, had the curiosity to inspect the damaged goods. He came across a line of silks the edges of which had been wet, which in the schedule of claims figured to his surprise as worthless. By his earnest protest he succeeded in securing considerable reduction of the claims. Soon after the second and larger fire occurred the same firm sold over their bargain counter goods damaged by water at half prices and claimed 50 per cent. loss. They pretended it would have been greater if they had not by prompt action forestalled their neighbors and if they had delayed the sale until they could first give insurers the customary privilege of taking goods at their sound value. One of the local agents, subservient to the wishes of a desirable client, was ready to comply, but the other adjusters objected, and a rebate of 50 per cent. on all the claims was at their instance accepted by the assured.

Sufficient attention is not always paid to the adjustment of losses. Many agents remunerated by commissions and some salaried employees are induced by selfish considerations to sanction the payment of exorbitant claims. Almost as much is annually paid by underwriters for extravagant and fraudulent claims as for actual losses. To put damaged goods into merchantable condition gives wreckers—as persons engaged in the business are called—opportunities to enrich themselves at the underwriters' expense. One such wrecker made $40,000 by the sale of $1,000,000 worth of wet dry goods in a Western town. After a loss is incurred the insurer is entitled to the salvage. A large portion now accrues to wreckers, some of whom have managed to make fortunes out of the underwriters' losses. It is our duty carefully to guard property and to save what we can in case of fire. Instead of complying with this rule, a condition of insurance, per-

sons too frequently consider fire a favorable opportunity for making money.

Large brokers who, aside from their brokerage business, act as agents of companies located elsewhere, often force these companies to accept for the insurance of desirable customers conditions at which, as brokers, they can in open market place the risks, even where they know rates to be inadequate.* With the enormous increase in values of property brokers have gradually become necessary ; yet a great many of them do not appreciate that the continued prosperity of solvent underwriters is of greater importance to them and to their clients than an abatement of rates which is unwarranted by losses.

A tacit understanding is said to exist between strong companies to keep rates irrespective of losses below cost, with the view of driving small competitors out of business. The hottest fight, however, is going on between some of the strongest, and may continue when weak concerns have ceased to exist. The aggregate assets invested in this country by stock companies amounts to $360,000,000, and they insure property for a hundred times the value of their assets.

To meet these enormous obligations and keep the capital intact requires care in the distribution of risks and discrimination against every hazardous undertaking. When early in the 70s two conflagrations swept over the valuable portions of Chicago and Boston, fully one-half of the insurance capital in the country was consumed. A repetition of disasters of such magnitude has become improbable since we have better fire departments, since fireproof buildings existing in the business portions of large cities act as barriers to the spread of fires, and finally since automatic sprinklers protect a great portion of all valuable property. Strange to say, sprinklers have been objected to by many agents, ostensibly because they would damage goods by water, but really because agents did not want rates on the amounts of which they earned commissions to be curtailed in consequence. The existence of sprinklers has had the effect of materially reducing losses. Their use should be encouraged, especially where goods costing millions are concentrated within a few squares.

Brokers and agents who control a business in which they have no interest but the commission they earn have officers of companies who accept their risks too much at their mercy. These managers in turn do not depend on the result of business, but on fixed salaries. As long as they are sure of these many of them are inclined to gamble in risks with their employers' money, in order to swell the amount of their receipts. In Europe officers receive for services rendered fixed minimal salaries which only permit them to live decently. For their chief income they depend on the profit, of which they receive adequate shares when they make one.

The officers are chosen by directors, who were formerly elected by stockholders because they could influence valuable direct business. Now they often allow their own risks to be placed by brokers whose commission they should on principle endeavor to save for the company. Attention of directors now is chiefly confined to the administration of the company's finances and the care of its assets. As long as the income from these sources exceeds losses and leaves for dividends enough to satisfy them stockholders will not grumble. But if the present conditions continue losses will not alone absorb the income, but ere long encroach on the investments. Directors should take time by the forelock, introduce the European system, and give all important officers, aside from salaries, a pecuniary interest in the success of the business. The result would be that they soon would apply the same methods of remuneration to their agents and brokers.

According to compilations of the *Journal of Commerce*, fire losses amounted in 1899 to $136,773,200, in 1898 to $119,650,500, and in 1897 to $110,319,650. The following explanations, among others, are offered for this increasing waste: Retailers whose business has been injured by department stores and artisans whose occupation has been absorbed by trusts set fire to their establishments. Promoters of unsuccessful new enterprises adopt the same unlawful means to extricate themselves from embarrassment. Finally, it is claimed that prosperous concerns are now so crowded with orders that they cannot exercise the care which is necessary to guard their establishments against danger. There may be some foundation for every one of these assertions, but the chief losses arise from unwise laws and the improper method with which the persons who are employed to manage the business are compensated.

* The Imperial Hotel, on Broadway, New York, has been insured for 15 cents per hundred dollars for five years—a quarter of which pittance went to the broker. Rates for mercantile risks were raised about 25 per cent. on January 10 by the board of underwriters in New York City.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

AMERICAN OPINION ON THE BOER WAR.

THE paper by Mr. Sydney Brooks in the *North American Review* for March, entitled "America and the War," is significant as an Englishman's attempt to interpret the present American sentiment relative to the South African conflict and to gauge the various causes which have operated on that sentiment, as Mr. Brooks frankly says, "to the disadvantage of the British."

Mr. Brooks, who has been in this country continuously since the British-Boer difficulties became acute and who has had unusual opportunities for getting the opinions of representative Americans, sums up the results of his observations in the following paragraphs:

"The educated classes of the United States—the best opinion of the country—take up pretty much the same ground as that occupied by Mr. Bryce and the Liberals. That is to say, they believe that the grievances of the Uitlanders were real and vexatious, and such as the home government was justified in seeking redress for. But they also hold that the time for entering on the question was singularly ill-chosen; that a few years more of patience would have allowed the memories of the Jameson raid to die away and given the reforming party among the Boers a chance to regather strength; and that all the natural forces were on the side of the Uitlanders, not the least of them being the great age of the president and the certainty that his successor would have not one-tenth of his influence.

ENGLAND FUNDAMENTALLY RIGHT, BUT TECHNICALLY WRONG.

"They hold, too, that nothing is to be gained from the war that can outweigh the inevitable alienation of the Dutch colonists and the enormous difficulty of governing the Transvaal and Orange Free State. They are entirely skeptical of the alleged Dutch plot to oust the British from South Africa. They are vigorous and pertinent critics of Mr. Chamberlain's diplomacy in setting to work by means of a semi-public conference, the break-down of which could only add to the ill-feeling on both sides; in making the franchise the chief issue and so neglecting to establish a legal *casus belli;* in raising the irritating and profitless question of suzerainty; in writing ambiguous dispatches just at the moment when the utmost precision was needed; and in adopting throughout the negotiations a tone of 'monocular insolence' highly injurious to the prospects of peace. In other words, they consider the war a gigantic and unnecessary blunder which a more tactful diplomacy would have avoided. But that is the extent of their pro-Boer sympathies. They are under no illusions as to the real character of the Transvaal Government, and while admiring the sturdy courage of the Boers, are very far from wishing to see it prevail. In their view the British, fundamentally in the right, have put themselves, technically, in the wrong. They justify the object aimed at without approving of the means. They wish that a peaceful solution had been found—believe, indeed, that a peaceful solution could have been found—but, war having come, they range themselves unhesitatingly on the side of the higher civilization. They appreciate the fact that the ultimate defeat of the British would entail the loss of the whole of South Africa and with it the beginning of the end of the British empire; and to avoid such a world-wide catastrophe they are constrained, somewhat regretfully, to sacrifice the Boers on the altar of necessity.

SENTIMENT PRO-BOER; REASON PRO-BRITISH.

"Such I believe to be the views generally held, with a few variations here and there, among the most intelligent people of the United States. I cannot help thinking also that they reflect in the main the great body of American opinion. There are some who carry their objections to the war further than others, who denounce it as a 'gold-hunters' conspiracy,' and believe with Mr. Morley that it is simply the culmination of a sordid plot of English and foreign capitalists against the Transvaal and at the expense of Great Britain; and that England has been used as a mere pawn in a game of bulls and bears. There are others, too, who stigmatize it as 'a war of conquest' or 'lust for gold.' But even among these I do not detect any desire for the triumph of Boer arms. I have met very few Americans who believed in Mr. Chamberlain's convenient theory that the war was 'inevitable;' I have met a great many who have denounced it as a crime, and more still who have anathematized it as a blunder; but I have failed to come across any who would not agree to the proposition that it was better for the world at large that England should succeed. The sentiments of Americans may be pro-Boer, but their reason is pro-British."

Mr. Brooks admits the existence of "a clique composed of one or two Senators and a large number of Irish and Dutch Americans, backed

up by a few 'yellow' journals," which supports the Boer cause unreservedly. He denies, however, that this clique represents the real feelings of Americans. At any rate, its efforts to move the administration at Washington from its position of strict neutrality have signally failed. Even our pro-Boer newspapers have generally maintained a temperate tone.

"The Senate, which more than once was given an opportunity of expressing itself with pristine freedom, held its emotions in unwonted check. The State Department declined most significantly to be drawn into any action at which Great Britain could take umbrage, and its attitude was but the official reflection of the people's wishes. One has only to imagine the tornado of invective that would have whirled over the country had the Boer war broken out five years ago to gauge how far America has traveled from the point of view which made the Venezuelan outburst possible."

AFTER THE WAR—WHAT?

SIR ROWLAND BLENNERHASSETT discusses in the *National Review* the relations of Great Britain and the European powers. He indorses Lord Rosebery's fears and presses for a good understanding (based on England's readiness to use force) with Germany. He says:

"We may, I think, take it as a certainty that no combination will be formed against England unless Germany joins it; and it is fairly certain that Germany will not do so if she thinks that England will resist any interference in South Africa by force of arms.

"The situation appears to be as follows: It seems likely that when occasion serves the Afrikander Bond will urge the imperial government to come to terms with the two South African republics by offering to acknowledge their independence as sovereign states on condition they disarm. This suggestion is sure to be accompanied by a menace, more or less veiled, that should it be rejected by her majesty's government the Cape Dutch will renounce their allegiance to the Queen. It is superfluous to point out that the acceptance of such a proposal by England would mean the loss of the whole of South Africa at no distant date."

"Blackwood's" Programme.

Blackwood's Magazine for March opens with a characteristic article on the settlement which is to follow the war. The following is a summary of the writer's recommendations:

"1. The amalgamation of the Dutch republics with the British territory and the division of the whole into several provinces.

"2. Each province to be administered by a governor appointed by the crown, with elective assemblies for legislative purposes. The constitutions of Cape Colony and Natal to be left unchanged, except in so far as it may be necessary to bring their governments under the control of the governor-general.

"3. The appointment of a governor-general, aided by a council, with supreme control over the civil and military affairs of all the provinces, and with powers generally similar to those vested in the 'governor-general in council' in India.

"4. The appointment of a secretary of state for Africa, with a small advisory council, to control South African affairs."

In addition to this the constituencies are to be gerrymandered to insure a British majority. But for the next twenty years the best policy would be to treat the new provinces as crown colonies, and give them afterward a "travesty of party government."

An Engineer's View.

Writing on "The Economic Conquest of Africa" in the *Engineering Magazine* for February, Mr. H. G. Prout takes England's success in the war for granted. He says:

"It is possible that this war was precipitated to prevent such diplomatic entanglements as would have made one or more of the continental powers the ally of the Boers in case of the war. This is the opinion of men expert in world politics; but that phase of the matter is past and that peril no longer stands.

"What will England's terms be? Obviously the Orange Free State and the Dutch republic will cease to exist. Hereafter they can be only British colonies. It seems hardly worth while to go into the ethics of this matter. Whatever may be the right or the wrong of the case, discussion of it is now in vain, except in so far as such discussion may help to build up moral sense among the peoples. The war has come, the outcome of it seems inevitable, and the right and wrong has passed into the list of questions to be considered by historians and moralists.

GENERAL GORDON'S DICTUM.

"In passing, however, I will venture to quote a short paragraph from a manuscript document prepared by Chinese Gordon on the subject of the Egyptian advance into the country at the head of the Nile: 'Whether a nation has the right to advance and annex the states of other peoples is a question solved by us practically. It can be theoretically discussed and decided on as unjust, but it is acted on practically in a different way.' Surely Gordon was a man of a lively

and exacting conscience. But he was also a man of a clear mind and of large observation of human affairs."

The Financial Burden of the War.

In the *Fortnightly Review* Mr. Hugh Chisholm makes some suggestions as to how the war is to be paid for. The greater part of his article deals with the precedent of the Crimean War, but he thinks that precedent should not be followed in the present case. The money ought to be raised by loan, and if additional taxation is needed, it should be obtained by revising the list of taxable commodities, and not by increasing direct taxation. But his conclusion will not be pleasant reading to the magnates of the Rand :

SHOULD THE MINE OWNERS PAY THE BILL?

"There is one special distinction, moreover, to be drawn between the Crimean War and the Boer war, which has an important bearing on these general considerations. It cost us £69,000,000 to gain a very doubtful advantage over Russia; but in the case of the Transvaal, now that war has been forced upon us, its incorporation in the empire is an object materially worth striving for, and one to which we are entitled to look forward to provide us with a real *quid pro quo*. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach spoke last October of the prospect of obtaining an indemnity from the Transvaal, with all its wealth of gold, which would cover the expense to which we were being put. The difficulty of conquering the Boer republics has proved greater since then than any of us expected, but the idea of saddling the Transvaal, under British administration, with a debt covering a war indemnity must not yet be abandoned. It supplies, meanwhile, an additional argument for not paying for the war out of an increase in taxation. The people who will benefit from this war will be the owners of Transvaal gold mines, and incidentally all the inhabitants of the Transvaal, for whom the state will be more economically and more beneficially administered. The 'industry of future generations' or of a single generation in the Transvaal may justly be 'mortgaged' for this object. It is expected that under a reform government a saving of £2,000,000 a year could be made on the existing basis of taxation, which was not oppressive. That saving would cover interest and sinking fund for a debt of £50,000,000. It is obvious that if this is the result aimed at, our business is simply to raise the money by a temporary loan, which can be converted into Transvaal consols, secured on the mining royalties and guaranteed by great Britain. when the time for that final readjustment arrives."

WHAT MIGHT HAVE BEEN IN SOUTH AFRICA.

SIR JOHN ROBINSON, late premier of Natal, continues his South African reminiscences in the March *Cornhill*. He tells the story of the Vortrekkers who were foully massacred in 1838 by Dingaan, the Zulu King, under the Drakensberg. The subsequent defeat of the savage by the Boers led to December 22 being known and kept every year as "Dingaan's Day"—an anniversary of Boer independence.

But the most moving passage in the article is the writer's description of the interment of the relics of the massacred on the scene of the massacre and the founding of the national monument on December 16, 1895.

AN INTERNATIONAL FUNERAL.

He describes the movement carefully fostered by the Dutch pastors "for the solemn burial of these remains and for the erection over them of a suitable commemorative monument."

"In both the republics, as well as in the two colonies, subscriptions were collected, and on the date named the solemn ceremony of interment took place. It lasted three days. Families and visitors from far and near responded to the call. They came in wagons, in carriages, on horses; a few by rail. . . . There were some—a few—among the throng, white-haired and aged, yet hale and keen-minded, who had escaped from the massacre. One old lady bore on her body the scars of the wounds she had suffered from as a child. Among other bearers of names familiar in the annals of the trek was Mr. Pretorius, son of the redoubtable commandant, and at that time a loyal member of the Natal Parliament. Retief had his descendants there. A grandchild of Maritz, the other namesake of Natal's capital, was to have reinterment. General Joubert was present to represent the government of the Transvaal. The government of Natal was represented by the prime minister and two of his colleagues.

"The spot chosen for the monument was about a mile from the railroad station at Chieveley, from whence, on December 15 last, the forces of General Buller vainly, though valiantly, strove to force the passage of the Tugela in the face of impregnable Boer intrenchments. Little recked we then—four years ago—of what history had in store."

It is, indeed, the contrast between the then solemnities of peace and the more recent and grimmer solemnities of war which lends painful emphasis to the writer's words. The tenacity with which the Boers retain the memory of sufferings inflicted by Zulu foes so long ago offers, it may be observed, slight hopes of the speedy

healing of the wounds inflicted by the present war. The writer continues:

"There were depths of suppressed passion in the extemporized prayers uttered over those crumbling bones, and the written sermon was listened to with profound and unbroken attention. It was a powerful appeal for the unity and brotherhood of the Afrikander race, and there may have been in its glowing words a deeper significance than was suspected then.

A FESTIVAL OF BRITISH AND BOER GOOD-WILL.

"Then came the laying of the corner-stone by General Joubert, followed by speeches from himself and others, all breathing unity and good-will. One—delivered by the British spokesman—expressed a hope that in the grave below would lie buried not only the sacred relics that had been deposited there, but the seeds of all the animosities and discords of the past, and that thenceforward peace, and concord, and common interests would bind together the two peoples and fuse them into one race.

"Speeches over and function ended, the visitors returned to the encampment. There, in one of the marquees supplied by government for the occasion, the veteran Pretorius, with his friendly household, entertained the chief guests of the day to a bountiful repast of roast beef and plum pudding, and much kindly talk ensued about things past, present, and to come in Johannesburg and elsewhere. Of what passed then this only may be said now, that there was not in General Joubert's mind the smallest apparent apprehension of any imminent explosion, but there was on his part a very strong persuasion that a policy of reasonable compliance with the demands of the Uitlanders would be the best means of meeting the difficulties of the situation."

THE TRAGIC SEQUEL.

The paper ends with tragedy:

"Just a fortnight later Dr. Jameson, with his band of troopers, crossed the frontier of the Transvaal and marched on Johannesburg! Four years later the bishop of Natal buried the dead on the battlefield of Chieveley, slain by Boer shells and bullets on the day preceding."

LOSSES IN MODERN WARFARE.

COL. F. N. MAUDE, writing in the *Contemporary Review* for March on "Military Training and Modern Weapons," sets himself to correct some of the fallacies and foolish deductions which are current on the subject of the war. The belief that the breech-loading rifle and smokeless powder are the factors which have revolutionized modern war is, he says, a gross error. That modern arms—whether of infantry or of artillery—are immensely superior to those which went before is, of course, obvious; but the consequence of every improvement has been that the cost of victory in killed and wounded has steadily decreased. As to the Boer intrenchments, of which so much has been made, he says:

"Those who speak of the Boer intrenchments as a new idea should study the plans and profiles of this period, which closed with the last years of Prince Eugene about 1740, and note the positive luxury of obstacles with which hostile approach was guarded against. One can then easily understand how assaults, both by night and day, so repeatedly failed to capture them."

The real basis of judgment as to the severity of losses, Colonel Maude points out, is the time in which they were suffered, and not the total amount, and he gives the following table of percentage losses per hour in battles between European combatants:

Names of Battles.	Duration in Hours.	Percentage of Loss per Hour.					
Mollwitz	6	Austrians. 4.0	Prussians. 3.7	Field actions.		Seven Years' War.	Breech-loaders.
Chotusitz	4	Austrians. 5.6	Prussians. 4.3				
Hohenfriedberg	5	Austrians. 4.0	Prussians. 1.5				
Kesselsdorf	2	Saxons.... 17.0	Prussians. 8.4				
Roszbach	1½	French.... 10.6	Prussians. 1.6				
Leuthen	4	Austrians. 7.0	Prussians. 4.8				
Zorndorf	7	Russians.. 6.1	Prussians. 5.5				
Hochkirch	3	Austrians. 5.0	Prussians. 8.0	In these three Prussians assaulted intrenchments.			
Kunersdorf	6	Russians.. 4.4	Prussians. 7.2				
Torgau	5	Austrians. 5.8	Prussians. 6.4				
Jemappes	7	Austrians. 1.0	French.... 0.3			Revolutionary wars.	
Neerwinden	8	Austrians. 0.8	French.... 1.1				
Fleurus	15	Austrians. 0.3	French.... 0.5				
Trebbia	30	Allies..... 0.6	French.... 0.7	Suvaroff in command.			
Austerlitz	4	Austrians. 3.2	French.... 2.6	Napoleonic.			
Jena	6	Prussians. 3.3	French.... 2.2				
Eylau	10	Russians.. 2.7	French.... 2.1				
Borodino	15	Russians.. 2.2	French.... 1.8				
Waterloo	8	Allies..... 2.0	French.... 4.0				
Königgrätz	11	Austrians. 1.0	Prussians. 0.3	Against French imperial army.			
Wörth	8	French.... 2.0	Prussians. 1.5				
Vionville	10	French.... 0.9	Prussians. 2.2				
Gravelotte	9	French.... 0.6	Prussians. 1.1				
Sedan	12	French.... 1.6	Prussians. 0.5				
Beaune la Rolande	8	French.... 0.6	Prussians. 0.25	Against raw troops.			
Orleans	20	French.... 0.16	Prussians. 0.9				
Belfort	36	French.... 0.1	Prussians. 0.16				
Plevna—							
First battle	4	Turks..... 4.5	Russians.. 7.0				
Second battle	10	Turks..... 1.9	Russians.. 2.2				
Third battle	60	Turks..... 2.0	Russians.. 3.0				
Modder River	10	British.... 0.7	Boers..... unknown.			Magazine rifles.	
Magersfontein	10	British.... 0.7	Boers..... unknown.				
Colenso	6	British.... 1.0	Boers..... unknown.				

SOUTH AFRICAN CLIMATE AND CONTOUR.

IN the *Fortnightly Review* for March the Rev. W. Greswell, writing on "Some Aspects of the Boer War," gives some interesting particulars as to the physical characteristics of the South African climate and terrain. He says:

"The rainy season on the west of the Drakensberg and along the central and western provinces of Cape Colony takes place in the winter, exactly the reverse of Natal and the eastern coasts. It is said that the Boers waited for the rains before they made their descent upon Natal, and that their strategy was based upon a climatic consideration. This is probable enough, for the Boers do not carry about hay and forage, as their hardy Cape horses depend upon the grasses of the veldt. But the argument for the invasion of the eastern side does not apply with equal force to the central and western portions of South Africa. There has been the usual short spring round the Modder River, and the veldt gets easily burned up by the sun shining so long from unclouded skies. It is more than probable that the Boer horses in the vicinity of Kimberley have a great and growing difficulty in keeping themselves alive on the veldt."

The impetuous character of the rivers of South Africa is as much artificial as natural:

"In the first place, the forests of yellow wood and sneeze wood and other useful trees have been cut down recklessly, and the sides of the kloofs exposed to the action of the storms, and all the reservoirs of moisture that deep foliaged woods harbor taken away at a blow. Nor has anything been planted for the use of future generations. Again, where large flocks of sheep and Angora goats have been driven backward and forward to their kraals morning and evening, they have made little paths on the sloping terraces of the hillside and literally trampled out the veldt. Every small path becomes a runnel of water, constantly widening and deepening until it makes a deep 'sluit,' or water-hole, under the action of the sudden rains. At the same time this hastens the process of surface draining. Add to this the practice of constantly burning off huge areas of the veldt in order to get the young growth, and it will be seen how the hand of man has helped in the task of denudation. Before civilized man came to South Africa this denudation took place speedily enough. The very look of the South African mountains, with their keen and serrated outlines, which the transparent atmosphere of the veldt does not soften, is a proof of this. The numberless 'kopjes,' or little heads, are a proof also. Centuries of storm have washed down the tall berg into a 'kop,' or 'kopje;' on all sides lie littered about in grand confusion great slabs, huge bowlders, fragments worthy of Stone henge, making avenues of rocky paths very often leading into subterraneous caves and passages. These kopjes are often interspersed with rough and tangled growth, and thus provide an ideal place for ambush and defense. Not even modern artillery seems to have the devastating effect we should imagine against these fortresses."

SIGNALING IN SOUTH AFRICA.

IN *Cassier's* for March Mr. George Ethelbert Walsh, writing on the subject of "War Mechanism in South Africa," describes the various appliances used by the British in the present war for signaling between distant points, and especially from the invested towns to the armies of relief.

It seems that much was hoped, at the beginning of the war, from the Marconi system of wireless telegraphy, but for some reason—possibly because the apparatus did not arrive early enough—little if any use has been made of the system. Some of the substitutes for it, however, have been remarkably successful.

At Kimberley the electric searchlight was employed with great effect. It was placed on a high tower for the purpose of watching the enemy's movements, but after a time it was found entirely practicable to signal with it to friends beyond the Boer lines, the operators using the secret code of the British army by means of dots and dashes of light. Later, as the army of relief approached Kimberley, messages were flashed to it concerning the condition of the garrison. The light was broken into the desired dots and dashes simply by switching the current on and off.

THE WAR BALLOON.

The most important service of the modern war balloon at Ladysmith consisted in directing the fire of the British naval guns and in keeping the garrison informed as to the enemy's movements. The observation balloon was connected with the ground by electric cables and telephone wires, and thus sudden and unexpected attacks by the Boers were prevented. The effect of the British shells was easily ascertained.

The signaling from the balloon has also been a great success, as described by Mr. Walsh:

"The system of electric balloon signaling used was the invention of Eric Stuart Bruce, M.A., but in operation and effect it was very similar to the improvised electrical tower at Kimberley. At the great altitude attained by the balloon, however, the range of signaling was greatly extended. The long and short flashes of light can be seen more than 100 miles in the clear atmos-

phere of South Africa. News from Ladysmith has thus been coming regularly, in spite of the complete encircling of the city by the Boers."

Several observation balloons were taken to South Africa by the British signal balloon corps. These will be used for studying the topography of the country, as well as for observing the enemy and signaling. It would seem that Buller's men profited little from any topographical information derived from balloon or other sources. Perhaps Roberts will do better. The advantage of balloon surveying over other methods employed by army engineers is that the region may be mapped far beyond the line of skirmishers and outposts, instead of merely in their rear.

THE HELIOGRAPH.

Still another signaling apparatus, the heliograph, has proved particularly serviceable in South Africa and has been used in the present



THE USE OF THE HELIOGRAPH IN SOUTH AFRICA.

war by both Boers and British. In the South African campaign of 1883–85 the British established a heliograph line of 429 miles, from the Orange River to Molopole, with 29 stations between the two points. Messages could be sent along the entire line within half an hour, and over 3,000 words were sent in a single day.

"The British army then depended almost entirely upon the heliograph for its communications, as the Boers have done in the present war, and in such a rugged, mountainous country as South Africa it is a most successful method of news transmission. The range of the heliograph is enormous, and in the clear South African atmosphere the distance is greater than in most other countries. In the 1883–85 campaign one of the stations was located 42 miles away from the others, but no difficulty was experienced in communicating between them. The heliograph has not been improved much since that campaign, and it works about the same to-day as it did when it was first adopted. It reflects the rays of the sun by means of a movable mirror on and off a distant station, and by adopting the dot-and-dash method of telegraphing messages are easily transmitted. The success of the apparatus is partly due to its secrecy. The enemy could stand within a short distance of the point toward which the rays were directed and be unable to discover the signaling light. It is this invisibility of the rays over an extended area that makes the 'helio' hold a commanding position to-day when the signaling balloon and electric searchlight are competing in the field."

Mr. Walsh also states that the British army is supplied with modern field telephones of the most approved style, carrier pigeons, and the Marconi telegraph system already mentioned.

THE AMERICAN COMMERCIAL INVASION OF CHINA.

IN the April *McClure's* there is an able article on "The American Invasion of China," by William Barclay Parsons, the chief engineer of the American-China Development Company. Mr. Parsons' report of this industrial phenomenon is based on his personal survey of commercial conditions in the interior of China. He calls the concession signed by the Chinese minister in April, 1898, for a railroad connecting Hankow with Canton, the first step toward this American invasion of China. Hankow is the great metropolis of central China, and Canton is the ancient and natural gateway to the southern half of the empire. The road with its branches is to be 1,000 miles long, the largest and most important industrial project hitherto undertaken in the East.

Mr. Parsons was retained by the syndicate owning this concession as chief engineer, and was sent to China to make a report on the whole question, as well as an actual survey of the proposed route. He traveled 1,100 miles straight into the interior of China, nearly half of which distance traversed a section practically never before visited by a white man. This was the province of Hunan, the closed province, where Chinese exclusiveness reaches the maximum. Mr. Parsons came in contact with the leaders of the European and American movements in America, and his report on the possibilities for Amer-

icans in China takes a much broader ground than that of the mere engineering report. He examines into the facts of American trade since 1873, and finds that not only has the United States shown a steady increase in its commerce with China, but a steady and latterly rapid rise in the rate of increase. Great Britain's trade is, of course, the greatest. A few years ago Japan, India, and the continent of Europe were all ahead of the United States. In the past few years we have passed with rapid strides the European continent, and it seems that in this year we have passed India, too, and that we stand third among the nations of the earth in the size of our Oriental trade. Mr. Parsons says that if the same rate is maintained for two years we will pass Japan and will have Great Britain only as a competitor. This notable enlargement of our Oriental trade has been chiefly due to our selling of cotton cloths, the products of New England and Southern mills, in the Chinese market. In this one item Mr. Parsons reports that with certain grades at least we absolutely dominate the Chinese market. Flour, until recently a very small factor, has shown a great and increasing importance, as wheat is not grown in southern China at all.

As to the future, Mr. Parsons says that our success in the Oriental invasion is dependent absolutely on the maintenance of our existing political status; in other words, if Great Britain can continue to keep the world powers from dismembering China we shall certainly succeed.

THE NATIVE CHINAMAN TO-DAY.

Mr. Parsons gives this picture of Chinese civilization of to-day as he found it in these interior regions, which he, among very few white men, has had an opportunity of observing:

"In thinking of the Chinese, especially those in the interior, we are wont to consider them as uncivilized; and so they are if measured scrupulously by our peculiar standards. But, on the other hand, we are not civilized according to the standards that they have set for themselves, founded on an experience of four thousand years. With all its differences from ourselves, a nation that has used printing for over eight centuries; that has produced the works of art that China has produced; that possesses a literature antedating that of Rome or Athens; and which, to indicate a modern instance, was able to furnish me with a native letter of credit on local banks in unexplored Hunan, can hardly be denied the right to call itself civilized. In the interior—in those parts where no outside influence has ever reached—we found cities whose walls, by their size, their crenelated parapets, and their keeps and watch-towers, suggested mediæval Germany rather than Cathay. Many of the houses are of masonary, with decorated tile roofs and elaborately carved details. The streets are paved with stone. The shops display in their windows articles of every form, of every make. The streams are crossed by arched bridges unsurpassed in their graceful outline and good proportions. The farmer lives in a group of farm buildings inclosed by a compound wall—the whole exceeding in picturesqueness any bit in Normandy or Derbyshire. The rich mandarin dresses himself in summer in brocaded silk and in winter in sable furs. He is waited on by a retinue of well-trained servants, and will invite the stranger to a dinner at night composed of ten or fifteen courses, entertaining him with a courtesy and intricacy of etiquette that Mayfair itself cannot excel. So far, therefore, the civilization of the interior is a real thing. That the Chinaman allows his handsome buildings to fall into disrepair; that his narrow city streets reek with foul odors; that the pig has equal rights with the owner of the pretty farmhouse; and that the *pièce de résistance* at the dinner is sharks' fins instead of terrapin—these are merely differences in details; and if they are faults, as we consider them to be, they will naturally be corrected as soon as the Chinaman, with his quick wit, perceives his errors, when the opportunity to study Occidental standards comes to him following the construction of railroads."

CHINA IS NOT OVER-PEOPLED.

Mr. Parsons says that it is a mistaken notion to think of China as being over-populated, with every square foot of land under cultivation. With the exception of part of the north, there is in every region a great amount of land capable of producing crops and of supporting a population that to-day lies unutilized, and only awaiting the railroad in order that produce may be sent to the sea and on to the foreigner. The mineral resources are not less promising than the agricultural. The coal fields of China exceed those of Europe in quantity, and yet China imported last year more than 700,000 tons of coal. In addition, there are beds of copper, iron, lead, and silver that, to-day untouched, are only awaiting the screech of the locomotive whistle.

OUR PROPER METHODS TO FOSTER CHINESE TRADE.

Mr. Parsons says that we have peculiar advantages in building up a Chinese trade in that the Orientals have no suspicions that we wish to despoil them of their territory, as of course they do have with other nations. He warns our public men that they must not abuse this confidence.

He looks forward to a fierce competition from the other powers, and prophesies that our invasion will meet with a stubborn resistance unless we are well organized.

Most of all, he thinks it necessary to study the tastes and the demands of the Chinese. Their ideas are peculiar. For instance, Mr. Parsons tells of an American firm that got an order for $5,000 worth of screws for China, on the condition that the screws should be wrapped in blue paper, according to the form in which the native merchant had been accustomed to buy them. The American firm cabled back that their goods were wrapped in brown paper and refused to change it. The order then went to Germany, though the American screws were better ones.

"A study must also be made of the grade and quality of the article shipped. It is no use to send to China, to be sold in the interior, tools, for instance, of the same high finish and quality that our mechanics exact in their own. A Chinaman's tools are hand-made, of rough finish and low cost. In the interior cities one sees a tool maker take a piece of steel, draw all the temper, hammer it approximately to the shape of the knife or axe, chisel or razor, or whatever other article he may be about to make; then, with a sort of drawing-knife, pare it down to the exact shape required, retemper it, grind it to an edge, and fix it in a rough wooden handle. This work is done by a man at a wage of about ten cents a day, and this is the competition that our manufacturer must meet. In spite of the difference in cost of labor he can do so, because his tools are machine-made and are better; but he must waste no money on unnecessary finish.

"As an example, the case of lamps is directly to the point. The Chinaman fairly revels in illumination. He hates the dark, and everywhere, even in the smallest country towns wholly removed from foreign influence, it is possible to buy Standard oil or its competitors in the Chinese market, the Russian and Sumatra brands. The importation of illuminating oils is increasing tremendously. In 1892 it was 17,370,600 gallons and in 1898 it was 44,324,344 gallons. But what of the lamps in which this oil is burned? In 1892 the United States sent to China lamps to the value of $10,813 and in 1898 to the value of $4,690. That is to say, lamps are one of the few articles which show a decrease. While the consumption of oil had increased more than two and one-half times, the importation of American lamps had decreased in almost the same ratio. This was not due to the manufacture of lamps in China, but to the German and Japanese manufacturers making a study of the trade and turning out a special article."

OUR CONSULAR SERVICE.

IN the April *Atlantic Monthly* Mr. George F. Parker has a thorough article on "The Consular Service of the United States." He thinks that, considering the incongruous elements in the services of other countries, our service reaches a good average of efficiency, higher than that of most countries, owing largely to the adaptability of the American to new, strange work. This merit in our consular system is in spite of the fact that the many recommendations to consulships of party Senators, Representatives, or managers have no direct reference to fitness, and that perhaps not more than one in seven turns out fairly well.

BILLS BEFORE CONGRESS.

Nor has Congress paid any systematic attention to our consular service. There has been but slight modification of the system since 1856, when there was a certain amount of recasting of the laws relating to it. In the past six years there have been several bills introduced in Congress providing for changes, but all have been thrown out on a point of order. Now the chief ideas in all of these have been embodied in a new bill introduced by Representative Adams. This bill provides for different classes, ranging from consuls-general to consular agents, and including secretaries and *attachés* of embassies and legations in a bill dealing with commercial service. The main features of the various bills which have been incorporated in Mr. Adams' measure are described as follows:

"They provide for appointment to classes, not to individual posts, and the President is given power to promote from lower to higher grades. The fees known as notarial are to be paid to the Government. Consuls-general, of two classes, at salaries of $6,000 and $5,000 respectively; consuls, of two classes, at salaries of $4,000 and $2,500 respectively; and vice-consuls, of three classes, at salaries of $1,800, $1,500, and $1,200 respectively, are provided for, as are consular agents, to be paid by fees. No attempt is made to schedule the places or to define the principle upon which the classification shall be made, while the usual vicious plan of leaving all details to the Department is adopted. The bills do not reduce the number of consulates nor recognize the central control in the Department. Provision is made for admission by examinations so simple that not even the merest spoilsman could be kept out. The President is thus left free to appoint and promote his own partisans out of those who pass—just as he does under the sham system now in operation for certain grades of consuls under the order of September 30, 1895. He is free to

remove incumbents, no period of tenure being fixed. The minimum age for admission is twenty-one years—which, under our laws, seems to be a somewhat useless definition.

"These bills have been introduced without special knowledge or intelligent department assistance, nor are there any indications that public sentiment was or is behind them, and they have produced no alternative suggestions of value. More attention has been given to imitations of other countries than to a careful and comprehensive study of the needs of our own. The method of appointment, being the obvious abuse, one that anybody can see, is the only feature that has proved equally attractive to all these legislators. Something more than this perfunctory work will be necessary before a law can be passed which would change a bad system into a good one."

DEFECTS OF THE SYSTEM.

Mr. Parker examines into the relations of our consuls with the bureaus at Washington, and finds that there is no "well-defined purpose in the management of the consular service, no man of recognized position and ability to spur or to curb it. It is chaos itself. Its organization produces dependence in secretaries and assistants, and generates in bureau officials a deference little short of toadyism. Among men bearing such relations there must be an absence of that confidence and respect which are necessities if a dignified and well-balanced system is to be maintained."

Mr. Parker thinks the immense consular reports which are published with great pomp and circumstance by the Department are little short of ridiculous. He explains the manner of the interrogations and answers to all sorts of questions touching commercial affairs in the countries to which the consuls confine themselves, and says the result is "five or six thousand pages for the most part the essence of nothingness."

DOUBTFUL VALUE OF THE CONSULAR REPORTS.

"During the twenty-two years that this process has been going on, it would be difficult to recall one report of really undoubted economic value. Beyond this, it is doubtful whether there has been a notable one of the second or informing order each year—that is, twenty-two really influential in directing the course of trade. The reason for this is clear. There is no room for this flood of commonplace writing on commercial questions, nor for the fortieth part of it. Even if the consular service had half a hundred President Hadleys, Edward Atkinsons, and Richmond Mayo-Smiths, this would be equally true."

FRENCH AND ENGLISH SUGAR.

THE financial embarrassments of the British West Indies and their relation to the sugar industry are discussed by A. Barthélemy in the *Revue Politique et Parlementaire* for February 10.

It will seem odd to those Americans who are in the habit of saying that "the British empire is the largest and best-governed empire in the world" that M. Barthélemy puts *bad government* in the very forefront of the causes of the difficulties that now beset these British possessions. "The situation of the [English] West Indies," he says, "is again to-day very precarious. Is it due solely to the victory of beet sugar over cane sugar? No. The West Indies have been vexatiously governed; they have been subjected to all sorts of administrative and constitutional experiments of which the clearest result has been to embroil their affairs." He illustrates his opinion by describing briefly the various and complex governments of some of the islands. In short, the islands suffer from a separation of interests and a confusion of systems; they impose their own taxes; they have budgets and—deficits. M. Barthélemy cites the opinion of Sir David Barbour, one of the royal commission of 1897, on the embarrassments of Jamaica. Four causes are mentioned: (1) Too heavy expenses incurred for works of intended public utility; (2) a falling off in the quantity and value of the rum and sugar exported; (3) an imprudent contract for the extension of railroads; (4) loans for works not immediately productive. "There, then, is a colony," says M. Barthélemy, "which does not suffer solely from the crisis of cane sugar. The other islands are doubtless in the same condition. . . . But the crisis of cane sugar is one of the elements of the situation."

BEET ROOT VERSUS CANE.

That the sugar derived from beet root should have got the better of the sugar of cane juice in the world's markets is among the most remarkable of modern commercial changes. The natural advantages were on the side of cane sugar. Raw beet sugar has a disagreeable odor and flavor; raw cane sugar is preferred by some to the refined. And cane juice, which is easily extracted, contains more sugar than beet root. It was not to be expected, then, that in competition cane sugar would be crowded out by beet sugar. M. Barthélemy says "there is nothing perhaps which shows better the genius of man than the victory of beet sugar over its rival." But that is enthusiasm. By gradual improvements the percentage of sugar obtained from beet root has quadrupled. There has been no such gain on

the part of cane sugar. Beet sugar has had the advantage of governmental bounties for exportation, but M. Barthélemy denies that these bounties alone will account for the result. He goes so far as to say of the production of cane sugar that "where the planters have improved their machinery they make no complaint." No doubt the causes are mixed. In the course of the fifteen years following 1882 the price of sugar in England declined one-half. Export bounties alone would not account for that.

Of course a competition that has brought down the price of sugar one-half has reduced in certain regions the production of the less profitable kind. An extreme case of reduction is seen in St. Vincent's exportation. The value of the sugar exported by this West Indian island in 1882 was £113,500. In 1897 it was only £20,000. All the British sugar islands have suffered, but not in an equal degree.

THE BRITISH COMMISSION.

What is England going to do about it? The royal commission referred to above reported that in 1897 more than 60 per cent. of the world's sugar was derived from European beet root, and that consequently the cane sugar industry in the British West Indies had suffered a severe depression. The causes of the depression the commissioners regarded as permanent in so far as they belong to the system of export bounties which certain countries have adopted and which they seem indisposed to give up. The sole remedy would be the abandonment of export bounties by these continental nations. Sir Henry Norman, one of the commissioners, thought, however, that a remedy could be found in the imposition by England of compensative customs duties on bounty sugars. But his two colleagues did not agree with him. They thought it impossible to calculate with sufficient exactness the fall in price resulting from the bounties, and that consequently they could not tell how far it would be necessary to go in a policy of reprisal. But one of the three commissioners, it seems, thought that a policy of reprisal was worth trying. The small but active party that demands "fair trade" would no doubt be glad to use sugar as an entering wedge for the acceptance of their opinions. The head of the Conservative party regards the question as solely one of practicability, and India has decided to oppose sugar bounties with compensative customs duties.

M. Barthélemy therefore believes there is some probability that England will attack sugar bounties and perhaps other impediments to fair trade by retaliation. He does not believe that such a change of policy is near at hand. Until the convenient season she will use, as she has already used, menaces; but in these she has gone so far that by and by it will be necessary to act. And what will France do when confronted by a policy of reprisal? M. Barthélemy's reply is vague, but its spirit is unmistakable. "The opinion of those who say that we know only how to yield to foreign menace may be disregarded. It shows an absolute ignorance of the necessities of the policy and of the spirit which now rule our affairs."

FORTY YEARS OF BRITISH TRADE.

IN the *Contemporary* for March Mr. Michael Mulhall surveys the progress of British trade since 1859. In 1899, for the first time in history, the external commerce of a single nation has exceeded £800,000,000, for British trade in 1899 amounted to £815,000,000. Mr. Mulhall's survey is classified geographically and is little more than a host of figures, but his summary contains the essence of his figures:

"1. The ratio of British trade per inhabitant in 1899 was higher than at any previous date.

"2. The growth of our trade since 1868 has been unequal, imports having risen 72, exports only 50, per cent.

"3. Imports from Germany, France, Holland, and Belgium are increasing with great rapidity, while exports are declining except to Germany.

"4. Spain has doubled her trade with us since 1868. On the other hand, our dealings with Italy have fallen remarkably.

"5. Our relations with the United States have grown three times as much as with our colonies, imports being to exports as 3 to 1.

"6. South America (except Argentina) is slipping away from British and passing into German hands.

"7. In the far East we find our trade with China falling heavily, while it has quadrupled with Japan. It is declining with India and Egypt.

"8. Australia and Canada send us more and more of their products in each decade, but take less of our merchandise than before.

"9. There has been a great increase in our trade with South Africa, while our dealings with British West Indies have diminished.

"10. The balance of trade against Great Britain is £150,000,000 yearly, which is covered by the earnings of our merchant navy and foreign investments.

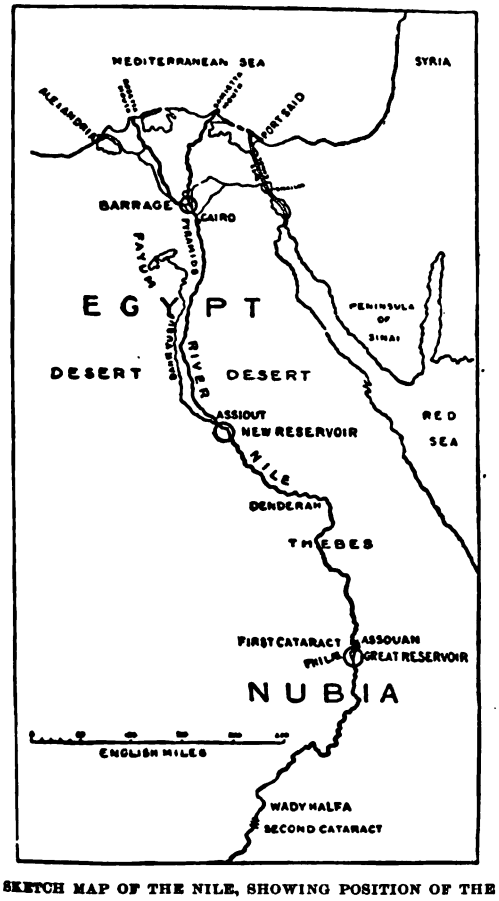
"11. Net imports of bullion in forty years averaged £3,000,000 yearly; £4,500,000 in the decade 1889–98.

"12. The trade of 1899 showed an increase over 1898 of £15,000,000 of imported merchandise and £36,000,000 of exports."

THE CONQUEST OF THE NILE.

IN *Ainslee's* for March Mr. John Ward, F.S.A., describes the remarkable engineering works for the storing of the Nile's waters and the transformation of the Egyptian desert into a fertile agricultural domain.

After the "barrage," or great dam, north of Cairo, where the Nile divides in forming the delta, had been successfully restored as a result of the English occupation of the country in 1883, Lord Cromer and his engineers turned their attention to the storing of the Nile flood for upper Egypt. Willcocks, the expert on irrigation, advocated the building of two great reservoirs



SKETCH MAP OF THE NILE, SHOWING POSITION OF THE THREE RESERVOIRS.

and a system of canals. Mr. John Aird, M.P., an English contractor, offered to do the work, receiving no pay till it should be completed.

"When the Nile reservoirs planned by the great Willcocks were first made known to the world, and it was found that he, although offering six or seven sites for his cyclopean designs, really only highly recommended one, the construction of which would wipe out the island of Philæ, the loveliest spot on the Nile, there was a universal howl of opposition. This got to such a height that Sir W. Garstin and his engineers may have felt a grim kind of relief when they found that the French would allow them no money from the *caisse* to realize their schemes for storing the blessed water, and they had for a time to abandon the whole affair. So when, one fine morning, Mr. John Aird, Sir Benjamin Baker, and their friends unexpectedly called at the office of works in Cairo and offered to make any amount of dams, canals, and locks, wherever they pleased, for no present cash payment, in accepting their wonderful offer the government cut down the level of the great reservoir by nearly one-half. Willcocks wanted to store up 120 feet of water. Sir Benjamin Baker was told to content himself with 20 meters (about 65 feet) of Nile storage.

"And so the artists and the tourists and the general opponents to the drowning of Philæ were appeased, or at least silenced, and the greatest engineering work that the world has ever seen was quietly started, and within a year 20,000 men were employed at Assouan and at the supplemental dam of Assiout.

PHILÆ NEARLY COVERED.

"When the dam is completed and at its high level Philæ will have its temple pylons and a few of the higher ruins standing out of the water, just to mark where its ancient beauties were; but all its loveliness, its verdure, its palms, several of its temples, its storied walls and its Nilometer, its colonnades, its Roman quays, will disappear beneath the waters. An island will be lost, but a continent will be saved! For my part, I would rather they had made Willcocks' cyclopean granite barrier of about 150 feet (where the wall crossed the Bab el Kebir), and that the whole island had been sacrificed. The fragments left will only serve to reopen the sad affair in people's minds. However, we must make the best of it. Even with the 65 feet of water in the reservoir great advantages will be gained for upper Egypt. If we lose Philæ for the tourist and the artist and the archæologist, we will gain millions of acres more for the fellaheen's agriculture, and the revenue from the irrigation it will afford will double the return of annual income to the finances of the government—so much so that if the British were allowed a free hand, this increased revenue could be made in a short time to clear Egypt from debt."

The magnitude of these works has hardly been appreciated by engineers—still less by the general public in Europe and America.



Courtesy of *Ainslie's Magazine.*

BEGINNING WORK ON THE PERMANENT MASONRY OF THE ASSOUAN DAM, IN JUNE, 1899.

(The work was carried on by relays of 12,000 men; at night they worked by electric light.)

THE WORKS AT ASSOUAN.

"The works now in progress a few miles beyond Assouan consist mainly of a vast wall of masonry nearly 2 miles long and averaging 60 feet high, above down stream, pierced by 180 openings, each containing sluices. These will be all of the late F. M. Stoney's patent—a wonderful invention by which a child, by merely pressing a lever, can elevate or depress a huge mass of steel with this enormous pressure of water against it. A roadway will be carried along the top of the great wall, and this and its parapets will form a handsome architectural viaduct. In order to secure a sound foundation for this great dyke of stone work a trench had to be excavated in the granite rock, averaging 100 feet wide and deep, and where 'faults' were found that might let the water escape, these foundations had to go deeper still. All this vast trench was bedded with concreted rubble, and on this substructure the masonry is being raised. Already the Mohammed Ali Channel has been filled up and the water diverted, the Bab el Kebir Channel and others closed, blocked with huge stones torn from the trench and tied together with wire. These temporary 'sudds,' or dams, prepare the way for the permanent wall."

When the writer visited these great works in the spring of 1899 he found that a huge gash had been cut out of the rock in a straight line across the wide valley, while the "cataracts" were being filled up and superfluous stone was being carried toward the western bank for this purpose on railroad trains.

"On the western bank itself the navigation canal was being cut out and another railroad line being laid there, too. The din was worst early in the day, when the blasting was being prepared for, which always took place at noon. Crowds of willing native workers appeared in every direction, directed quietly by the engineers and their intelligent subordinates. The work went on all day and by electric light at night. It had to be stopped at the end of July when the Nile began to rise; but all was left safe for the resuming of the work at the end of October."

THE DAM AT ASSIOUT.

At Assiout the great supplemental dam is also in process of construction as a part of the same contract. The works here are under a talented engineer, Mr. G. H. Stephens, who is described as a born ruler of men.

"He has had 11,000 men working night and day at his great dam and the huge wall and the navigation canal which accompanies it. This may seem, when compared with Assouan, a comparatively small affair, for it has only to 'hold up' ten or twelve feet of water to supply abundantly the great Ibrahimieh Canal, which in its course supplies the ancient Bahr Yusuf, and will thus vastly increase the cultivable land on the margin of the Libyan Desert. But in many ways the Assiout weir is even more remarkable

than a wall of granite founded on a rock. It is built on the bed of the Nile itself. Never once has rock been touched for the foundations. Mr. Willcocks has shown in his saving of the old barrage that a permanent floor could be laid down on the river bed, which, properly constructed, would carry any weight of masonry fit to resist the pressure of any stream above it. This system is practically the one used in the Assiout barrage.

SEVEN THOUSAND FIVE HUNDRED DOLLARS A DAY IN WAGES.

"The Assiout dam is half a mile long and has a navigation lock at the west side. The river has been coffer-dammed in sections, and a masonry and concrete floor (40 feet below level of high Nile) laid down as a foundation, 87 feet wide by 10 feet thick. On this floor the superstructure is built. At both up and down stream sides of this floor cast-iron sheet piles are driven down to a further depth of 13 feet, the joints of which are hermetically sealed by cement grout, so that no percolations can get below the foundations. The barrage has 111 openings of about 16 feet each, which will be supplied with ordinary sluices. The navigation canal lock will be 50 feet wide. This last year (1899) one-fourth of the whole work was done, and the wages paid (during June and July, for instance) were £1,500 per day.

"The outlay at the Assouan dam was even greater, so that immense sums are spent among the natives of the country which the works are intended to benefit permanently. All the work done at both reservoirs was left safely above the highest water level till next season, and at Assiout no more coffer-dams will be needed There were 11,500 men employed at Assiout (and 8,500 at Assouan), when the work had to be stopped for the rising of the Nile. The walls at both places are of stone and cement. The blocks of stone were frequently so warm, owing to the fierce sunshine, that the men's hands were blistered in lifting them, and the heat of the place in June was 160° in the shade. But all has gone on with scarcely an accident. There were a dozen cases of sunstroke, but only a very few deaths. It was remarked that those who drank too much liquid of any kind were most liable to it."

The total cost of both reservoirs is estimated at $25,000,000. This will be met by an annual payment, after the completion of the work, of $833,330 for thirty years. It is expected that the increased revenue from the extra water supply will bring in $2,000,000 a year to the Egyptian Government.



KING LEOPOLD II. OF BELGIUM.

PROGRESS OF THE CONGO FREE STATE.

IN the *International* (Chicago) for March Mr. Harry Tuck Sherman writes enthusiastically of Belgium's great enterprise in central Africa. To the unflagging interest and liberality of Leopold II., King of Belgium and sovereign of the Congo Free State, is largely due the opening of this vast region to commerce and civilization within the past quarter century.

The Congo boasts a railroad about 350 miles long which connects the navigable portions of the Congo River, running from Matadi, a port for ocean steamers, to Stanley Pool, which is brought within eighteen days' journey from Antwerp, the world's market for Congo products.

The Free State covers an area of 800,000 square miles, or nearly four times that of France. Lying on the equator, it extends five degrees from the equator at its most northern extremity and fourteen degrees south.

COMMERCE IN THE CONGO.

"The future of the Congo Free State is brilliant in the extreme. Commercial enterprises are succeeding beyond all expectation, and Belgian capital is bearing enormous interest out yonder. Ivory and India rubber are inexhaustible, and the field for the production and exportation of the finest of all tropical produce is unlimited. Europe is now awakening to the fact that central Africa is the commercial paradise of

the future, and the Belgians who have got such a firm hold in the new country are profiting now by their foresight and enterprise."

CIVILIZATION.

"The schools that have been established all over the country are meeting with success, and the young Congolese who are being taught by the missionaries learn with ease and rapidity. Many have gone to Belgium, where they follow various callings. They speak French well and seem to be capable of a high education.

"From every standpoint it may be justly said that the Belgians have worked marvels in the colonization and civilization of central Africa. King Leopold, whose life-work it has been, is now gathering the fruits of his labors, and his subjects are profiting by that vast territory whose riches are a source of steadily increasing profit to those Belgians who have risked their capital there. The industry of Belgium has found a new outlet, the home markets have become animated by the steady influx of the Congo's tropical products, and before many years we may safely count upon the Congo Free State as the wealthiest and most prosperous of all tropical countries."

A NEW DANGER FOR NORTHERN AFRICA.

IN a most interesting and most alarming article in the *Nineteenth Century* for March Mr. T. R. Threlfall forecasts the coming of "Senussi and His Threatened Holy War." It is indeed the coming of a new Mahdi, no longer merely predatory and conquering, but one endowed with all the moral and intellectual forces which form the basis of a triumphing spiritual movement, a movement which may shake the Mohammedan states, not only of Africa, but even of Asia, to their uttermost foundations.

SENUSSI AND HIS GOSPEL.

Senussi, indeed, has already come. It is only the annunciation of the prophet which we now await. Mohammed-es-Senussi is the son of an Algerian lawyer, himself a holy man, who before he died in 1859 declared his son to be the true Mahdi, and announced a gospel which was to reform the old Mohammedanism and set up another in its place. Where Senussism has taken root it has invariably been followed by better government and reform in private life. The emissaries of the new faith reside in every port of the Mediterranean and even possibly in the chief European capitals. They uphold morality, cultivate hospitality, demand obedience, and employ women as their agents, though refusing them admission to their order. The present prophet and Mahdi, Sidi Senussi, is now fifty-five years of age, and has only once been seen by a European, the late Herr Nachtigal, who regarded him as immensely superior to the Dongalee Mahdi. During his long residence at Jerabub he taught 2,000 students in the great convent with the object of becoming missionaries of his faith. He had an armory and arsenal and immense numbers of camels.

A few years ago he removed to the town of Joffo, in Kufra Oasis, 500 miles from the Nile and still further from the Mediterranean, where he teaches his disciples and perfects his armaments undisturbed:

"Satisfying in every respect the Mohammedan conception of the true Mahdi (for not only is he stated to be directly descended from the great Mohammed's favorite wife, but he has one arm longer than another, as well as blue eyes and the infallible mark between his shoulders), it is not surprising that he possesses a remarkable fascination for the imaginative and credulous races of north Africa. His colonies are found in Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco. His great secret brotherhood extends over the mysterious oases which dot the Great Sahara, embraces the strange tribes of the Tibesti highlands, controls the robber Tuaracks, and takes in the great states of Wadai, Borku, and Bagharmi, as well as the numberless tribes occupying the rich lands to the north of Lake Chad, and can even be found in Somaliland on the east and Senegambia on the west. Nor is this all. Mohammedanism is making marvelous progress in the interior of Africa. It is crushing paganism out. Against it the Christian propaganda is a myth. And wherever Mohammedanism goes there goes the Senussi brotherhood. It is a beacon on the top of a hill waiting for the master hand to apply the spark. It is obviously difficult to give an approximate idea of the number of Senussi's affiliated members, inasmuch as that is alone known to the Mahdi and his lieutenants. In 1883 M. Duveyrier estimated them at 3,000,000; but since then the movement has grown enormously, so that there are now probably 9,000,000. This, however, only represents a fraction of the force which will be available when Senussi proclaims the Jehad. As those connected with powerful organizations well know, the moral force of the associated members often represents more than treble the total membership."

STATESMAN NOW—FUTURE CONQUEROR.

Sidi Senussi has given more than one indication of statesmanship. He has freed large numbers of slaves and educated them, with the result that

every slave becomes an active propagandist, and the whole of Wadai has come under his influence. He possesses many of the qualifications of a great leader; and nothing is so certain as that when he gives the word he will set Africa—and it may be Arabia, if not India—in a flame. The time, Mr. Threlfall thinks, has now come, and he regards the revolt of the Soudanese troops at Omdurman as the first signal of the coming storm:

"Failing a war between France and England, it is obvious that the most favorable time for Senussi to act would be when one of the two powers named is embarrassed by a great war, and when it would consequently be unable to put an effective force in the field against him. That favorable moment has at last come. Never since the Crimean War has England been in such a perilous plight. With a war in South Africa on our hands, the extent and duration of which no man can foresee; devoid of an available army if complications arise elsewhere; with weakened garrisons in India to control millions of Mohammedans; with a hostile Europe encouraging our enemies; with African barbarism sitting on the fence and ready to hurl itself upon us at the signs of assured defeat; and, most serious danger of all, with a government in power which appears to be incapable of appreciating the gravity of the situation and shrinks from adopting those means by which alone the empire can be safeguarded—surely Senussi could not wish for a more opportune moment to launch his thunderbolt."

THE DERVISHES OF THE FUTURE.

Senussi is well aware of all this. In Algeria, Morocco, Egypt, in Tunis, and in Europe his secret agents act as so many eyes and ears with which he sees and hears what is passing among civilized people. There is even reason to believe that his followers have acquired from the black races of Africa the secret of brain telegraphy by which they send messages over vast distances and had information concerning recent battles in South Africa immediately after they took place:

"As a fighting element Senussi's followers will be infinitely superior to the wild and ill-armed tribesmen our troops encountered at Abu Klea, Metammah, and Omdurman. Many of them will possess the improved weapons which have been accumulating for years at Jerabub and Joffo. As to their possession of artillery nothing is known, but their remarkable mobility, their wonderful powers of endurance, their marvelous knowledge of this great inhospitable region, coupled with the fact that they can always retreat into the desert whither civilized troops cannot follow, are advantages of which they are thoroughly cognizant. If we multiply by a hundredfold the long, exhausting, and costly conquest of Algeria by the French, we may obtain some idea of what a holy war proclaimed by Senussi will mean."

THE NATIVE TERROR.

Behind these fighting visionaries looms the greater danger still of the vast multitude of African Mohammedans, and even of pagans, who, under the stimulus of a great idea, might be tempted to take up arms against the tyrannical white men. It is a great mistake to suppose that the natives of Africa have no ideals and no patriotism:

"Save in a very few of the most degraded communities, which do not count in the making of nations, the African looks beyond his hut, his dinner, his wives, his warlike pastimes, and his personal adornment. Regarding himself as equal, if not superior, to the white man, he instinctively resents the manner in which the latter has seized vast tracts of his native land, has forcibly despoiled so many of his brethren of their weapons and made them in effect slaves. Is it surprising, therefore, that the common instinct of the African has become alarmed, and that even the most debased of them long for the hour and the man when they will be able to crush the hated whites who have so arrogantly seized their continent? Had the conquerors been of the same race and color they might have taken their subjection as a matter of course; but for an alien race and color to hold them in bondage was a state of things against which their warlike instincts rebelled. Before the common danger of the white invasion tribal differences vanish, ancient hatreds are suppressed, and geographical boundaries are obliterated."

THE "YOUNG TURKISH" PARTY.

"A DIPLOMAT," writing in *L'Humanité Nouvelle*, of Paris, declares that the rule of the Sultan is universally detested in Turkey—that it is as odious to Mussulmans as to Christians, not only because all are alike oppressed and ill-treated, but also because the very existence of the nation is compromised.

The famous scheme of reforms in the Turkish Government proposed by the ambassadors of the great powers was futile in that it failed to provide a real check on the absolute power of the Sultan.

The "Young Turkish" party, says this writer, regards the autocratic government of the Sultan as the greatest enemy of the country, and believes that no solid and honest government

can be established in Turkey, except by making the ministry directly responsible to a chamber of deputies.

"It may perhaps be objected that Turkey is not yet prepared for a constitutional government. But what are the reasons which justify such an affirmation? Were the Balkan States, at the moment of their transformation into independent principalities, superior in point of view of education and culture to their Turkish neighbors? And yet a constitutional government has succeeded admirably with them, and they still prosper under this system.

"The Turks, with their calm and grave character, are especially adapted to a constitutional system, and we are convinced that a Turkish chamber would conduct itself with more dignity and less disorder than the majority of European parliaments. Nor is the Mussulman religion in the slightest degree contrary to the parliamentary system, for Mohammed declares: 'Error is preferable to truth, if this error is the result of discussion in the council and this truth the arbitrary opinion of an individual.'"

A PLEA FOR RELIGIOUS TOLERANCE.

The present Sultan's policy of exciting Mussulman fanaticism against the Christian population is opposed by the "Young Turkish" party, "not only for humanitarian reasons, but because such a policy is fatal to the true interests of the country."

The party declares that no power can long exist by force of arms alone, and that the only means of assuring internal peace and avoiding foreign complications is to establish between the different faiths a cordial and permanent *entente*.

Therefore the "Young Turkish" party demands the admission of Christians (upon a proportional basis) into the army, the navy, and all the civil departments, the judiciary and the department of public instruction, both in the capital and in the provinces.

In conclusion, "A Diplomat" makes this appeal to the powers of Europe for Turkish home rule:

"If the preservation of the Ottoman empire as an integral part of the political system of Europe is desirable for considerations of European interest, we affirm that the shortest and the only means for attaining this result is to support the reformist party. We Orientals do not know how to execute reforms directly dictated by Europe. If ever Turkey is to enter the path of progress and civilization, if she is to recover sufficient force to arrest a dismemberment so perilous for the general peace, this will only be accomplished through the 'Young Turkish' party."

OUR MOHAMMEDAN WARDS.

IN the March *Forum* Mr. Henry O. Dwight, who has had much experience in dealing with the Mohammedan subjects of the Turkish Sultan, points out some of the difficulties that the United States is liable to encounter in its relations with the Sultan of Sulu and his followers, who are now, in common with the Christian Filipinos, the subjects of Uncle Sam.

These Mohammedans were at war with the Spaniards (whom they naturally regarded as representative Christians) for three hundred years. We now take the Spaniards' place, inheriting from Spain sovereignty over the Sulu Islands and over Mohammedan tribes in several other islands. We desire and expect peace with our new wards, and yet Mr. Dwight shows that there are obstacles to easy relations of mutual confidence with these people which we must be prepared to meet and overcome. He says:

"Mohammedans differ from the rest of mankind even in regions inhabited by wild tribes alone. A long and somewhat intimate acquaintance has given me admiration and respect for many Mohammedans as friends. Many of their finest qualities may be traced to the teachings of their religion. But dealings with Mohammedans sooner or later bring one into contact with their essential peculiarity. They cannot avoid regarding others from a religious standpoint, and they cannot set aside permanently the fact that God has commanded them to subjugate or exterminate all who refuse to believe in Mohammed. This divine command shapes their conduct toward aliens, even when they themselves would like to forget it. It classes all of alien faith as blasphemers, and this fact once being fixed, inquiry as to minor detail is needless in their eyes. A blasphemer (kiafir or giaour) is a blasphemer. Wherefore ask whether he be American or Spaniard? It leads also to endless confusion in the use of words of ethical importance. Not only does 'peace' mean something different to the Mussulman from what it means to the other party to a reconciliation, as will be seen below, but such words as 'honesty,' 'kindness,' 'pity,' and 'piety' do not, in the mind of the Mohammedan, have the sense which the Christian gives them."

LAW CONCERNING TREATMENT OF ALIENS.

Mr. Dwight says that the full importance of this curious trait can only be gauged by gaining the Mohammedan point of view as found in the compends of the holy law now in use in Mohammedan countries. He quotes several passages from these compends which seem to make clear the obligation resting on every Mohammedan to

regard and treat non-Mohammedans as enemies. Yet absolute power is confided to the leader or ruler to decide when policy requires war to cease.

In this connection it is interesting, if not quite agreeable to our national sense of self-complacency, to note that Mohammedan casuists regard the subsidy paid by our Government to the Sultan of Sulu as tribute paid for the sake of peace.

The law minutely regulates all possible relations of Mohammedans to aliens at home, or residing by permission in Moslem lands, or subject as tribute-payers to Mussulman authority.

"Throughout its cold logical reasoning or its illustrative digressions, it fortifies every conclusion by quoting the word of God in the Koran, or the comments or practices of the Prophet, and the consensus of expert commentators of old. The principle that the non-Mohammedan is an enemy, to be subjugated or killed for the glory of God at the earliest convenient moment, is the axiom of faith which underlies the whole chapter. This axiom is held in abeyance wherever policy requires it, as at present in Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Morocco, Algiers, and Afghanistan. But it must not be forgotten that whereas in a Christian country a long-continued peace gives grounds for the fostering of sincere friendship, in the Mohammedan nation which is party to such a peace the fact that the non-Mohammedan is an enemy is never suffered to drop out of mind."

A striking confirmation of Mr. Dwight's analysis of this trait of Mohammedan character is furnished by Mr. Charles Johnston in his thrilling tale of an uprising against Russian rule in the *Contemporary* for March.

OUR POLICY WITH THE MOROS.

Mr. Dwight believes that peace between our Government and the Moros can be maintained by following in the main the English model of policy toward Moslem tribes, the theory being clearly to show that peace is in the interest of the Mohammedans.

"The officers in contact with the Moros should study the Mohammedan law of conduct toward aliens, so that they may know the meaning of and the remedy for difficulties which arise. Following the precept of the holy law itself, they should see to it that modern arms and ammunition are not sold to the Moros. The Sultan should be warned that raids by any tribe will be punished by pitiless reprisals upon the district of their origin, but without detriment to friendly relations with himself and without harm to Mohammedans of other districts. The threat should be made good by irresistible punitive expeditions swiftly following the offense.

"The subsidy to the Sultan and his officers should be maintained. It may be unpleasant to learn that his ignorant people regard the subsidy as tribute paid to Islam by the blasphemers of America. But a few thousand dollars paid to leading Moros is the cheapest means of insuring correct judgment on their part of the true direction of Mohammedan interests. Our own naval and military forces should be much larger than would suffice elsewhere, and at all points selected for permanent posts in Moro districts they should be very much in evidence and very wide awake to methods of defense against sudden attack. In a word, the success of this policy depends largely upon following the principle of a quaint Mohammedan proverb: 'See that the post is strong to which your donkey is tied, and then go in peace, trusting in God for his safety.'"

Mr. Dwight would adopt as an axiom that our control of the Moros at present shall extend no further than control of their relations with others Such control would involve the ending of slave raids, which, according to Mohammedan law, belong to a state of war alone, but in Mr. Dwight's opinion it would be unwise to attempt the abolition of slavery or any other reform of their domestic institutions until the relations of the Moros with their non-Mohammedan neighbors are completely under control. (Some of the complexities of the slavery question were shown in the article by Professor Macdonald in the March REVIEW.)

THE WAY OUT.

Notwithstanding his gloomy revelations of the Mohammedan attitude toward the alien, Mr. Dwight is convinced that the Mohammedan is a reasonable being, that he is not psychologically different from other men, and that he is of like capacity with other men for the finer feelings. He says:

"Leaving out of the question the constitutionally predatory class whose representatives are found in every nation, and without detailing illustrations which prove the fact, it may be asserted that when a Mohammedan discovers in a non-Mohammedan friend a true man, sober, temperate, pure in morality, and just and chivalrous in the treatment of others, he is astounded beyond measure. But he at once concludes that his holy law is not intended to govern his relations with men of such angelic temperament. He therefore tends to become a sincere and trusty friend.

"The fact that Mohammedans can be moved in any degree by contact with high, manly qualities is the one fact which relieves the dismal prospect opened up by a study of the existing ground-work for our future dealings with the

Moros. It should be utilized to the utmost. Officials who are to come in contact with these people should be carefully selected men, with definite instructions to study Mohammedan prejudices. All their acts should aim to conquer aversion deeply rooted in such prejudices. They should be scrupulous in personal habits and careful in consideration for the rights of the Moros as men. Such small things should be borne in mind as the religious duty of Mohammedans to resent the most trivial attentions to their women, their religious hatred for hogs and those who have to do with swine, and their religious admiration for men who do not drink liquor. Scope should be prepared for such potent influence as could be exerted by the surgeon of a military post who would treat on certain fixed days patients from outside the lines. For there is hardly a limit to the gratitude of a Mohammedan who has been healed or has seen his children healed by the skill of a first-class physician."

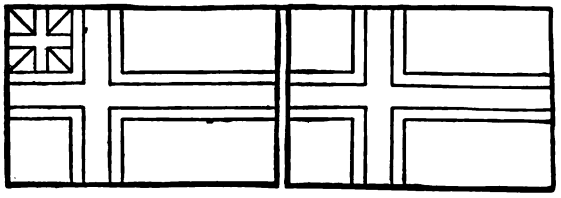
THE NORWEGIAN FLAG.

ON December 15, 1899, a new national merchant flag was unfurled on every Norwegian ship, whether in home or foreign port. In an historical survey of the relations of Sweden and Norway contributed to the *Conservative Review* (Washington) by Mr. Leonhard Stejneger there is an interesting account of the political events which led to the legalization of this flag by the Norwegian Storthing.

Although it has very generally been assumed that the union of Norway and Sweden in 1814 required the use of a union flag, there is nothing to justify such an assumption so far as the merchant flag is concerned. On the contrary, the constitution distinctly provides (Article CXI.) that "Norway shall be entitled to have its own merchant flag. Its naval ensign shall be a union flag." The latter provision seems to indicate that the merchant flag is *not* to be a union flag, and for the first thirty years of the union this distinction was recognized, as Mr. Stejneger shows.

THE FLAG OF 1821.

"From 1814 to 1821 the merchant flag of Norway remained unchanged the same as the flag adopted during the short reign of Christian Frederick—viz.: red with a white cross and the Norwegian coat of arms, the golden lion with the battleaxe in the upper proximal corner; but it was found to be too much like the Danish flag for practical purposes. The Storthing of 1821 took up the question and *unanimously* passed a bill defining the merchant flag as red divided by a white-bordered blue cross. But, unfortunately, this Storthing, as will be remembered, was having a hard fight with King Charles XIV., during which it passed the law abolishing the nobility a third time over the royal veto. The King was furious and refused to approve the flag bill; but after having thus shown his temper and power, in less than two months he established the identical flag by a royal decree which was considered and signed in the ordinary Norwegian cabinet council. This flag—the tri-colored cross banner—without any additional emblems or colors, and without anything to indicate a union with Sweden, consequently fulfilling the demand of the constitution, thus became the legal merchant flag, with the restriction, however, that it should not be used in the Mediterranean Sea, on account of the Barbary corsairs, to whom Norway did not pay the usual tribute necessary to avoid depredations. In view of the arguments used during the recent flag dispute, it is interesting to note that seven years after the establishment of the union neither the people nor the King considered the union to be of such a nature as to require expression in the merchant flag."



THE OLD AND THE NEW FLAG OF NORWAY.

THE "UNION" FLAG.

One of the first acts of King Oscar I., who succeeded his father, Charles XIV., was a royal decree, of June 20, 1844, by which the union ensign received its present form—viz.: the national flag with a union jack, composed of the Norwegian and Swedish colors in equal proportions, occupying the upper proximate quadrate. In the same decree the merchant flag was likewise provided with the union jack.

"It thus became a union flag contrary to the provision of the constitution, and it was also noted with disapproval that although the merchant flag undeniably is a purely domestic Norwegian affair, the decree which changed its appearance was passed in a 'joint' Swedish-Norwegian council of state. The new union flag was consequently both illegal and unconstitutional. But as a matter of fact the decree only made the use of the union flag optional and did not abolish the old tri-colored flag of 1821, which thus remained the fully legal and constitutional flag."

THE FLAG QUESTION IN PARTY POLITICS.

In the conflict over the establishment of a separate Norwegian consular service the old unmarked tri-color of Norway, "the pure flag," as it was called, became the banner around which the Liberals of the national party rallied, while the union jack was the standard of those Norwegian politicians who had leanings toward Sweden and desired "union at any price."

As the progressives thought that so important a matter as the national flag should be a subject of legislation and no longer left to the royal caprice, an effort was made in 1893 to legalize the flag of 1821. A bill to this effect was passed by the Storthing and vetoed by the King. The same bill was passed again in 1896 and again failed to receive the King's signature.

After a general election which resulted favorably for the Liberals the bill came before the Storthing for the third and last time. On November 17, 1898, it was passed and became a law, under the constitution, without the King's sanction. The law was promulgated in the name of the Storthing on December 15, 1898, the change in the flag to take place one year from that date.

"But all trouble was not over yet. Foreign governments would have to be notified of the passage of the law, and as matters are arranged at present, such notification can only be made through the Swedish minister of foreign affairs. The same papers that wanted the King to violate his oath in order to prevent the passage of the law now urged the Swedish Foreign Office to refuse to undertake the notification. The Swedish minister of foreign affairs himself, Count Douglas, was in sympathy with these demands, and affairs looked very threatening for awhile. Better counsel prevailed, however, due to the firm stand of the Norwegian people and partly also, perhaps, because the Swedish elections which were then going on, and during which the question had been violently agitated, showed bigger gains for the Liberals than the administration had counted on. As a result, Count Douglas resigned from the cabinet and a temporary minister of foreign affairs undertook to notify the foreign governments. On December 15 last the old legal tri-color thus superseded the union-marked flag which for fifty-five years had usurped the place at the mast-heads of the merchant ships and on the custom-houses and post-offices of Norway.

"The dignified and determined attitude of the Norwegian people during the crisis was undoubtedly the main factor in calling down the fanatics who were playing fast and loose with the crowns of two kingdoms."

RACE AND RELIGION IN SWISS REFERENDUM VOTINGS.

IN the *Coming Age* for March Mr. Eltweed Pomeroy makes an interesting exhibit of the results of certain referendum votings in Switzerland, with a view to studying the effects of racial and religious differences between the populations of the several cantons. Mr. Pomeroy's article is accompanied by two tables—each too elaborate for reproduction here—which divide the cantons according to race and language and according to religion, respectively, showing the percentage voting "yes" and the percentage not voting in each canton.

Mr. Pomeroy adopts De Ploige's classification, which puts down 14 of the cantons as German, 1 as German-French, 5 as French, and 2 as Italian. From his study of the statistics of nine referendum votings, the first of which was taken on the adoption of the Swiss constitution, in 1848, and the last on the unification of the civil and military code, in 1898, Mr. Pomeroy concludes:

"1. That the cantons do not all vote one way according to race and language. Thus in the June 3, 1894, voting the percentage of those voting 'yes' in the German cantons ranges from 6.9 per cent. to 36.9 per cent. and in the French cantons from 6 per cent. to 37.4 per cent.; while in the last voting the percentage of those voting 'yes' in the German cantons ranges from 13.6 per cent. to 96.4 per cent. and in the French cantons from 34.2 per cent. to 83.3 per cent. The distinction of race and language is blotted out in the referendum votings.

"2. There is no uniformity in the tendency to vote 'yes' or the tendency to vote 'no' in either the German, French, or Italian cantons. Thus in the first voting the German cantons cast a little larger percentage of affirmative votes than the French; in the second voting this is reversed, and so on. Those who vote apparently vote independently of any race aptitude to negative or affirmative action. This is particularly shown by the seven votings on one date in 1866, when, while in some cases the percentages approach uniformity, in others we find such wide variations as 6.8 per cent. and 70 per cent., 3.3 per cent. and 47.8 per cent., 31.1 per cent. and 78.9 per cent. in the same canton.

"3. The percentage of those not voting shows that the Germans pay less attention to voting than the French, and the Italians are usually a little more interested than either. The German-French canton of Vaud once or twice shows a larger percentage voting than the French or Italian cantons, and once it shows less than any of the other general averages.

"4. The mountain cantons of Uri, Schwyz, Obwalden, and Nidwalden show very high percentages of citizens voting. These cantons have and have had for generations the *Landsgemeinde*, or most direct form of direct legislation."

RELIGIOUS DIVISIONS.

Of the 22 cantons 9½ are Catholic, 5½ are Protestant, 3 are equally divided, and 4 have a Protestant majority. After rearranging the statistics of the nine referendum votings to make them correspond with the religious, rather than the racial, division of the cantons, Mr. Pomeroy draws the following conclusions:

"1. That the cantons do not vote alike according to religion. Thus in the June 3, 1894, voting the percentage of those voting 'yes' in the Catholic cantons ranges from 6 per cent. to 36.9 per cent. and in the Protestant cantons from 8.8 per cent. to 26.2 per cent. There are just as wide differences between Catholic as between Protestant cantons in the percentage of those voting 'yes.'

"2. The general average of those voting 'yes' does not show any progression or regression from the Catholic to Protestant cantons, but is mixed up. The people do not vote according to religion.

"3. There are as great differences in the percentage of those who do not vote in the Catholic cantons as in the Protestant cantons. Religion does not apparently influence them to stay at home or to vote, or else it influences them equally.

"4. In the general average of the stay-at-homes there is no general progression or regression from Catholic to Protestant cantons."

It seems, therefore, that religious and race prejudices play an insignificant part in determining Swiss policy. In Mr. Pomeroy's opinion the disappearance of these factors is largely due to the operation of the referendum itself, which serves to concentrate the attention of the voters on the common good.

THE ITALIAN FUTURE IN AMERICA.

UNDER the significant title "Our Future in America," Consul Gino Macchioro (recently Italian vice-consul at Buenos Ayres, Argentine Republic, now vice-consul at Salonica, Turkey) explains in *Nuova Antologia* for January 16 what he believes to be the best way of fostering in America Italian race-feeling and solidarity. The careful collation of his facts and the systematic development of his opinions show that the writer's interest in the subject is not a mere temporary ebullition of patriotic sentiment. The article is a well-considered exposition of policy.

ITALIAN CITIZENSHIP.

After considering and commenting on the methods advised by other writers for fostering "Italianity" in America, Consul Macchioro sets forth the system which he believes would be the most practicable and effective. First of all, as something which could be done at once, all the laws, especially the military laws, which deter sons of Italian emigrants from coming to Italy for a long stay should be modified so that there may be no barriers of that kind between the "colonists" and the mother country. Article IV. of the Italian civil code makes the son of an Italian citizen also a citizen, no matter where he is born. Hence he is subject to Italian military service. As most of the nations of North and South America have conferred citizenship on everybody born within their limits, it happens that there are many Italians on this continent who have a double citizenship and double duties. The attitude of the United States in regard to all such claims by foreign powers, even in the case of naturalized citizens, is well known, and no doubt the other states of this continent assert a similar independence; but travelers do not like to be made the subjects of official controversy, and the fear of annoyance in one way or another prevents many of them from visiting the ancestral home. Laws have been proposed by the Italian Government for smoothing away such hindrances, but a distinct solution of the difficulty has not yet been reached. "What is important is," says Consul Macchioro, "that in some way or other the reform may be accomplished, and that there may be removed every obstacle to the return of the sons of our emigrants to the fatherland." Many of them, he thinks, would then pursue their higher studies in Italy instead of going to the universities and technical schools of other nations.

ITALIAN SUBSIDIES FOR AMERICAN CONSUMPTION.

But the main thing to be kept in mind, according to Consul Macchioro, is how Italianity may be fostered in America itself, and as to this his mind is clear and the method which he proposes is simple and direct:

"That which is especially necessary is to bind with stronger bonds Italy and her colonies, and to attain this purpose the means are so many and diverse that they escape classification. It can be said, however, that the school is the most important of all, and that it is our business to use also abroad what a minister has called, in a happy phrase, a good scholastic policy."

It should be noted that here and everywhere in this article, as the context shows, Consul Mac

chioro means by "her colonies" Italian groups resident in America.

There are three kinds of Italian schools maintained abroad—governmental, colonial, and confessional. The governmental are those which are maintained by the Italian Government, but it is unnecessary to speak of the governmental schools here, because Consul Macchioro says that their sphere is limited to the Levant. The Italian confessional schools in America are few, especially in the United States. It is the "colonial schools"—the schools instituted by groups of Italian residents—which the consul regards as important. These he divides into two kinds: *those subsidized by the Italian Government* and those not subsidized. Consul Macchioro says the subsidies are small and that the expenses of the schools are mostly borne by the Italian colonists. He specifies the number of such schools and the countries where they are. It would seem that the United States has not been regarded as the best field for schools subsidized by the Italian Government. Here is the consul's list: Brazil, 50; Argentina, 22; United States, 4; Uruguay, 3; Chile, 2; Peru, 2; Paraguay, 1. Probably the reason why so few of the Italian schools in the United States are subsidized is that the Italian future in the United States is less promising than in South America. The Italian Government spends its money where it will do the most good. But the specific policy recommended by Consul Macchioro is the extension of subsidies. Italianity in America is to be fostered by using subsidies for starting new schools wherever needed. The subsidy is to be a nucleus for attracting private interest and liberality. In the consul's opinion, the numerous Italian societies—especially the mutual aid societies—are the best agents for using government subsidies in starting schools:

"The colonial schools supported by the societies and subsidized by the government are not numerous enough, but it is undeniable that they have given the best results. . . . In America the Italian societies are very numerous and animated by the best sentiments."

STRENGTH OF THE ITALIAN SOCIETIES.

The plan, then, which the consul advises is the very one which the Italian Government is following, only the consul urges that the government should pursue the plan more diligently and give a wider reach to its operations. And that the results will be large may be inferred from a certain national peculiarity of the Italian "colonists." Italy controls in America "a force which the other nations envy us—the spirit of association of our compatriots. These societies, which maintain united the forces of our emigrants and keep alive their affection for the fatherland, will be for us an inestimable advantage. . . . Considering that in almost all America our colonial population is associated, while that of other nations is often isolated or scattered, every inferiority of ours disappears, or at least is in great part compensated. But to set in motion this grand force which is at our disposition, the first impulse ought to start from Italy, and there every one ought to contribute according to his means, the private citizens as well as the government, the patriotic societies as well as the religious congregations."

A STUDY OF CHILDREN.

THE United States Bureau of Education has undertaken to recapitulate the various child study investigations of recent years, in which 15,000,000 children in this country and Europe have been examined The *Child-Study Monthly* for February analyzes the report by topics.

The methods of the investigators are well illustrated in the procedure adopted for studying the emotion of fear in the children. Hundreds of lists containing all manner of causes such as might excite fear were distributed. Parents, teachers, and other persons—even the little ones themselves—marked off such items as the children really feared. After all the replies had been tabulated it was found that the highest number feared thunder-storms, the next highest reptiles.

COMMON OBJECTS OF FEAR.

"Then follow in order, according to the number fearing them: Strangers, darkness, fire, death, domestic animals, disease, wild animals, water, insects, ghosts.

"A comparison of an equal number of boys and girls showed that the girls feared 1,765 things on the list and the boys 1,106. The girls exceeded the boys in the fear of everything except water, high places, and strangers. The ratio of girls to boys in the fear of rats and mice was 75 to 13, as might be expected. It was also ascertained that fear in boys increases from the seventh to the fifteenth year and then declines, while in girls it increases more steadily from the fourth to the eighteenth year before diminishing. The fear of thunder and lightning, reptiles, robbers, and machinery was found to increase with age.

FEAR OF GHOSTS BY CHILDREN.

"Another novel inquiry enlarged upon the fear of ghosts in children. By questioning the

little ones and tabulating their answers it was discovered that the most frequent source of their knowledge of ghosts was in stories told by other children. Stories read by them ranked second in frequency. Of all the other sources servants had been the most active. Some had derived their first knowledge from pictures, a less number from games or from their own imaginations. The smallest number, less than 1 per cent., had first heard of ghosts from their parents.

"It was discovered that fear almost universally accompanied belief in such specters. The most popular belief as to the power of ghosts was that they chase and catch children. Other notions, in the order of the number of believers, were that they glide swiftly, appear and disappear, do all sorts of mysterious things, foretell death, and injure people. Of those questioned as to the time when ghosts appear, a majority believed it to be in the dark, when one is alone. Stating the places where ghosts may be expected, the highest number of opinions was in favor of graveyards."

INFLUENCE OF ENVIRONMENT ON STATURE.

A study of 50,000 individuals showed degeneration of growth, apparently resulting from inferior nourishment. There was found to be a difference of five inches in average statures between the best and worst nurtured classes. In a separate study of boys alone the same results were shown. Beginning with public-school boys coming from good homes in the country and taking in succession lower and lower grades—through asylums, reform schools, and the like—there is a constant degradation of the mean statures.

THE "DOLL HABITS" OF BOYS AND GIRLS.

"Another unique plan of research was for the purpose of studying the characters of children through their doll habits, it being considered that the educational value of dolls is great. A list of 29 questions was prepared and submitted to nearly 1,000 children, boys and girls. The various kinds of dolls played with ranked as follows in order of popularity: Wax, paper, china, rag, bisque, rubber.

"Of many confessing that they had treated other things as dolls, the greatest number had so substituted cats, clothes pins, pillows, bottles, sticks, and dogs. Nearly four-fifths had tried to feed dolls; nearly two-thirds had thought them hungry; nearly seven-tenths had credited them with mental powers; almost the same number had really thought them sick at times.

"It was discovered that of city school children below six years, 82 per cent. of boys and 98 per cent. of girls have played with dolls; between six and twelve years, 76 per cent. of boys and 99 per cent. of girls.

POWERS OF MEMORY.

"In experiments for testing the memory powers of an equal number of boys and girls at different ages in school and university classes they were all read a simple story containing 324 words and 152 distinct ideas. The reading required three minutes, after which they immediately proceeded to write what they could remember. The conclusions were that the growth of memory is more rapid in girls than in boys. It was also shown that one must reach his maximum memory power at an early age, generally near the beginning of the high-school period. After that it declines."

These are only a few of the topics treated by the report, which the editor of the *Child-Study Monthly* says should be read at first hand as the best epitome of the subject thus far published.

MR. AUGUSTINE BIRRELL ON TASTE IN BOOKS.

THE March *Cornhill* contains Mr. Augustine Birrell's Edinburgh lecture on taste, under the title "Is It Possible to Tell a Good Book from a Bad One?" It is a thoroughly characteristic essay. Mr. Birrell begins by quoting Voltaire: "The necessity of saying something, the perplexity of having nothing to say, and a desire of being witty are three circumstances which alone are capable of making even the greatest writer ridiculous." Mr. Birrell disclaims any desire to be witty, but his paper proves how successfully a brilliant writer can transform the three circumstances referred to into an occasion of victory.

THE GIST OF IT ALL.

All that Mr. Birrell has to say is by him obligingly summed up in his concluding paragraph:

"To tell a good book from a bad one is, then, a troublesome job, demanding, first, a strong understanding; second, knowledge, the result of study and comparison; third, a delicate sentiment. If you have some measure of these gifts, which, though in part the gift of the gods, may also be acquired, and can always be improved, and can avoid *prejudice*—political prejudice, social prejudice, religious prejudice, irreligious prejudice, the prejudice of the place where you could not help being born, the prejudices of the university whither chance sent you, all the prejudices that came to you by way of inheritance, and all the prejudices you have picked up on

your own account as you went along—if you can give all these the slip and manage to live just a little above the clouds and mists of your own generation, why, then, with luck, you may be right nine times out of ten in your judgment of a dead author, and ought not to be wrong more frequently than perhaps three times out of seven in the case of a living author; for it is, I repeat, a very difficult thing to tell a good book from a bad one."

WHAT IS GOOD TASTE?

Mr. Birrell pronounces Burke's the best definition of good taste, but first gives his own conception of it. He says:

"Speaking for myself, I could wish for nothing better, apart from moral worth, than to be the owner of a taste, at once manly, refined, and unaffected, which should enable me to appreciate real excellence in literature and art and to depreciate bad intentions and feeble execution wherever I saw them. To be forever alive to merit in poem or in picture, in statue or in bust; to be able to distinguish between the grand, the grandiose, and the merely bumptious; to perceive the boundary between the simplicity which is divine and that which is ridiculous, between gorgeous rhetoric and vulgar ornamentation, between pure and manly English, meant to be spoken or read, and sugared phrases, which seem intended, like lollipops, for suction; to feel yourself going out in joyful admiration for whatever is noble and permanent, and freezing inwardly against whatever is pretentious, wire-drawn, and temporary—this is indeed to taste of the fruit of the tree, once forbidden, of the knowledge of good and evil."

"THE DESIRE TO BE WITTY."

There is thus nothing novel in what Mr. Birrell has to say, but how he says it—that makes all the difference:

"This desire of being witty, sneered at as it always is, has in most cases an honorable, because a humane, origin. It springs from pity for the audience. . . . This desire to amuse just a little ought not, therefore, to be so very contemptible, springing as it does from the pity that is akin to love. But now, to me at all events, it matters not to whom this desire is related or by whom it was begot. I have done with it. Ten years in the House of Commons and on the political platform have cured me of a weakness I now feel to be unmanly. I no longer pity my audiences; I punish them."

THE SWARM OF BOOKS.

Speaking of the literary output, Mr. Birrell remarks:

"A great crowd of books is as destructive of the literary instinct, which is a highly delicate thing, as is a London evening party of the social instinct. To limit this output is of course impossible. Nothing can stop it. Agricultural depression did not hit it. Declining trade never affected it. It is confidently anticipated that the millionaires of the future will be the writers of really successful shilling shockers and farces that take the town. 'Charley's Aunt' has made more money than would be represented by the entire fortunes of Sir Walter Scott, Thackeray, and Dickens all added together."

Of positive counsel, perhaps the epitome is the writer's sentence:

"Tradition is the most trustworthy advertisement and the wisest advice."

THE QUESTION OF ACADEMIC FREEDOM.

IN the *Educational Review* for March Prof. Elmer E. Brown, of the University of California, presents a fairly representative American view of the freedom of college and university teaching. He says:

"In America the improvements which are most urgently needed in scholastic organization are such as will protect public schools against hasty and whimsical change, and will keep all other schools in close touch with the interests of the state—maintaining and increasing in them the sense of public responsibility. With such changes, both types of administration will tend toward the middle ground which may be expected to be most favorable to real liberty. The danger most to be feared in institutions of both types is internal and appears in an inordinate desire for material prosperity. Nothing will more effectually stop the mouths of teachers whose utterances may be expected to check the inflow of funds for buildings and endowment. It is not necessary to maintain that wealthy patrons of educational institutions attach servile conditions to their gifts. It is a notable fact that this is very rarely the case. It is much more commonly the fear on the part of faculties and managing boards that frank utterance will lessen the income from gifts which really impairs the freedom of teaching. Where this consideration merely restrains teachers from imposing private opinions upon their classes in the guise of instruction its operation may be good. Where it restrains them from presenting well-established results of scientific research its operation is wholly bad. And who shall draw the line between these two kinds of restraint?

"After all is said and done, academic freedom cannot be expressed in formulas nor secured by

mere systems of administration. It belongs to men who deserve it for preëminent worth and command it by the courage of well-reasoned conviction. No sort of freedom is worth having which can be marked out by fixed lines or maintained by inferior men without a struggle. It is a part of the mission of educational institutions to take their place and play their part in the conflicts which are necessary to the life of the peoples; and when their part assumes the form of a struggle for the right to teach the truth as they find it, the conflict itself may prove their best means of persuading men that truth is worth fighting for."

The University and Social Questions.

Mr. George H. Shibley, writing in the March *Arena*, affirms that academic freedom on the more important class questions exists in this country only to a very limited extent, and he further asserts that even if it could be secured it would still be inadequate to meet the demands of the situation. The grounds of this novel proposition he states as follows:

"Where a question concerning economic, political, or social science is such that experts disagree, it does not seem to be the right thing for a believer in one side to present to students or other novices *both sides* of the case. And it makes no difference whether the expert agrees or disagrees with the board that employs him. It is doubtless better to have academic freedom if one man is to present both sides; but there is great evil in thus presenting it, for a person cannot believe that the opposing views are both true. The alternative that seems to have the greatest merit is this: The board of trustees in each university, continuing as at present to employ and discharge the professors at will, should enact a by-law providing a way whereby 'the other side' of each disputed question in economics and government—class questions—may be presented to the students by an expert who believes in the side of the question he champions. A practical way to do this is being employed daily—namely, the written debate.

A HEARING FOR BOTH SIDES.

"To apply the written debate to the case in hand, let the by-law declare that once a year, say, each professor of economic or political science may be asked by a leading organization representing a view opposed to that of the professor to state in writing the principle that in his opinion exists in the particular field in question, and to cite the facts upon which he relies to demonstrate its existence. Such a statement is practicable, for the material in text-books and articles can be referred to minutely and supplemented. Two copies of this should be handed to the organization or its representative for answer. The reply should specifically admit or deny each principle, and as to the disputed ones should admit or deny the accuracy of each statement of fact and set forth the proof. This answer, annexed to a copy of the professor's statement, should then be returned to him for reply. In case he brings in new matter it should be returned to him for answer, and the answer given back for reply."

To make sure that the students study the positions of the opposing sides, Mr. Shibley would have each one, before receiving his or her degree, pass an examination before a State board composed of representatives of the opposing views!

Liberty in Economic Teaching.

In *Gunton's Magazine* for March the editor discusses with Prof. Edward W. Bemis the question of "Free Thought in College Economics," which had also been the subject of an editorial article in the December number of *Gunton's*.

Professor Bemis holds that so long as our universities permit their instructors to promulgate only such economic views as have been generally accepted they must abandon the claim of absolute liberty of research.

Again, he holds that it is more important for a State university to encourage liberal economic and social teaching than it is for a private college, because the latter is sustained by only one class in the community, while a State university should represent the whole people.

"An institution supported by public taxation should give all sides of important social movements a hearing, and to that end it should have at least three or four professors representing different points of view in economics and sociology."

Professor Gunton, in reply, draws a sharp distinction between those subjects of instruction in which "the people's faith and confidence are involved"—*i.e.*, religious, ethical, and social institutions—and other departments of knowledge. Discoveries in chemistry, for example, do not threaten social, ethical, or religious interests. Therefore the investigator in this field is encouraged. But in religion and sociology there can be no such unrestricted freedom. Professor Gunton here takes an illustration from the divinity schools of our universities:

"Here is a professor who has been investigating the subject of theology, and he has arrived at the conclusion that atheism is the true gospel, that the idea of God is all a superstition, that church and creed are based on fallacy and have neither history nor logic to sustain them. Is there any reason in ethics or intellectual free-

dom why the professor who has arrived at that conclusion should continue to use the institution to teach that new theory, which in its very nature makes war on the religious faith upon which much of the moral conduct of society rests? Of course not. Ordinary sense of society preservation forbids; it would be an abrupt violation of the religious sense of the community, which would be demoralizing to society and highly injurious to public welfare."

WHAT SHALL THE HERETIC DO?

In Professor Gunton's opinion there is but one course for a person who becomes so utterly out of touch with the consensus of opinion on his particular subject of instruction, and that is "to segregate himself and try to form a new group and develop a new consensus of opinion. Indeed, that is what has ever been done in the progress of society."

"Now, in sociology the same law obtains. Economics and sociology deal with the questions not merely of individual relations, but of the relation of society to property, home, and social and political institutions—in short, to everything that affects the personal rights, protection of property, and general security of individual effort in the community. All the wealth and institutional advantages of civilization are at stake. Here is a professor in a college who has arrived at the conclusion that private ownership of property is robbery; that justice demands the confiscation of existing wealth and its redistribution to the community. Are we to understand that on the theory of absolute liberty the university is to be used by this individual to advocate disruption of existing economic and social institutions, contrary to the consensus of the best current opinion both inside and out of the university? In other words, is it to lend its influence and wealth to the support of a person who propagates the idea of destruction of what it regards as the sacred institutions of civilized society?"

HOW WOMEN WORKERS LIVE IN LONDON.

ONE of the most interesting articles in the *Nineteenth Century* for March is that in which Miss Emily Hobhouse gives a summary of the census made by the Women's Industrial Council as to the ways of living and wishes of working women in London. The report is based on 500 forms filled up by women of fifteen different callings, residing in different parts of London and the suburbs, and deals mainly with the rent and accommodation which women of limited incomes are able to afford in London.

INCOME AND RENT.

The average income of the 500 women from whom particulars were obtained was £128 19s. ($645), out of which the average amount paid for rent was £28 4s. ($141). Of these women all but 67, who reside in boarding-houses, lived in lodgings, flats, or rooms. The professional incomes varied from $100 to a little over $500 and occasionally higher; but it is the addition of private means which raises the average to $645; 21.7 per cent. of the average income is paid for rent. The total number of rooms occupied by 367 occupants was 630, or a hundred short of two rooms apiece.

HOW WOMEN LIVE.

The opinions evoked from the occupants of these rooms are by no means flattering. Nearly all complain of dreariness, bad food, loneliness, expense, and discomfort. The following are some of their remarks:

"Have tried several sets; indifferent or bad food is the chief drawback.

"Too expensive, badly managed, food inferior, and too many restrictions.

"Chronic indigestion owing to *régime*.

"Petty restrictions and petticoat government.

"I have been in a flat without a servant and too ill for several days to dress and go and summon any one to fetch a doctor or a friend.

"I want the ordinary creature comforts necessary to a woman who returns fagged and worked out.

"I have worked with many hundreds of women during the last fourteen years, and generally they have spoken of the extreme loneliness of living in lodgings."

Those who lived in women's flats are almost unanimous in complaining of tyrannical restrictions:

"I left on account of high rent for very limited accommodation; rules in ladies' chambers are often oppressive; little or no competition; and the shareholders receive a high rate of interest—5 per cent. in many cases.

"I am leaving because of the irritating rules. They should avoid treating tenants as a cross between a pauper lunatic and a rebellious schoolgirl.

"Because of high rent, poor accommodation, discomfort of public dining-room, and interference on the part of the officials."

TO ADMIT MEN.

A large number of the women were against chambers for women only, and declared that the ideal community would be a place where both

men and women would be allowed to live. The following are some of their opinions :

"It is unwholesome to exclude men and make a sort of worldly nunnery of such a dwelling.

"The presence of men keeps up the standard of food.

"Certainly admit them ; the cooking is better where men are allowed.

"A very necessary thing, and the only hope of keeping things up to the mark.

"This would insure the food being of a better quality.

"I now go to a 'mixed' boarding-house, because men insist on good and sufficient food, and that makes things better ; women by themselves appear to dread strikes."

THE IDEAL WOMEN'S HOME.

Miss Hobhouse sets forth her ideas as to the ideal woman's residence in the following passage :

"A quiet spot in Bloomsbury—for Bloomsbury is the beloved, the chosen of working women—failing that, perhaps Westminster ; but in any case not far removed from the indefatigable and indispensable 'bus. Upon this spot a large building to contain accommodation for perhaps 200 educated working people. It might contain about 50 single or combination rooms, 100 sets of double rooms, and 25 sets of three and four rooms each. In the more commodious sets two friends might live together or a brother and sister share a home. Aloft in the gables artists would pitch their easels, and musicians plead for sound-proof rooms in a far-off corner of the house. Below are the common rooms : a committee-room, a library and newspaper room, a smoking-room for men and women, and—last, but not least—a large dining-hall, where no one should be bound to feed, but which, under the management of a representative committee, should be catered for to the satisfaction of the tenants."

THE ICE-BREAKING RUSSIAN STEAMSHIP.

IN the April *McClure's* there is a capital article by Earl Mayo on "The Ice-Breaker 'Ermack,'" the tremendously powerful steamship the Russian navy has built to pound its way through the ice of the Baltic and the arctic. Mr. Mayo interviewed Vice-Admiral Makaroff, who has suggested that this powerful steamship may even steam through the ice to the pole.

In fact, the *Ermack* has already cut her way through the thickest ice of the Spitzbergen region, ice which has been frozen for a generation or more. The admiral described the strange ship as the strongest vessel in existence, and not only strong, but symmetrically strong. The steamship has a displacement of 8,000 tons, is driven by 10,000 horse power, but is intended to carry neither cargo, passengers, nor guns, the single aim of her builders being to make her as strong as possible. Instead of having merely a double bottom, she has a double skin throughout, so that water-tight compartments 3 to 10 feet in diameter extend entirely around the vessel. She has great beam—71 feet, in fact, or twice as much as a vessel of her length (305 feet) should have, according to the proportions generally observed in an ocean liner.

This ship, then, which can make fifteen knots in clear water, is built to force her way through ice up to a thickness three times the height of a man. Such ice is, of course, absolutely impregnable to any direct charge. The *Ermack* does not charge into it, but rises on it and crushes it. When her bow strikes the ice it encounters it at an angle and rises on the surface, and as the engines urge the ship forward more and more of her weight is thrown upon the ice until it breaks beneath the strain. When her bow has mounted on the ice 900 tons pressure is imposed. If this does not break it through, a great pump can within twenty minutes add 200 tons of water to the bow pressure or can send the 200 tons charging to the other end of the vessel in order to get her out of a dangerous situation. The sloping walls of the *Ermack* are fifteen times as strong as the sides of the ordinary vessel. They are at an angle which makes the ship simply rise as the ice presses harder and harder upon them.

The *Ermack* was completed last February and at once set to work to rescue a number of steamers imprisoned by the ice in the Baltic. Altogether she brought to port 41 steamers during the brief remainder of the winter season, and in that one winter saved more than the cost of her construction.

Then the wonderful vessel made a trip to the arctic and tackled the polar ice. In eight hours she traveled 30 miles to the northward, and then after a rest advanced 30 miles more in eleven hours, crushing her way actually through ice fourteen feet thick. She has since been still further strengthened. Probably a companion ship will be constructed, and then, if Admiral Makaroff can obtain the consent of the Russian Government, he may endeavor to see how near to the pole he can come in his ice-breakers, working the two monsters together in tandem.

In the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for June, 1899 (page 661), allusion was made to the claim put forth on behalf of American inventors that the plans of the *Ermack* were based on those of ice-crushing ferry-boats which have plied for some years across the Straits of Mackinac.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY.

IN the April *Century* Mr. John Gilmer Speed writes on "The Kentuckian," in an essay which was composed before the exciting events that have taken place in the commonwealth recently, which makes the study of the character of the Kentuckian so timely. However, Mr. Speed adds a postscript apropos of the political imbroglio in Kentucky, in which he thinks that on the whole that State has acquitted itself pretty well in the trial. Of Kentuckians Mr. Speed says: "Individually they take the law into their own hands; collectively they have as great respect for the law as any people in the world. It seems likely at this writing that they are about to agree to a reinstatement of the law, even though that law is so unjust that it provides for a reversal of the verdict of the people as expressed at the polls."

In accounting for "The Success of the Government Telegraph in Great Britain," Mr. W. S. Harwood thinks it only necessary to say that one may send a telegram of twelve words between any two points in the United Kingdom for fifteen cents, confident that every possible effort will be made to protect its contents and hasten its delivery and that this is accomplished with no increase in taxation, the business being not only self-supporting, but so far profitable as to insure against the need of Parliamentary appropriations. Mr. Charles Barnard, writing on "The Industrial Revolution of the Power-Tool," says that the nation possessing the power-tool will rule the world's trade and will get the business of the world, simply because it is no longer possible to supply the great wants of the world by hand labor. It calls to mind our machine-made shoes, which are, though labor is high here, the best and cheapest in the world. He says that if shoes were made by hand half the people in America would have to go without them. As it is, we sell them to England, France, and the rest of Europe. Mr. Barnard gives many picturesque and interesting examples of the application of power, hydraulic, pneumatic, and electric, in American work. Mr. Benjamin Wood contributes in "The Hardships of a Reptiler" one of the brightest and most naïve sketches we have seen in the magazines for some time. Mr. Wood describes himself as a young man in search of some exciting occupation, who went into partnership with an elderly skipper of filibustering experience on a scheme to sail to the coast of Nicaragua in a schooner purchased for the occasion and engage in the business of canning turtles. All who read this first chapter of the reptilers' experience on this weird expedition will be anxious for the next lot to come out.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

THE April *Harper's* gives place to an essay by Dr. James H. Hyslop on the "Results of Psychical Research," the larger part of which is occupied with a report of Dr. Hyslop's experiments with the medium Mrs. Piper, a matter that has been aired rather unsympathetically in the public prints. Dr. Hyslop reviews briefly the experiences with Mrs. Piper, and says that the results leave him absolutely no alternative between spiritism and an infinite telepathy to account for the facts. Dr. Hyslop makes a sturdy plea for the respectability of his investigations, asking "why is it so noble and respectable to find whence man came and so suspicious and dishonorable to ask and ascertain whither he goes?" Mr. Poultney Bigelow, under the title "A Successful Colonial Experiment," tells what the English are doing at Hong Kong, which has special interest for us in that the problem Great Britain has here solved is very like that which confronts us in Manila. England has succeeded, Mr. Bigelow says, by selecting honest and capable men to fill administrative posts in her colonies. The Englishman who shows himself honest and capable gets a reward in rapidly advanced position and salary. He learns to speak Chinese and studies the needs of the Orientals. "I found," says Mr. Bigelow, "only one American consul who had been in office more than one year, and that man, so far from getting promotion, had had his salary reduced from $3,000 to $2,500 per year, and was negotiating with a view to abandoning so thankless a service."

LORD PAUNCEFOTE.

There is a brief sketch of Lord Pauncefote, the British ambassador to the United States, and a very excellent picture of that diplomat as a frontispiece. Mr. Chalmers Roberts says that Lord Pauncefote has made a deep impression upon every one with his gentle courtesy and kindness of disposition, and that his popularity in America is due to an unfailing patience, moderation, and firmness in the upholding of his country's interests, with a never-failing appreciation of the point of view of his opponent. Lord Pauncefote is about to retire from diplomatic service this spring and will serve his country hereafter in the House of Lords.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the April *Scribner's* Mr. H. J. Whigham, writing from South Africa, describes in detail the battle of Magersfontein and the terrible disaster which overtook the Highlanders in the night attack. He thinks the attack could only have been justified if every inch of the ground had been carefully reconnoitered. As a matter of fact, the position of the enemy's trenches was utterly unknown, the men had no idea what was expected of them, and there was no accurate knowledge of the ground, which had in addition been barb-wired in every direction. Mr. Whigham says concerning Lord Methuen's responsibility: "Against such a position on such a night, one can only say that the idea of the night attack was the outcome of one of those strange mental aberrations which do at times assail even our best generals." The number begins with a pleasant article by Miss Ida M. Tarbell, "The Charm of Paris," in which that clear-headed and painstaking young writer analyzes with an unusually healthy judgment the life of the French capital. She does not find the Parisian a dissipated and frivolous citizen. She says the traveler "will find the mass of the people of Paris thrifty, busy, wide-awake. They work hard, and when their work is done they turn with zest to their amusements. The striking feature of the recreations of Parisians is not recklessness—it is cheerfulness. With them amuse-

ment is a matter of course, as regular a feature of their week as their meals."

RUSKIN'S ART CRITICISM.

Mr. W. C. Brownell, in a brief essay on John Ruskin, thinks that Ruskin had no business to write on art at all. His criticism "never sings the praises of restraint, or severity, of the Greek element in art. It not only exalts sentiment in altogether undue degree and depreciates pure expression, but the sentiment which unfailingly it admires is sentiment of a particularly primitive nature." "The truth is he was quite disoriented in writing about art at all. He neither recognized its limitations, nor understood its function, nor apprehended its distinction. He did not *like* it. He was—which is quite another thing—in love with nature." In Ruskin's adoration of nature "he was, however, beyond all cavil superb. One is almost tempted into dithyramb in speaking of the way in which he has verbally crystallized his appreciations of the myriad aspects of that immense and immensely attractive energy of which, if Wordsworth is to be called the poet, Ruskin himself is surely the oracle."

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

A READABLE article in the April *Cosmopolitan* by H. R. Evans on the conjurer Houdin explains with the aid of diagrams several of the most famous tricks of that famous magician. These tricks seem silly enough when the interior mechanism is laid bare. So great was Houdin's note that he was sent as an ambassador to Algeria to overcome the influence of the Marabout priests over the ignorant Arabs. The Marabouts, or Mohammedan miracle workers, were continually fanning the flames of discontent and rebellion against French domination. The French Government asked Houdin to go to Algeria and perform before the Arabs in order to show them that a French wizard, using only sleight-of-hand and the resources of science, was greater than the Marabouts, who pretended to occult powers and accomplished comparatively simple feats. He succeeded completely in out-conjuring the Mohammedan wizards, and returned to France and settled down with a handsome fortune.

THE OLD RIFLE AND THE NEW.

In a department, Gen. Nelson A. Miles, in glancing over the progress in military appliances during the past generation, singles out the reduction of the caliber in infantry firearms as being the foremost.

"Sixteen years ago the armies of the civilized world were carrying large-bore rifles varying in caliber from 0.4 inch to only 0.6 inch. Small-bore arms were beginning to be seriously considered. England, even then, had just adopted and was arming her infantry with the large-caliber Martini-Henry, and as late as 1886 Germany introduced a magazine rifle of large bore. In this year France and Portugal led the way by adopting a magazine arm of nearly 0.3 inch caliber. The other nations followed this lead rapidly, the United States holding on to the forty-five-caliber single-loader until the last few years, when the entire army was equipped with the 0.30 Krag-Jorgensen. The calibers vary from a little less than a quarter of an inch (Italian) to three-tenths of an inch (French). The modern bullet weighs about half of what the old one did; yet it is much longer in proportion to its diameter. The maximum effective range of the old rifle averaged 3,000 yards, while that of the new is over 4,100—about two and one-third miles. The penetration in elm of the old Snider was only four and one-half inches at 100 yards, whereas the bullet of the new arm at 200 yards goes through twenty-three and one-half inches of pine. The Mauser projectile will pass through five or six men in a row at 100 yards and through one man at nearly a mile. Thirty-years ago a soldier considered himself safe from rifle-fire so long as he kept behind a good-sized log; now the log would furnish scant protection."

THE AMERICAN WOMAN'S FREEDOM.

Max O'Rell, in a page on "The Respect to Woman," comments on the free-and-easy ways of American women that often startle Europeans, but invariably charm them—for instance, an American girl with her own reception days and reception room, independent of her mother's, and the American girl's carrying the latch-key of her house, her ability to cultivate the friendship of a man on the same terms as that of the women. After a sixth visit to America, Max O'Rell thinks that what enables the youngest girl to go about in such freedom and such security and to queen it all over the United States is the respect which woman inspires in American men of all classes. He thinks that "in the matter of politeness and respect to woman the most common, the most vulgar Americans might teach a great lesson to the men of the Old World."

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

FROM the April *McClure's* we have selected Mr. William Barclay Parsons' article on "The American Invasion of China" and Mr. Earl Mayo's on "The Ice-Breaker 'Ermack'" to review among the "Leading Articles of the Month." Mr. Walter Wellman gives some dramatic details of life in the far arctic regions, in his accounts of hunting bears and being hunted by bears, and other novelties of his recent domestic life and daily work up under the north pole. He says that their winter was a very comfortable one, although they had stoves only fifteen inches in diameter, which burned never more than fifty pounds of coal a day. He says that familiarity breeds contempt of cold, and that at Cape Tegetthoff he and his companions habitually wrote letters, sewed, played cards, read books, and ate their meals in temperatures about the freezing point, never suspecting that it was cold. When the temperature outside was not more than 15° below zero and not much wind was blowing, they let the fire go out after supper, in order to save coal. Mr. Wellman and his party took regular baths out of doors in the same water that seals disported in, and such a thing as a cold was not known. He says wool is far and away the best fabric for arctic wear. Even wool will gather some moisture, but it is vastly better than fur.

Mr. Robert Barr has an imaginative story of a great catastrophe which overtook the world in 1904 and left only sixteen persons alive. This interesting incident came about from the inventive genius of a young American who went to London and formed a company to manufacture food for the world by employing the available water power of the earth in extracting the nitrogen from the air and converting it into food. The consequence was that the population of the earth became drunk with the oxygen that was left, and finally the whole scheme of things flared up.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

MR. RUSSELL DOUBLEDAY, writing in *Munsey's Magazine* on the beef-raising industry of the United States under the title "Where the Beef Doth Grow," says that the cowboy is practically a thing of the past. The railroad and the farmer have put him out of employment, or rather into a newer and much less picturesque employment of mending fences and doing regular farm-hand work. There are few places now in the United States where cattle can roam at will, as there are farmers' crops about the country that would suffer. Every year more and more of the cattle are housed in winter, and the great round-ups are not necessary, for each owner keeps his herd fenced from that of every other stockman.

THE MODERN AIR-BRAKE.

Mr. G. L. Wilkinson gives a description of "Braking a Railroad Train" and of the modern air-brake, its construction and operation. The air-brake is in fact largely responsible for the possibility of modern fast railroading. It enables a ten-car train running at an estimated speed of about forty-five miles an hour to be brought to a standstill in less than seven car-lengths through automatic application of the brakes, effected solely by the parting of the coupling of the engine and train. The air-brake is distinctly a triumph of American inventive genius. The percentage of cars equipped with it has increased steadily, and a corresponding decrease has come about in the appalling list of accidents to railroad employees. For instance, in 1893 only 20 per cent. of the freight cars in the United States had air-brakes and automatic couplers. Four years later 33 per cent. had air-brakes and 50 per cent. had improved couplers. The number of employees killed within twelve months ending with the former date was 2,727; during the year ending June 30, 1897, the fatalities number only 1,693.

THE WAYS OF THE STREET FAKIR.

Mr. Raymond S. Spears, in "The Story of the Fakirs," makes a readable study of the peculiar ways and wares of the street vender. He says that sometimes these plausible and theatrical gentlemen make a fortune from some catchy trifle. The street man who does the selling often works under a boss fakir, who will send out 25 men to-day or 125 men to-morrow, according as the opportunity shows itself, to beguile the public with particular toys, puzzles, novelties, or what-not. The street man needs no capital to start with, and only has to have a fellow-fakir introduce him to the boss in order to get a stock of wares. Mr. Spears says that not much of the stock goes astray, which is rather remarkable, considering the methods and *personnel* of the industry.

THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

THE particular feature of the April *Ladies' Home Journal* is the first of a series of child stories by Rudyard Kipling, which have been written especially for the *Home Journal*. This first tale, "The Elephant's Child," relates in very juvenile terms how the elephant, which formerly had only a blackish bulgy nose as big as a boot, got it pulled out into the very serviceable trunk which now equips each member of that family. In his seventh and last article on "The Theater and Its People" Mr. Franklin Fyles tells of the mechanism behind the scenes which gives the audience its storms, lightning, and thunder.

THE MAKING OF STAGE STORMS.

"The noise of wind and rain," he tells us, "comes from a cylinder of silk, which, when turned with a crank, draws the cloth rapidly over the wooden flanges. The imitation is perfect.

"Stage lightning used to be produced by burning magnesium, just as the amateur photographers do in making flashlight pictures. A simpler and better way, in theaters with an electric outfit, is to touch an ordinary file at the end of one wire to a bit of carbon at the end of another wire. The carbon burns brightly during the contact, which may be a mere touch or prolonged with the requisite irregularity by rubbing the ignited substance along the rough steel.

"The appearance of falling rain is caused by suspending many fine, polished wires and vibrating them in a strong light. That is an excellent illusion for a moment, but betrays itself if continued too long. Rain is also imitated by shaking shot on a drum. Snow is bits of paper shaken down gently from above.

"The time-honored thunder maker is a sheet of thin iron suspended by a cord shaken hard or gently, according to the requirements of the particular storm in progress. The most modern thunder machine is a long, narrow trough with a cannon-ball rolling in it. Wooden cleats impede the ball along the way, and it may be rolled very fast for a loud peal or slowly for a long rumble."

THE MARRIAGE QUESTION.

Mr. Edward Bok devotes his editorial page to discuss "The Ease With Which We Marry." He thinks that the trouble is not with our divorce laws, but with the laws which make it possible for a man to boast, as one recently did, that he had married sixteen different women in less than five years. Says Mr. Bok:

"The present open-door policy for marriage in America cannot exist much longer. The question must be met, and it should be met squarely. Any discussion of divorce is untimely: it is futile at the moment. It is grappling with the question at the wrong end. Whether divorce is right or wrong, whether there should be divorce at all, and on what grounds a decree of divorce should be granted—these are not the pressing questions of the hour. The whole matter of divorce does not begin to stand in such urgent need of discussion as does the question of the laws of marriage. When we adjust marriage as we should adjust it, then we can give our attention to divorce. And then we shall find that in adjusting the one we shall have come pretty close to the wisest and best adjustment of the other. The practical solution of both, in short, lies in the proper adjustment and rigid enforcement of laws which shall make marriage more difficult of accomplishment."

THE NEW ENGLAND MAGAZINE.

THE *New England Magazine* for March contains several historical articles of more than ordinary importance. Mrs. Jane Marsh Parker has investigated the various stories connecting New England houses with the plot whereby the French royal family was to find refuge in the United States. Her paper is entitled "The Marie Antoinette Houses of the United States," and is illustrated with interesting pictures of two of these houses and historical portraits.

not distinctly geographical or historical in their relations, but made equally applicable to students of all nations. His plan would include a few months' study in Germany, followed by a similar course, whether of greater or less length, in France, Italy, England, Switzerland, or Russia. "Rome studied from the forum is very different from Rome studied from class-books, just as widely separated as would be the study of modern France in the monuments of Paris from written history, or that of the living glacier of Switzerland or the active volcano about Naples from the text furnished by geographical text-books."

CHINA'S COMMERCIAL DEVELOPMENT.

In an article on "Western Benefits Through China's Development" the Chinese consul-general to the United States predicts that in a few years the Chinaman's money earned in the United States will buy him little more in China than here. He believes that the cost of living, rising with the rate of wages in China, will soon reach the American standard. The movement in that direction, he says, has already attained great speed. He argues as follows: "The trade, which now only amounts to some $32,000,000 both ways, is so small because of China's inability to make larger purchases. When we multiply the things you want, the same variation will excite in us a desire for the things you have. If our goods are cheap, so much the better for you. We thereby bring you more of labor than you return to us. The teamster gives to the lawyer the product of thirty days' toil for an hour of the lawyer's thought. Both are benefited; but, in the aspect of things, who acquires the higher advantage from the transaction? We may give you abundance of our goods for little of your goods; but you will be the more favored."

OTHER ARTICLES.

The Hon. John Goode, of Virginia, contributes an interesting acount of the famous Hampton Roads conference in 1865, in which President Lincoln and Secretary Seward, on the part of the United States, and Alexander H. Stephens, Robert M. T. Hunter, and John A. Campbell, as commissioners appointed by Jefferson Davis, discussed plans for the termination of the Civil War.

Mr. F. Cunliffe-Owen writes on "Englishmen in the United States;" Mr. William Ordway Partridge on "The True Relation of Sculpture to Architecture;" Mr. Andrew Lang on "Opera Libretti;" Mr. John George Leigh on "America's First and Latest Colony"—Samoa; and Prof. W. P. Trent on "Mr. Stephen Phillips' Play."

THE ARENA.

IN the *Arena* for March the military problems now before Congress relating to the reorganization of the National Guard and the defects and proposed remedies of the regular army system are discussed by the Hon. Jacob Ruppert, Jr., member of the Committee on Militia, and the Hon. George B. McClellan, minority leader of the Committee on Military Affairs, of the House of Representatives.

On the Anglo-Boer struggle in South Africa papers are contributed by two members of Congress, the Hon. David A. de Armond and the Hon. Charles F. Cochran. Each of these writers takes the extreme pro-Boer and anti-British position.

In a paper on "British Radicals and Radicalism" Mr. Joseph Dana Miller affirms that the great overshadowing question in British politics at the present time is the land question. He rates the socialists in England as of comparatively small importance. Even the Fabians, represented by Bernard Shaw, seem to him, "with their lack of vitality and want of robust appreciation of what is really the matter with society, a thin and shadowy group—the very pre-Raphaelites of political economy."

LOMBROSO AND THE NEW SCIENCE OF CRIMINAL SOCIOLOGY.

Miss Frances A. Kellor, of the University of Chicago, contributes an interesting study of the methods employed in the science of criminal sociology as it is being developed in the United States and in some European countries. Miss Kellor calls in question some of the results published by Lombroso. She holds that his investigations touch only the structural, and his measurements of normals have been so few that many of his deductions are unsupported. Structural peculiarities are often identified with race, and Lombroso's observations apply only to the race upon whom taken and not to the whole criminal class. She argues, further, that Lombroso ignores social and psychological factors, so that his work is valuable only from the anatomical side. She also charges him with too sweeping generalizations.

THE TRAVELING SALESMAN AS A CIVILIZER.

An article on "The Commercial Traveler's Work of Civilization," by J. H. Wisby, directs our attention to some of the services rendered by traveling salesmen as the pioneers and pathfinders of civilization. For the popular demand for the preservation of international peace this writer holds that we are indebted principally to the commercial traveler.

Mr. John Chetwood writes on "Monroe Doctrine Repeal and 'Our Next War;'" the Rev. E. P. Powell on "The Supreme Court in History;" Prof. Jerome Dowd on "Civilization and the Social Compact;" and Walter Spence on "Evolution and Immortality;" while Mr. H. Bonis and Mr. Edward McK. Whiting present the contrast and parallel between Rome's imperial republic and the present political condition of the United States. From Mr. George H. Shibley's paper on "The University and Social Questions" we have quoted in another department.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

WRITING on "Hand and Machine Labor" in *Gunton's Magazine* for March, Commissioner Carroll D. Wright, of the United States Department of Labor, suggests a new definition for a labor-saving machine—"a contrivance by which the dead still work, for the motor power of steam is the stored heat of the sun converted into present power. That heat gives force to the present era, while the intelligence of the inventors of motive power or the machines which control it and their workmen are still working in unconscious iron and converting the heat into motion and doing the work of the world." Thus one generation of men is enabled to do the work of four or five generations.

THE TAXATION OF MORTGAGES.

In this number the proposed mortgage tax law in New York State is discussed by Charles E. Sprague,

Ph.D., who points out certain inconsistencies and inequalities in the measure now before the New York Legislature. Dr. Sprague attacks the taxation of mortgages as a taxation of debts, which, he says, never produced anything and should never have been taxed. The editor also opposes the bill on the ground that it "makes real estate owners who are in debt contribute to the State revenues and lets those that are not in debt go free. Thus the Astors and other millionaire property owners will escape the State tax, while every struggling owner of a mortgaged home will have to pay." Mortgaged property is to be taxed for local purposes at its full value, regardless of the mortgage, just the same as the unmortgaged property of the millionaires.

We have quoted elsewhere from the remarks on "Liberty in Economic Teaching" by Prof. Edward W. Bemis and Professor Gunton.

THE INTERNATIONAL MONTHLY.

THE *International Monthly* for March contains five articles, and each of these is of fair length. Prof. Patrick Geddes, of Edinburgh, writes on "John Ruskin as Economist." In his opinion Ruskin's chief services were constructive. "Exceeding all other economists in clear vision of physical realities, in insight and criticism of the quality of production, he was more than any other writer the legitimate continuator of the physiocratic school and the forerunner of its complete resystematization by the aid of physical and biological science; while his statement of the aims of practical economics in terms of the quality and significance of human life, his treatment of criticism of art and other aspects of production from the same point of view, and his clear enunciation of the essential unity of economics and morals in opposition to the discord assumed as a deductive artifice will remain especially and permanently classic."

Clement Scott contributes a study of Henry Irving as actor, manager, and diplomat. Speaking of the encouragement which Irving, "as a theatrical tactician and a dramatic diplomat," has given to the actor-manager, or star system, as opposed to the American syndicate system, Mr. Scott remarks that he has studied and seen the results of both these systems, and he is decidedly of the opinion that in the interests of the dramatists, the young actor, and the rising actress, in order to insure the advance of good all-round, symmetrical work, the American system is preferable.

THE NEGROES OF THE SOUTH.

In a paper on "The Southern Question" Mr. Edward P. Clark says: "It is easy enough to make a catalogue of outrage and injustice upon the Southern blacks so long and gloomy as to justify a feeling of profound discouragement regarding the future. The most hopeful feature of the situation is the fact that those friends and champions of the negro who have studied the question most carefully upon the spot have grown more confident all the time that ultimately things would work out right. General Armstrong died full of faith in the future. Mr. Washington grows more hopeful every year. Outsiders may well feel that there is no occasion for despair when the voice of cheer is heard from the very heart of 'the black belt.'"

The opening article of the number is a lengthy and somber study of degeneration by William W. Ireland. Prof. William P. Trent reviews a number of books relating to Balzac that have recently appeared.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for March is chiefly notable for the fact that it contains not a single article dealing with the war, and only one—that of Colonel Maude, which we have reviewed elsewhere—treating of the military questions it involves. We have also dealt elsewhere with Mr. Michael Mulhall's "Forty Years of British Trade."

A GARDEN OF MERCY.

The Duchess of Sutherland gives a brief but interesting sketch of the Christian labor colony at Lingfield and of its reformatory work. "Back to the country" is the motto of this institution, for work and thrift and self-control, as the director says, "cannot be learned in a town." The Lingfield colony every spring sends out a large number of farm-trained men, of which a large proportion do excellently. The inspirer of the colony is Dr. Paton, of Nottingham.

NO ROOM TO LIVE.

Mr. Robert Donald reviews the schemes which have been carried out for housing the London poor within the last few years, and concludes that not one-tenth of the work which has to be done has yet been done. The need for better housing increases at a greater rate than can be kept pace with, and rents were never so high. The essence of the problem lies in the injustice that a grocer or butcher who sells bad food can be punished, while against the landlord who lets bad houses no redress can be obtained, and he is even rewarded. The loss on clearance schemes in London between 1876 and 1898 was considerably over $10,000,000, and the cost per head for slum clearances has been over $2,500 per family. Rapid and cheap means of transit are perhaps the most effectual remedy, but unfortunately in some suburbs the housing conditions are as bad as in the cities. Mr. Donald thinks the housing act must be amended before anything can be done.

HEROISM IN LONDON SLUMS.

One of the most interesting articles in the number is that of Mr. Thomas Holmes on "Home Industries and Home Heroism," in which he gives some pathetic illustrations of the heroism and kind-heartedness which are constantly to be found among the poorest and even among the criminal classes. The article is one long record of patience, fortitude, and devotion, which, says Mr. Holmes, are still a natural law, and in no way an exception among the poorest of the cities. It is a melancholy picture which he draws of overwork and starvation in the slums; and if it were not for the relieving brightness of the incidents he retails it might well be hopeless.

SCIENCE AND PROVIDENCE.

Mr. D. S. Cairns has a paper under this title, the object of which is to make certain suggestions for the reconciliation of the scientific conception of the world as a reign of law, with the Christian conception of a Divine Providence. He concludes his article as follows:

"Returning, then, to the apparent antithesis between the religious and the scientific views of the world with which we began, we find that both, when rightly regarded, converge upon a great world end of a social order. If the ends, then, of the two *Weltanschauungen* tend to identify, can there be any real contradiction between the means? Is it not more probable that the

apparent discords between the scientific and the religious explanations of any given fact arise from the very different point of view from which that fact is regarded, rather than from any vital contradiction of principle? It is not contended that the solution suggested here does not stand in need of supplement from other ways of dealing with the question, nor even that with these aids all difficulties are fully removed. But it is maintained that the introduction into the field of thought of the principle of the kingdom of God removes many difficulties and takes us a long way toward the solution of the central problem."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Julia Wedgwood, whose acquaintance with Ruskin dates back many a year, contributes a very well-written appreciation of the dead prophet. It is the earliest period of his genius, she says, which was most fruitful. When he speaks of nature and art he seems inspired. When he turns to finance, politics, and to social and legislative arrangements, he has neither sober judgment nor sound conviction.

Mr. A. R. Roper writes on Maeterlinck, his judgment being that the Flemish mystic will be remembered in the future merely as a stimulating influence, and not for having done any immortal work himself.

The Hon. Stephen Coleridge, writing on "Some London Hospitals and Their Audited Accounts," deals with the devotion of public subscriptions to the purposes of vivisection.

Mr. E. Saint-Genix begins a series of articles on "Monastic Orders Up to Date," in which he brings black accusations against the conventual orders of France.

The only other article is that in which Mr. Charles Johnston describes, in the dramatic form of a story, a rising against Russian rule in central Asia.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

FROM the *Nineteenth Century* for March we have selected Mr. T. R. Threlfall's notable warning on the subject of the New Mahdi Senussi and Miss Emily Hobhouse's paper "How Women Workers Live" for review and quotation elsewhere.

RUSSIA AND PERSIA.

Gen. Sir Thomas Gordon in an article on "The Problem of the Middle East" reviews the relations of Russia and England with Persia. He says a potent factor in the inclination of Persia toward Russia in recent times is the fact that the present ruling dynasty and almost all the ministers, notables, and courtiers hail from northern Persia and their family and personal interests dictate deference to their northern neighbor. The main factor in deciding Persia's railroad policy of late years has been the Russo-Persian agreement of 1890 by which all railroad construction in Persia was prohibited for ten years. This arrangement will expire next November, so that fresh activity may shortly be expected from the Russian side. Sir Thomas Gordon, strange to say, does not seem to be aware of the progress already made by the Russian engineers in surveying the route for the extension of the Caspian railroad to Teheran and Ispahan and afterward to the coast.

MIDDLE AGE AND ITS BURDENS.

Mrs. Hugh Bell contributes, mainly from a woman's point of view, a very interesting article describing "Some Difficulties Incidental to Middle Age." The moral of her article is that the path from youth to middle age is one of ceaseless compromise between aspirations and achievements:

"Arrived at middle age, it is very possible that most of us will have been called upon to renounce a good deal. We started, probably, with the conviction that our heads would strike the stars, and we have become strangely reconciled to the fact that they do not reach the ceiling. But it was no doubt better to start with the loftier idea: a man should allow a good margin for shrinkage in his visions of the future. And it is curious, it is pathetic, to see with what ease we may accomplish the gradual descent to the lower level, on which we find ourselves at last going along, if in somewhat less heroic fashion than we anticipated, yet on the whole comfortably and happily. We have accepted a good deal, we have learned how to carry our burdens in the way that is easiest. We are no longer storm-tossed: we know pretty much, arrived at this stage, what we are going to do, those of us who thought they were going to do anything. The fact of taking life on a lower level of expectations makes it all the more likely that those expectations will be fulfilled. We have, with some easing of conscience, accepted certain characteristics and manifestations on our own part as inevitable, secretly and involuntarily cherishing a hope that where these do not fit in with those of our surroundings, it may yet be possible that other people should alter theirs."

CROMWELL AS CONSTITUTIONALIST.

Mr. J. P. Wallis, writing on "Cromwell's Constitutional Experiments," traces the evolution of Cromwell from military dictator to constitutional ruler. He says:

"Cromwell's evolution from military dictator to constitutional ruler makes a very interesting story, even though the results were not destined to be lasting. The question has often been asked whether, had he lived another ten years, he would have succeeded in winning acceptance for a constitutional monarchy under a dynasty of Cromwells. Constitutional arguments help very little here, and even general history can supply no certain answer. As our greatest authority has pointed out, Cromwell was the representative of the forces of militant Puritanism, which were not in harmony with the larger mind of the nation; and it is not easy to see how he and his dynasty could have escaped, even had they wished to do so, from that compromising environment."

SCRIPTURE AND ROMAN CATHOLICISM.

Dr. St. George Mivart, in an article under the above heading, replies to the Rev. Father Clarke's exposition of the "Continuity of Catholicism" which appeared in the *Nineteenth Century* for February. He says:

"To deny that change is inevitable in the dogmata of the Church and in the accepted meaning of every one of them is to deny that to which the Church herself and all her dogmata owe their very existence. In the sidereal universe, in the solar system, in our own planet, and in the physical, vital, sentient, and rational phenomena it exhibits, evolution everywhere rules. It rules the intellectual, ethical, and æsthetic developments of the human race, and its action becomes the more clearly seen the more patiently we study the history of religion in all its varied forms with their varied developments from age to age."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Benjamin Taylor traces at some length the history of the events which led up to the conclusion of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in 1850.

Lady Chalmers contributes a paper in defense of her husband, Sir David Chalmers, who was charged by Mr. Chamberlain with bringing false accusations in regard to the causes of the Sierra Leone hut-tax rebellion.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

WE have quoted elsewhere from the Rev. W. Greswell's discussion of "Some Aspects of the Boer War" in the *Fortnightly* for March.

PERFORMING ANIMALS.

Mr. F. G. Aflalo writes on "The Ethics of Performing Animals," the main point of his article being to show that performances with dangerous animals ought to be prohibited. The domesticated animals are more legitimate subjects, for with them tricks are a real test of intelligence, as they cannot be bullied or frightened like savage beasts. But "on many counts—the possible cruelty to the animals, the danger to the trainer, above all the utter uselessness of the whole thing—exhibitions of performing lions and bears may stand condemned."

CRUELTY TO ANIMALS.

The Hon. Stephen Coleridge has an article on the administration of the British cruelty to animals act of 1876, in which he comes to the following conclusions:

"1. That the home secretary allows the safeguards provided by the act of 1876 against the torture of animals to be removed.

"2. That the home secretary, as far as possible, throws the cloak of secrecy over his method of administration of the act.

"3. That the home secretary, in reply to questions in Parliament addressed to him for the purpose of procuring information that the public are entitled to receive, makes statements that contradict each other.

"4. That the Parliamentary report purporting to give an exact account of what has taken place in laboratories is compiled from unverified statements made by the vivisectors themselves.

"5. That when breaches of the law are committed, the home secretary neither enforces the penalties specifically provided by the act himself nor enables others to enforce them."

The law as now administered affords no protection whatever to animals, and at present only protects the vivisector.

COPYRIGHT LEGISLATION.

Mr. G. Herbert Thring writes in support of Lord Monkswell's copyright bill, upon which he comments clause by clause. He says that the bill is the most serious effort that has been made to simplify and consolidate copyright law since 1845. The bill is divided into three parts, as stated in the memorandum prefixed:

"1. Copyright property so called, or the right of multiplying copies of books.

"2. Performing rights, or the right of publicly performing dramatic works or musical works.

"3. Lecturing rights, or the right of orally delivering lectures."

RUSKIN AS ART CRITIC.

Mr. H. Heathcote Statham writes on Ruskin and his criticisms of art and architecture. After referring to the great extent of Ruskin's writings, the variety of subjects of which they treat, and their picturesqueness and originality, he proceeds to show that Ruskin had, in the broadest sense, no settled or permanent convictions about art at all. Ruskin, according to Mr. Statham, wrote with passionate earnestness of conviction, but he had so many convictions.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are several other articles, the most important of which is Prof. Lewis Campbell's on "Liberal Movements in the Last Half Century," in which he summarizes the attempts made in recent years to remove the traditional hindrances to free thought and action. Prof. James Ward continues his controversy with Mr. Herbert Spencer. Mr. C. Stein writes on "Our Game Books."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THERE is much vigorous criticism in the March number of the *National* of the British Government. Sir Rowland Blennerhassett's warning against a European coalition claims separate notice.

THE BRITISH WAR OFFICE INCOMPETENT.

Mr. H. O. Arnold Forster, M.P., indulges in the severest criticisms of the War Office. He rehearses the main contentions of the critics, and argues that they have been completely verified in the course of the present war. He lays special stress on the point that, "owing to the faulty system adopted, no efficient body of men could be dispatched from this country in an emergency, without either destroying the whole regimental system at home or calling out the reserves." The reserves have, in fact, come to be considered no longer as a reserve, but as England's first line in time of war. The following passage represents the nature and tone of Mr. Forster's general indictment:

"Scientific method, specialized instruction, the adaptation of means to ends, preparation in advance for contingencies which are certain to arise—these are the requisites for obtaining success in any business, whether it be that of running a sweet-stuff shop or an empire. But the fact has been absolutely left out of sight hitherto by those who are supposed to be responsible for the conduct of that great business, the defense of the British empire."

THE NAVY TOPSY-TURVY.

Sir John Colomb deals in heavy diatribes on "Waste and Confusion in the Navy." What specially rouses his ire is the inversion of the duties of sailors and of marines. He says:

"Landing the naval officers and sailors to act as imitation marines on shore with field guns or as infantry, while leaving the real marine officers and men on the ships to act as sailors, became the custom of the service. . . . The admiralty can't or won't see that the modern bluejacket is a marine in the disguise of a seaman. He is an infinitely more costly article to the taxpayer than the marine, who in a mastless ship practically does now the same work."

These postulates of reform are laid down:

"The engineer has prevailed and must prevail. The

result is that sailors, officers and men, naturally tend to become, in all but name and dress—marines. . . . Keep the marine force more as a reserve for the navy by quartering them at the naval bases and coaling-stations, sending officers and men to sea in rotation for sea-training purposes, change, and variety only, thus keeping naval officers and seamen more at sea in their places."

THE CABINET WITHOUT THE TALENTS.

"The Man in the Cabinet" is severely handled by "The Man in the Street." Never, he declares, has Parliament sunk so low or Englishmen come nearer to welcoming a Cromwell or a Napoleon who would turn the lock on the talk shop. England has statesmen without statesmanship and an administration which does not administer. The English organize armies by private subscription. They have scarcely any technical military or naval literature. All these animadversions are backed up with reference to England's experience in the present war.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Diplomacy as a profession is discussed by "Diplomat." He contends that telegraph, and possibly telephone, have so changed the conditions of diplomacy as to concentrate responsibility in the foreign minister and relieve our representatives accordingly of its pressure. Yet the numbers in the profession and its emoluments are increasing. The writer gravitates toward Voltaire's preference of plain honest men to professional diplomats for the arrangement of international business. Professor Westlake, in stating the case of Finland, still hopes that wiser counsels may yet prevail.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

THE March number remains true to the tradition of the *Westminster*, with its strenuous advocacy of land reform. "Who ought to pay for the war?" is the question which heads one paper; and the answer is, the ground landlord. "How to lower the rates" is the theme of another paper; and again the specific is to tax land values.

Mr. Hugh H. L. Bellot begins a review of the problem in South Africa, and gets as far as 1877. He finds, so far, Boer and Briton diametrically opposed on the native question, the Boer averse to all law and order involving taxes, and an utter lack of continuity in the South African policy of the British Government.

LIFE IN INDIA.

Military life in India, according to Col. S. Dewe-White, late Bengal staff corps, has much improved since 1845; and there was ample need for improvement. Immorality and irreligion abounded unashamed. He adds:

"Old Indians will understand my meaning in remarking that the unblushing profligacy so characteristic of Anglo-Indian society under the *régime* of old John Company soon became, under the direct government of our Empress-Queen, a thing of the past, and a better order of things was introduced. But I must make one reservation in noticing this betterment, inasmuch as the legalization of vice was still continued for the benefit of the health of the European soldiers, in whose behalf depravity was safeguarded in opposition to the claims of morality and religion."

The revival of Buddhism in India, welcomed by D. M. Strong, is identified by him with "the larger Christianity, the religion of Christ."

SOCIAL REFORMS.

There is a triplet of papers on desired improvements in social arts. E. G. Wheelwright pleads for the more careful cultivation of courtesy in modern life, being convinced not merely of the social value, but of the salutary reflex on the individual character, of "manners"—mere manners. "The social ne'er-do-weel," by which he means every variety of bore or socially superfluous person, is the subject of Mr. H. G. Wortley's somewhat surgical attention. How to remove this social excrescence without serious pain to it or to society is a problem which he would like to see solved. William Garland, writing on friendship between the sexes, sensibly suggests the substitution of small parties of half a dozen ladies and perhaps as many gentlemen for the "social evening" which bores thirty or forty people at a time.

Dr. John Jebb, "a pioneer of university reform" at Cambridge at the close of the last century, is the subject of a sketch by Camilla Jebb. His panacea was annual examination, but his Unitarian heresies spoiled his chances of success. Another article on education by Edith Slater insists that the most needed reform is the reform of parents.

THE FRENCH REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

IN the first February number Dr. A. Kuyper, a Dutch deputy, writes on the South African crisis. He contrasts the opening of the nineteenth century, full of fair promises of liberty, with that of the twentieth, when England, so recently one of the most zealous promoters of peace at The Hague, is now engaged in a murderous struggle with another Christian people in Africa. Dr. Kuyper traces the origin of the Boer war far back to the eighteenth century.

Neither in America, where the Dutch colony of New York was seized in time of peace in 1664 by Colonel Nicholson, nor in Africa has England ever succeeded in gaining the sympathies of her subjects of Dutch extraction. The characteristics of the two races are essentially different. The Englishman is superior in his capacity for energetic and instant action, in his large conceptions, and in his power of material organization, but with it all there is a love of show and a desire to Anglicize all the world; while the Dutchman is slow-witted, but when once his energy is aroused he exhibits an unshakable perseverance and tenacity. Neither the Spaniards in the sixteenth century nor the English at the Cape ever understood the Dutch nature

A DEFENSE OF THE BOERS.

Dr. Kuyper summarizes the history of South Africa in order to bring out these points, though he warns us not to commit the mistake of identifying the Boers absolutely with the Dutch. The former have French, Scottish, and German blood in their veins. He asserts that the Boers never mixed their blood with that of the natives, that their conjugal life is of the purest, and

that they have never been seduced by alcoholism. Dr. Kuyper reviews once more the story, which is not pleasant reading for Englishmen of a generous spirit, of England's stupid and cruel dealings with this hardy and tenacious race. It is interesting to note that he defends the Boers from the charge of ill-treating the natives, who were, he says, in so low and degraded a condition that the institution of a mild form of slavery was the only way to keep them from massacring one another and probably the Boers themselves into the bargain.

The machinations of the South African league, the disgraceful sequels to the Jameson raid, Mr. Chamberlain's method of conducting the negotiations—all this is described by Dr. Kuyper in language which by its very moderation makes the indictment all the more crushing. Dr. Kuyper renders homage to the past greatness of England, liberal, progressive, truthful, self-respecting, and roundly declares that if he were not a Dutchman he would wish to be an Englishman. England's fall he attributes to the obsession of a false imperialism, to the thirst for gold, and to the unheard-of luxury of the upper classes. *Corruptio optimi pessima.* But he has faith that the prayers of the few righteous men within her may yet save England—the few, such as Mr. Morley, Mr. Courtney, Sir W. Harcourt, Mr. Stead, Dr. Clark, Mr. Labouchere, and Mr. Frederic Harrison, who carry on the Gladstonian tradition. Chamberlain must go, and England must offer full independence to a federated South Africa, retaining only part of Cape Colony and some indispensable points on the coast. So might England rise again, but if not, though she may quell the Boers on the field, yet she will never quell their indomitable spirit and love of freedom.

HATS, FEATHERS, AND FLOWERS.

The Vicomte d'Avenel contributes one of his extremely informing articles on the mechanism of modern life, dealing this time, both historically and practically, with hats, feathers, and flowers. He describes in great detail the enormous industries created at the dictates of that imperious and mysterious entity known as fashion. He tells a remarkable story of a clever Frenchwoman, the fourth child of a man of letters who had married a noble but poor wife. This girl, beginning with nothing but her clever fingers and her quick intelligence, created step by step a great business returning $80,000 a year in net profits. The particulars given of the trade in feathers may well strike despair into the hearts of the humane who are ever seeking to persuade women to give up these adornments for the sake of the poor birds.

SILK IN THE CEVENNES.

Of similar interest is the Vicomte de Saporta's painstaking article on the silk industry in the Cevennes, which employs some 5,500 work people in the canton of Ganges alone, who are paid wages amounting to $325,000 a year.

REVUE DES REVUES.

THE article on the Transvaal war in the first February number of the *Revue des Revues* by M. de Bloch was noticed in our March number.

M. Jacques Bainville has an article discussing "The Descendants of French Refugees and Emigrants in Contemporary Germany," the object of which is to show how powerfully the French leaven has worked in that country, and how these descendants of long-ago French emigrants play a highly important part in the political, administrative, industrial, and artistic life of Germany of to-day. In every principal walk of life M. Bainville finds a large proportion of the best-known names are those of families with a strong admixture of French blood in them.

THE CAPE NOME GOLD FIELDS.

M. de Lamare writes upon the new gold discoveries in the arctic circle at Cape Nome, in a country chiefly inhabited by Americans, Frenchmen, and French Canadians, who, we are told, although British subjects, always fly the flag of the mother country over their poor little miners' tents or their wretched huts. The mining season is exceedingly short, and one great drawback to the country is that every bit of wood for building or fuel purposes has to be imported. As a gold-bearing district, the writer does not think that Cape Nome can ever be comparable to Klondike.

TOLSTOI'S "RESURRECTION."

The first place in the literary portion of the magazine is devoted to M. Henry Bereuger's review of Tolstoi's "Resurrection," for which the reviewer has much admiration, although to complete the work he considers that Tolstoi "must show us Nekludoff educating Maslova, leading her by love to a higher life, to the Eleuses of the time to come, where the most learned can only penetrate if he holds by the hand the most ignorant." "What is lacking in resurrection, after humanity rising from the inferno, is its final ascension toward a spiritual paradise."

M. Jacques de Nouvion tells the story of Elizabeth Patterson, the American girl who married Jerome Bonaparte when both she and her husband were under age, almost children, but who was never allowed by the Bonaparte family to be acknowledged as a wife or to appear at court.

In the second February number the chief place is given to an article by Camille Mauclair, "The Religion of the Orchestra and Contemporary French Music."

PROJECTS FOR PARIS "CONGRESSES."

In an article upon a "School of International Exhibitions" Dick May explains the ideas of Prof. Patrick Geddes with regard to the Paris exhibition. Professor Geddes would like to have explanatory lectures for English and American visitors, and also for all visitors to the exhibition—lectures which would be something between the special discussions of the various congresses and Cook's tours. Secondly, he would have a federation of international congresses during the time of the exhibition; and, thirdly, an association formed between universal exhibitions and universities.

Mr. F. A. Whitley explains how we shall shortly cross the Atlantic in three days, a problem which has been solved by an American—James Gresham, of Brooklyn. The Gresham boats will carry only the crew, passengers, and some mails. They will be a kind of passenger steamboat express, fitted with every modern convenience such as electric bells, signals, etc.

THE NEW BOOKS.

RECENT AMERICAN AND FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND POLITICS.

A History of the Spanish-American War of 1898. By Richard H. Titherington. 12mo, pp. 415. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

Mr. Titherington's history of the Spanish-American war may make a valid claim to supersede many of the hastily compiled "histories" that were published immediately after the conclusion of peace. The official reports on both sides have appeared since that time, and the author has founded his work largely upon them. This gives distinct value to his book as a work of reference. Both Spanish and American records have been consulted and cited. The volume is a model of orderly arrangement, and compact and concise treatment of the theme in hand.

The Downfall of Spain: Naval History of the Spanish-American War. By H. W. Wilson. 8vo, pp. 467. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.50.

Mr. H. W. Wilson, the English naval expert and author of "Ironclads in Action," has written a very full account of the naval operations in our late war with Spain. Mr. Wilson declares that on no other naval war as yet waged have we such a wealth of evidence, and this is due to the fact that the United States Navy Department makes public all its information. Mr. Wilson's book is doubtless the better because it has been delayed so long in publication, since the author has been able to avail himself of all the official reports that have appeared from time to time since the close of the war. The volume is illustrated with maps, plans, portraits, and pictures of battleships.

Democracy and Empire: With Studies of Their Psychological, Economic, and Moral Foundations. By Franklin Henry Giddings, M.A., Ph.D. 8vo, pp. 363. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.50.

Some of Professor Giddings' studies, especially those on the questions of expansion and "imperialism," have been noted in former numbers of this REVIEW. Professor Giddings' point of view is that of hopeful faith in democratic institutions. Some of the specific topics of which he treats in this volume are: "Industrial Democracy," "The Trust and the Public," "The Railroads and the State," "Public Revenue and Civic Virtue," "The Destinies of Democracy," "The Relation of Social Democracy to the Higher Education," "The Consent of the Governed," "Imperialism," "The Ideals of Nations," and "The Gospel of Non-Resistance."

The Golden Horseshoe. By Stephen Bonsal. 12mo, pp. 316. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.50.

Under the title of "The Golden Horseshoe" Mr. Stephen Bonsal presents "Extracts from the Letters of Capt. H. L. Herndon of the 21st U. S. Infantry, on duty in the Philippine Islands, and Lieutenant Lawrence Gill, A. D. C., to the Military Governor of Puerto Rico. With a Postscript by J. Sherman, private, Co. D, 21st Infantry." These letters throw much light on the new problems with which the United States has to deal both in the West and the East Indies.

The Anglo-Boer Conflict: Its History and Causes. By Alleyne Ireland. 16mo, pp. 141. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75 cents.

For a compact statement of the causes of the Boer war, from a pro-British point of view, perhaps nothing better can be found than this little monograph by Mr. Alleyne Ireland, author of "Tropical Colonization." In an appendix Mr. Ireland gives a list of books and magazine articles bearing on the subject.

The Transvaal Outlook. By Albert Stickney. 8vo, pp. 139. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

The pro-Boer view of the Transvaal war is vigorously set forth by Mr. Albert Stickney, whose book is chiefly devoted to showing the difficulty of the task before the British, the splendid fighting qualities of the Boers, the character of the ground, the maladministration of the English War Office, and other phases of the struggle.

Economic History: Maryland and the South. (Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.) Herbert B. Adams, Editor. Vol. XVII. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. $3.

The work of the Johns Hopkins University in the department of economic history is well illustrated in the present volume, made up of six monographs, several of which have already been noticed by this REVIEW. The investigations represented by this book were conducted in Maryland and North Carolina.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Life of Edward White Benson, Sometime Archbishop of Canterbury. By Arthur Christopher Benson. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 664—859. New York: The Macmillan Company. $8.

This two-volume life of the Archbishop of Canterbury contains correspondence with a great number of eminent Englishmen of the past half-century, together with extracts from the Archbishop's diary. A most remarkable legacy to his heirs was this diary which the Archbishop left—so detailed as to form an autobiography in itself. The son has incorporated long extracts from this document in the present work, but much remains unpublished—and considering the writer's outspokenness, it may be just as well for the peace of mind of certain staid and respectable Englishmen yet among the living. At the end of the second volume is a bibliography, together with an elaborate index.

Rajah Brooke. By Sir Spenser St. John. 12mo, pp. xxiv—302. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.

Sir James Brooke has a place in the "Builders of Greater Britain" series, not because of any great extension of British territory due to his influence, but because he was indirectly the means of making England's influence felt among independent Asiatic states. Although "Rajah" Brooke had but a short term as a British official in Borneo, he did much to establish a model system of British colonial administration among the Malays. He always treated the natives as far as possible as equals, not only before the law but in society. His success as an administrator makes the revived study of his career in this era of colonial expansion peculiarly appropriate.

Charles Sumner. By Moorfield Storey. 16mo, pp. 406. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

It was not to be expected that the biographer of Charles Sumner in the "American Statesmen" series would be able to produce much new material after the exhaustive labors of Pierce and other writers. Mr. Moorfield Storey has evidently striven to avoid the errors of some of his predecessors. The time for indiscriminate eulogy of Sumner is past. Mr. Storey does not disguise his warm admiration for the solid moral traits of Sumner's character. He believes that from the time Sumner entered public life until he died "he was a strong force constantly working for righteousness." Probably it is not too much to say that Sumner gave his life to se-

cure the tardy recognition of the principles laid down in the Declaration of Independence. To Sumner more than to any other single man, except possibly Lincoln, in Mr. Storey's opinion, the colored race owes its emancipation. He also ascribes to Sumner the prevention of war with England and France in 1862, and yet Mr. Storey is not disposed to blink the obvious limitations under which Sumner labored. Some of the quotations which he makes from Sumner's speeches in the Senate, even after allowance is made for the heat of debate, will not tend to enhance the respect of this generation for Sumner's wisdom or statesmanship. Wholly lacking in the sense of humor, Sumner at times, in excess of zeal for the condemnation of what he believed to be evil courses of conduct in others, was led into personalities and acrimonies which at this day would hardly be tolerated in a Massachusetts Senator. These things, while not overmastering, were important elements in Sumner's career, and we may easily imagine that any biographer would have preferred to overlook them. Mr. Storey has chosen to tell the whole truth, and to him we are indebted for the most impartial of the briefer biographies of Sumner.

The First American: His Homes and His Households. By Leila Herbert. 12mo, pp. xx—141. New York: Harper & Brothers. $2.

These delightful sketches of Washington's home life are the work of the late Miss Leila Herbert, daughter of the ex-Secretary of the Navy. The preface of the volume is a sympathetic memoir of the author, written by Miss Molly Elliot Seawell. The book is beautifully illustrated.

Thomas Paine. By Ellery Sedgwick. ("The Beacon Biographies.") 24mo, pp. 165. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75 cents.

A most difficult task was assigned to the biographer of Thomas Paine in the series of "Beacon Biographies of Eminent Americans." Almost everything heretofore published about Paine has been controversial; each one of his biographers was either a detractor or a eulogist. It seemed almost impossible for the American people to form a sane and steadfast opinion as to Paine's character and career. Mr. Sedgwick has purposed to tell Paine's story without bias and without argument. He indeed acknowledges a certain enthusiasm for Paine's genius and a lively recognition of his great services to liberty; but at the same time he does not hesitate to set down his faults frankly and fully as he estimates them. The exhaustive biography of Paine by Moncure D. Conway, published in 1892, is the chief basis of Mr. Sedgwick's little book, but the deductions of that writer are not followed in their entirety. Beyond question Mr. Sedgwick's work is altogether the best brief life of Paine that has been published.

Sir Arthur Sullivan: Life Story, Letters, and Reminiscences. By Arthur Lawrence. 8vo, pp. 352. New York: Herbert S. Stone & Co. $3.50.

This memoir of Sir Arthur Sullivan contains much material of special interest to music lovers. The chapter on "Sullivan as a Composer" is contributed by Mr. B. W. Findon. There is also a complete list of Sir Arthur Sullivan's work compiled by Mr. Wilfrid Bendall. In the body of the work are many interesting anecdotes of the composer, several of which relate to his travels in the United States after the remarkable triumph of "Pinafore" and other popular operas.

Honorè de Balzac's Letters to Madame Hanska. Translated by Katharine Prescott Wormeley. 12mo, pp. 774. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co. $1.50.

The translator of Balzac's works has brought out a volume of Balzac's letters to Madame Hanska, who afterwards became his wife. The letters were written during the years 1833-46. Miss Wormeley's acknowledged success in translating Balzac's masterpieces has qualified her for the delicate and exacting task of rendering these letters into clear and beautiful English.

Letters of Thomas Gray, Selected. With a Biographical Notice. By Henry Milnor Rideout. 16mo, pp. xxx—222. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.

Mr. Rideout has prefaced these selections from the letters of Thomas Gray with a brief biographical notice. The text of the letters is that of Mr. Edmund Gosse's four-volume edition of Gray's works. Thus we have presented in small compass many of the epistolary models of one of the acknowledged masters of that form of literature in the eighteenth century.

Samson Occom and the Christian Indians of New England. By W. DeLoss Love, Ph.D. 12mo, pp. 390. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.50.

Dr. Love's account of the Christian Indians of New England begins with the work of Eliot and Wheelock and the founding of Dartmouth College, which at first was an Indian charity school. The story of the missions to the Oneidas and Senecas in New York State is then told, and the Indian settlements at Stockbridge and Brothertown are described at length. Finally the last move of these New England Indians to Wisconsin is related, and an appendix of curious interest contains the family history of the remnants of the Brothertown Indians. These Indians have been represented in the Wisconsin Legislature, and they furnished a large quota of soldiers for the Civil War.

RELIGION.

The Man of Galilee: A Biographical Study of the Life of Jesus Christ. By Frank W. Gunsaulus, D.D. 8vo, pp. 698. Chicago: Monarch Book Company. $2.50.

In this work Dr. Gunsaulus has attempted a realistic portrait of Jesus. While his point of view is, of course, distinctly Christian, the result of his writing and thinking is comparable with such a work as Renan's rather than with the lives of Christ which have been constructed on the traditional and conventional lines. There is a striking absence of theological discussion in Dr. Gunsaulus' pages, but the book is full of the actual doings and sayings of Christ. The volume is artistically printed and illustrated.

A Problem in New Testament Criticism. By Melancthon Williams Jacobus, D.D. 12mo, pp. 285. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

This is a volume of lectures by Professor Jacobus to the faculty and students at Princeton. These lectures contain many interesting suggestions concerning the Pauline philosophy and its relations to Christ's teachings.

A History of New Testament Times in Palestine, 175 B.C.–70 A.D. By Shailer Mathews, A.M. 12mo, pp. 229. New York: The Macmillan Company. 75 cents.

In the series of "New Testament Handbooks" Prof. Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago, contributes a compact and highly useful history of the Jews during the two centuries before and the first century after the birth of Christ. Such a work as this is the more needed because of the notable lack of authoritative histories in the English language covering this period.

The Social Meaning of Modern Religious Movements in England. By Thomas C. Hall, D.D. 12mo, pp. 298. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

This volume of Union Seminary lectures by Dr. Hall is devoted to a discussion of the Methodist movement in England and its relations to social reform, the Broad Church movement, and the High Church reaction, the whole forming an unusually interesting review of English religious development from the social point of view.

Puritan Preaching in England: A Study of Past and Present. By John Brown, B.A., D.D. 12mo, pp. 290. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

The Lyman Beecher lectures on preaching at Yale University in 1899 were delivered by Dr. John Brown, whose

study of "Puritan Preaching in England" can hardly fail to interest all descendants of the Puritans in America. Dr. Brown does not confine his survey to the Puritans of past generations, but includes such representative modern preachers as Thomas Binney, Charles H. Spurgeon, R. W. Dale, and Alexander Maclaren.

The Christian and Civic Economy of Large Towns. By Thomas Chalmers, D.D., LL.D. Abridged and with an Introduction by Charles R. Henderson. 12mo, pp. 350. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

This abridgment of Dr. Chalmers' classic in modern philanthropy is prefaced by a biographical and critical essay from the pen of Prof. Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago. Professor Henderson analyzes Chalmers' teachings, amplifying the more important contributions to modern social movements.

Theism in the Light of Present Science and Philosophy. By James Iverach, M.A., D.D. 12mo, pp. 340. New York: Published for the New York University by the Macmillan Company. $1.50.

This volume contains the inaugural series of lectures given upon the Charles F. Deems foundation at the New York University last year by Prof. James Iverach of the Free Church College, Scotland. The lecturer's point of view is essentially that of the late Professor Drummond.

Interpretations of Poetry and Religion. By George Santayana. 12mo, pp. 300. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

These papers have been revised and gathered together by the author for the furtherance of the idea that religion and poetry are essentially identical, differing merely in the way in which they are attached to practical affairs. "Poetry is called religion when it intervenes in life, and religion, when it merely supervenes upon life, is seen to be nothing but poetry."

SCIENCE.

The Principles of Biology. By Herbert Spencer. Vol. II. 12mo, pp. 675. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2.

The revision of Mr. Herbert Spencer's "Principles of Biology," which first appeared in 1867, has now been completed, and the second volume has just come from the press of Appleton. The immense progress of the science, which may be almost said to have been developed in England and America since the publication of the first edition of Mr. Spencer's work, has necessitated many changes and additions, though these are less notable in the second volume than in the first. The scientific world is to be congratulated that the venerable author has survived many years of invalidism and has been able to make this final and thorough revision of his work.

A Manual of Zoology. By T. Jeffrey Parker and William A. Haswell. 12mo, pp. 563. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.60.

This manual, prepared by two professors in Australian universities who were also the authors of a more elaborate "Text-Book of Zoology," has been revised and adapted for the use of American students. Common American forms of animal life closely similar to the European or Australasian ones described in the English edition have been mentioned, so that the student can use the book in examining the allied typical forms from his own country. The American editor has also revised and corrected views or statements not believed to be correct.

Outlines of the Comparative Physiology and Morphology of Animals. By Joseph Le Conte. 12mo, pp. 517. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2.

Prof. Joseph Le Conte, of the University of California, has attempted in this volume to give a general view of the physiology and morphology of the animal kingdom. Most of the text-books of this character had been superseded by the rapid progress of recent years in the scientific study of the subject. Most of the recent books of scientific value have been devoted to the study of selected types. Professor Le Conte's book is not intended to take the place of such works but rather to supplement them. He has intended it to precede and accompany the special laboratory courses of colleges, high schools, and universities. The volume has been carefully illustrated.

The Nature and Work of Plants: An Introduction to the Study of Botany. By Daniel Trembly Macdougal, Ph.D. New York: The Macmillan Company. 80 cents.

With a view to the needs of beginners who have not the facilities of a botanical laboratory Dr. Macdougal has prepared a course of study of the functions or action of the plant, considering the organs chiefly as instruments for the performance of work, with but little attention to their morphology. The use of technical terms is restricted to the actual necessities of logical treatment, and the demonstrations are developed by the simplest experimental methods.

North American Forests and Forestry: Their Relations to the National Life of the American People. By Ernest Bruncken. 8vo, pp. 271. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.

This is a serious study of one of the most pressing economic problems before the American people. It is a practical work, and deals with the many matters of detail that come before boards of forestry commissioners in our States. Such topics as "Forest Finance and Management," "Fighting Fires and Thieves," "Forestry and Taxation," "Reform in Forestry Methods," and "Forestry as a Profession" are intelligently discussed.

Recent Advances in Astronomy. By Alfred H. Fison, D.Sc. 12mo, pp. 242. New York: Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.25.

The author of this book has compromised between an historical and a purely descriptive method, dealing with a few of the more interesting problems of modern astronomy in a series of separate essays in which the historical method is followed as far as possible.

The Story of Eclipses. By G. F. Chambers. 16mo, 222. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Flexible cloth, 40 cents.

Apropos of the fact that on the day of the next total eclipse of the sun, May 28, 1900, the line of totality will cross the Southern States, the house of Appleton has published an excellent historical review of all the famous eclipses of the sun, with an appendix containing helpful directions to intending observers in Europe and America.

Nature's Miracles: Familiar Talks on Science. By Elisha Gray, Ph.D., LL.D. Vol. I., World-Building and Life. 16mo, pp. 243. New York: Fords, Howard, & Hulbert. 60 cents.

Dr. Elisha Gray, the well-known electrical inventor, has written out a series of familiar talks on "Nature's Miracles." The first volume of the series deals with earth, air, and water. This little volume is readable and interesting, and is a notable attempt to popularize important scientific truths.

Man and His Ancestor: A Study in Evolution. By Charles Morris. 12mo, pp. 238. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.25.

This little work is a popular study on the subject of evolution. Mr. Morris presents various facts that have been discovered since Darwin wrote his great work on "The Descent of Man." He offers "certain lines of evidence never before presented in this connection;" and while the

conclusions of a writer who has heretofore not been recognized as an authority in this department of research should be accepted with caution, his book will at least be found suggestive and probably, on the whole, in line with the scientific thought of the day.

The Criminal: His Personnel and Environment. A Scientific Study. By August Drähms. 12mo, pp. 416. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.

This volume summarizes the study and experience of an American disciple of Lombroso who is the resident chaplain of the State prison at San Quentin, Cal., where he has had exceptional opportunities for direct personal contact with the subject. Mr. Drähms examines the criminal both in his purely personal aspect and as a social phenomena. In the conclusion of his introduction Professor Lombroso cites this treatise, written by the chaplain of a penitentiary, "as an evidence of the advancement of the American over the ultramontane countries of Europe, where if a clerical could be induced to touch upon such a theme at all it would be only to combat one's theories to the bitter end, even to the extent of employing the weapons of calumny and malice."

HYGIENE.

Care and Treatment of Epileptics. By William Pryor Letchworth, LL.D. 8vo, pp. 257. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.

Readers of the article on "A New York 'Colony of Mercy'" in the March REVIEW OF REVIEWS will be especially interested in the elaborate volume on the "Care and Treatment of Epileptics," by Dr. William P. Letchworth. Dr. Letchworth estimates that there are not less than 113,000 epileptics in the United States. So far only five States have established separate institutions for that portion of this vast number which require special care and treatment. Those of our readers who are interested in promoting the establishment of such institutions should acquaint themselves with Dr. Letchworth's account of the work done in the Ohio and New York institutions in this country, and in some parts of Europe.

La Tuberculose. Par Le Dr. Sicard de Plauzoles. 16mo, pp. 180. Paris: Schleicher Frères. Paper, 1 franc.

Consumption and Chronic Diseases: A Hygienic Cure, at Patient's Home, of Incipient and Advanced Cases. By Emmet Densmore, M.D. 12mo, pp. 198. New York: The Stillman Publishing Co. $1.25.

Each of these brochures—one by a French and the other by an English physician—advocates the adoption of hygienic measures, and especially the "open-air treatment," for the cure of consumption, even in advanced stages. Dr. Densmore's book is intended to encourage the following of such treatment by the patient at his own home. Both works urge the establishment of sanatoria, especially for those classes of patients who are unable to properly treat themselves in their homes.

Healthy Exercise. By Robert H. Greene, M.D. 16mo, pp. 167. New York: Harper & Brothers. $1.

This little book is made up of a physician's practical suggestions on the theory and choice of exercise and baths. It has reference to good health rather than to muscular strength and may be read with profit by every one.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

The Yangtze Valley and Beyond. By Mrs. J. F. Bishop. 2 Vols., 8vo, pp. 410—365. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.

The most recent work of Isabella Bird Bishop, the oriental traveler, is devoted to the Yangtze Valley of China, that portion of the great Empire which is looked upon as peculiarly the British "sphere of influence." These two elaborately illustrated volumes are made up of an account of journeys through that region. Mrs. Bishop's marked ability as a narrator of travel and adventure in strange lands has been well exemplified in previous volumes from her pen. Few writers have been able to contribute so much to our knowledge of modern and actual China. The journeys of which these volumes form a record were undertaken for recreation and interest solely, not at all for purposes of bookmaking, and were completed in 1897. Most of the illustrations in the work are reproductions from photographs taken by Mrs. Bishop herself.

Hawaii and Its People. By Alexander S. Twombly. 12mo, pp. 384. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. 68 cents.

In this volume Dr. Twombly describes modern Hawaii from recent personal observation, giving pen pictures of scenery, native products, and the people, and also narrates what is important in the authentic history of the islands, including the political agitations and the changes of modern times. The book is chiefly intended for younger readers, but can hardly fail to attract many older people who are interested in the subject. The illustrations are from photographs.

Glimpses Across the Sea. By Sam T. Clover. Square 12mo, pp. 154. Evanston, Illinois: Windiknowe Publishing Company.

This little book contains some breezy sketches of London and Paris as seen by an American tourist. Intending visitors to the Paris Exposition this coming summer will find its pages suggestive.

EDUCATION.

The Kindergarten in a Nutshell. By Nora Archibald Smith. 24mo, pp. 134. New York: Doubleday & McClure Company. 50 cents.

Mrs. Nora Archibald Smith, the joint author with her sister, Kate Douglas Wiggin, of "The Republic of Childhood" and other books relating to the kindergarten system, has written a small handbook telling exactly what the kindergarten is, describing its methods, and making many suggestions for the adaptation of the kindergarten idea in the home and the community. This is a reduction of the whole subject to its lowest terms, and should be consulted by all who wish accurate and complete information on a subject which has been frequently misunderstood. It is eminently a practical book and is addressed to practical needs.

Handbook of Domestic Science and Household Arts. Edited by Lucy Langdon Williams Wilson. With a Preface by Mrs. Ellen H. Richards. 12mo, pp. xiii—407. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.

Several experienced teachers have coöperated in this volume to put in convenient form for the use of other teachers material relating to domestic science. In schools where this subject is taught the book will be found to have a practical value.

School Sanitation and Decoration. By Severance Burrage and Henry Turner Bailey. 12mo, pp. xvi—191. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.50.

This book is the work of two experts in their respective fields, and has to do with the important subjects of health and beauty in their relation to public schools. Practical suggestions are offered on the location and construction of school buildings, the principles of ventilating, heating and lighting, sanitary arrangements, and school furniture, while plans for the decoration of the school room are outlined, lists of pictures and casts presented, and many helpful suggestions made for the beautification of the school room. The volume is beautifully illustrated.

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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

Ains. Ainslee's Magazine, N. Y.
ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.
AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y.
AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.
AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago.
ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis.
AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.
AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.
ANat. American Naturalist, Boston.
AngA. Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.
AngS. Anglo-Saxon Review, N. Y.
Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.
APB. Anthony's Photographic Bulletin, N. Y.
APS. Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y.
Arena. Arena, N. Y.
AA. Art Amateur, N. Y.
AE. Art Education, N. Y.
AI. Art Interchange, N. Y.
AJ. Art Journal, London.
Art. Artist, London.
Atlant. Atlantic Monthly, Boston.
Bad. Badminton, London.
BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London.
BankNY Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
Bib. Biblical World, Chicago.
BSac. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.
BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.
Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.
BTJ. Board of Trade Journal, London.
BB. Book Buyer, N. Y.
Bkman. Bookman, N. Y.
BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto.
Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London.
CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.
Cath. Catholic World, N. Y.
Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y.
Cham. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh.
Char. Charities Review, N. Y.
Chaut. Chautauquan, Cleveland, O.
CAge. Coming Age, Boston.
Cons. Conservative Review, Washington.
Contem. Contemporary Review, London.
Corn. Cornhill, London.
Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y.
Crit. Critic, N. Y.
DH. Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg.
Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.
Dial. Dial, Chicago.
Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin.
Edin. Edinburgh Review, London.
Ed. Education, Boston.
EdR. Educational Review, N. Y.
Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
EM. España Moderna, Madrid.
Fort. Fortnightly Review, London.
Forum. Forum, N. Y.
FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.
Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London.
GBag. Green Bag, Boston.
Gunt. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.
Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y.
Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn.
Home. Home Magazine, N. Y.
Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y.
HumN. Humanité Nouvelle, Paris.
Int. International, Chicago.
IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila.
IntM. International Monthly, N. Y.
IntS. International Studio, N. Y.
IA. Irrigation Age, Chicago.
JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.
JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.
Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.
KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.
LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.
LeisH. Leisure Hour, London.
Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.
LQ. London Quarterly Review, London.
Long. Longman's Magazine, London.
Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.
McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y.
Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London.
MA. Magazine of Art, London.
MRN. Methodist Review, Nashville.
MRNY. Methodist Review, N. Y.
Mind. Mind, N. Y.
MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston.
MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y.
Mon. Monist, Chicago.
MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.
Mus. Music, Chicago.
NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
NatM. National Magazine, Boston.
NatR. National Review, London.
NC. New-Church Review, Boston.
NEng. New England Magazine, Boston.
NIM. New Illustrated Magazine, London.
NW. New World, Boston.
NineC. Nineteenth Century, London.
NAR. North American Review, N. Y.
Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome.
OC. Open Court, Chicago.
O. Outing, N. Y.
Out. Outlook, N. Y.
Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y.
PhoT. Photographic Times, N. Y.
PL. Poet-Lore, Boston.
PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
PRR. Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila.
PQ. Presbyterian Quarterly, Charlotte, N. C.
QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
QR. Quarterly Review, London.
RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
Record. Record of Christian Work, East Northfield, Mass.
RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris.
RRL. Review of Reviews, London.
RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
RDP. Revue du Droit Public, Paris.
RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels.
RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris.
RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
RRP. Revue des Revues, Paris.
RSoc. Revue Socialiste, Paris.
RPL. Rivista Politica e Letteraria, Rome.
Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
San. Sanitarian, N. Y.
School. School Review, Chicago.
Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
SelfC. Self Culture, Akron, Ohio.
SR. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Str. Strand Magazine, London.
Sun. Sunday Magazine, London
Temp. Temple Bar, London.
USM. United Service Magazine, London.
West. Westminster Review, London.
Wern. Werner's Magazine, N. Y.
WWM. Wide World Magazine, London.
WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Yale. Yale Review, New Haven.
YM. Young Man, London.
YW. Young Woman, London.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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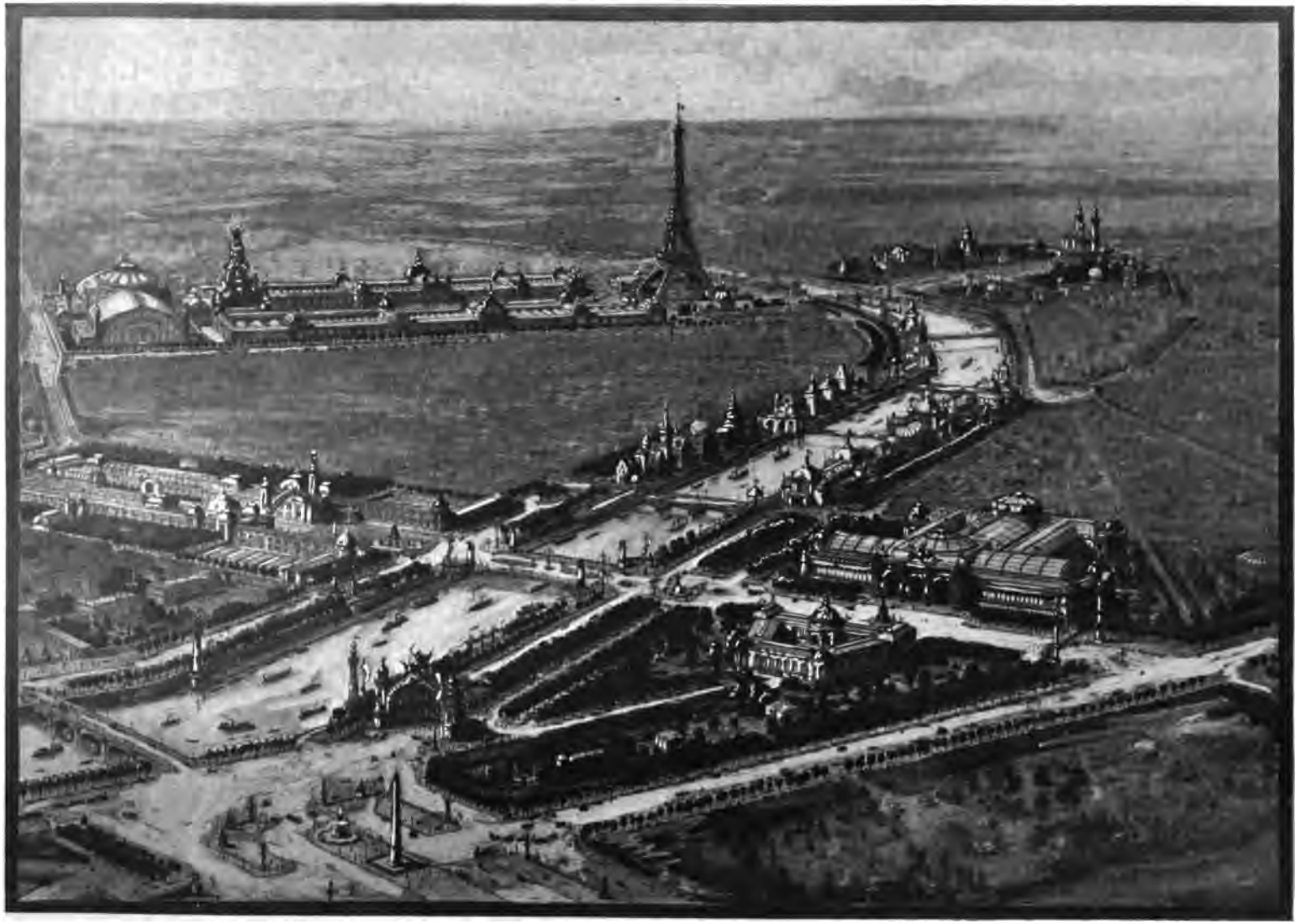
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A GENERAL VIEW OF THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1900.

(The buildings are grouped on either side of the river Seine. The main entrance is in the left foreground of our picture, opening out on the Place de la Concorde. The United States Government Building is in the row along the right bank of the Seine.)

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Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Admiral Dewey's Candidacy.

Our American political circles were treated to a highly sensational surprise by the appearance, on the morning of April 4, in the New York *World*, of an authorized announcement that Admiral Dewey would be a candidate this year for the Presidency of the United States. There was a period of some months—before and after Dewey's return from his long vigil at Manila—when politicians of all parties considered his prestige so high that the Presidency was easily within his reach if he chose to be a candidate. The slate-makers were anxiously inquiring as to his party preferences. But nobody seemed to be able to answer that question conclusively, although most of his old friends said that his affiliations had always been Republican. Many Democrats, however, who were opposed to Mr. Bryan's views were anxious to secure Dewey as the Democratic candidate; and it was understood that some of them had met him and conferred with him on that subject as he was touching at one port after another on his leisurely return through the Mediterranean. At that time the gallant admiral had no aspirations toward civil office. He plainly stated that he was not qualified for such responsibilities, had no tastes that would lead him to enter the field of presidential politics, and absolutely renounced all thought of becoming a candidate. This announcement, of course, was made in perfect good faith, and it was accepted by the whole country as conclusive. It was also the opinion of those who admired the admiral most that his decision was a further mark of that well-poised judgment for which he had gained so much credit.

The Admiral's Prestige.

When Congress revived for his benefit the rank of Admiral of the Navy, and he was designated to this great office as a life position, he had received honor and recognition that might well have been regarded as filling his cup to overflowing. So unbounded was the confidence of the country in his good sense and knowledge of the questions at stake, that a great part of the public opinion of America reserved judgment upon the questions whether or not we were rightly in the Philippines, and whether or not we ought to stay there, until the admiral should speak plainly in conjunction with his colleagues of the Philippine Commission. The country, of course, was prepared to give due respect to the findings of President Schurman and the other members; but



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ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY.
(From his latest photograph.)

every one knows that it was Dewey's signature that gave weight to the preliminary report of the commission last October. The country has not ceased to entertain very loyal and devoted regard for the splendid sailor and commander who served his country so boldly in destroying the Spanish fleet at Manila, and so discreetly in the long and tedious months that followed. But ecstatic hero-worship is not a continuing mood. No American in his lifetime, not even Washington or Lincoln, ever experienced the sensation of being idolatrously worshiped by his fellow citizens with unflagging zest for more than a few days at a time. It is a practical world, and there are many things demanding attention. And thus, while we do not mean to neglect our heroes, we cannot make it our business to think of them all the time. Last year the whole country was thinking of Dewey with such ardor that if the presidential election had occurred then, and his name had been before the people, nobody would have cared to run against him, and his election would have been practically unanimous. But enthusiasm has cooled down, and people are thinking more of business and less of glory. They have resumed their more or less sharp differences of political opinion, and are not in the mood for electing a hero regardless of his politics.

His Notable Manifesto.

Admiral Dewey's statement in the New York *World* purported to be in answer to a request asking him to express himself in view of the many conflicting reports relative to his attitude toward the nomination for the Presidency. The document has permanent interest, and is brief enough to quote here in full. It is as follows:

"Yes; I realize that the time has arrived when I must definitely define my position.

"When I arrived in this country last September I said then that nothing would induce me to be a candidate for the Presidency.

"Since then, however, I have had the leisure and inclination to study the matter and have reached a different conclusion, inasmuch as so many assurances have come to me from my countrymen that I would be acceptable as a candidate for this great office.

"If the American people want me for this high office, I shall be only too willing to serve them.

"It is the highest honor in the gift of this nation; what citizen would refuse it?

"Since studying this subject I am convinced that the office of the President is not such a very difficult one to fill, his duties being mainly to execute the laws of Congress.

"Should I be chosen for this exalted position I would execute the laws of Congress as faithfully as I have always executed the orders of my superiors."

"Is there any political significance in your trips West?" the *World* correspondent asked.

"No; I am simply filling the engagements made months ago—long before I ever thought seriously of the Presidency."

"On what platform will you stand?"

"I think I have said enough at this time, and possibly too much."

Its Reception and Effects.

The foregoing statement drew from politicians and newspapers the almost unanimous verdict that the platform this year is more important than the candidate, and that even so great a citizen and public favorite as George Dewey must say plainly whether he would seek the Republican, the Democratic, or an independent nomination, and, further, must express himself clearly on the leading issues of the day, before he could be fairly entitled to have his candidacy taken with seriousness. Subsequently, from day to day, the admiral committed himself further until he made it distinctly known that he regarded himself as a Democrat and sought the support of the body which will hold its convention at Kansas City on July 4, which everybody had supposed would nominate Mr. William J. Bryan, either by acclamation or else on the first ballot. Some of those interviewed by the newspapers who treated Dewey's candidacy with the most respect criticised his conception of the presidential office as altogether inadequate. His theory that the duty of the President is merely to execute the laws that Congress enacts is remarkably similar to the view that Mr. Grover Cleveland expressed in his first letter of acceptance in 1884; but a brief experience in the presidential office soon convinced Mr. Cleveland that a very great part of his business was to have policies and to urge them. Undoubtedly, Admiral Dewey's long experience in a highly disciplined service like



BRYAN: "Dewey's candidacy does not concern me, but I wish he'd stop rocking the boat."

From the *Herald* (New York).

the navy has given him fitness for certain kinds of executive work. But the governmental business of a country like ours is so vast that the executive work comes to be parceled out among a great number of high officials. The President himself succeeds or fails in the executive part of his work in the ratio of the wisdom he shows in the selection of men. The ability to exercise wisely the appointing power usually calls for a long experience in politics and public office, and a wide acquaintance with men throughout the country. Apart from the exercise of the appointing power, the President's chief business may be said to lie in the making of decisions relating to a vast number of questions of policy of greater or less importance. It would therefore seem highly doubtful whether a high officer, either of the navy, like Dewey, or of the regular army, like Miles, whose life has been strictly devoted to the service to which he belongs, would be preëminently fitted to fill the position of President of the United States, especially in view of the kind of work that will fall to the presidential office in the next four years.

Dewey Versus Bryan.

The Republicans have fully expected to nominate President McKinley. That point is so definitely agreed upon among the men who will have the prevailing influence in the selection of delegates to the Philadelphia convention, that there has not been in any Republican quarter an open suggestion of any name to be presented in opposition to that of McKinley. It is plain, also, that the Republicans are fully reconciled to the prospect of having Mr. Bryan head the Democratic ticket. They believe that there is a strong conservative Democratic element that will vote for McKinley as against Bryan, and that Republican success under such circumstances will be fairly well assured. There are many Democrats in the East who had until several months ago continued to hope that some way might be found to prevent Mr. Bryan's nomination. But they had almost all of them come to the conclusion that Bryan could not by any possibility be defeated in the Democratic convention, when Dewey's announcement revived their hopes. Some of our readers may need to be reminded of the so-called two-thirds rule that always prevails in the national Democratic conventions, by virtue of which a simple majority cannot nominate, as in a Republican convention. One more man than a third of the body can prevent a nomination. Thus the Kansas City convention will have 930 delegates. If Mr. Bryan should control 619, but no more, he would fail to get the nomination. Some of the independent Democrats, especially in the East, at once seized upon Dewey's candidacy as a possible means, not necessarily of nominating the admiral, but of keeping Bryan's majority below the two-thirds line, and thus deadlocking the convention until some dark horse might be brought forward as a successful compromise. The fact that Admiral Dewey's wife is a sister of Mr. John R. MacLean, who is the most active organizer of the Democratic forces of Ohio, naturally gave rise to the impression that Mr. MacLean and other Democratic politicians of experience and ability were among those who had persuaded the admiral to be a candidate.

How Puerto Rico Will Be Governed.

After a long debate under the leadership of Mr. Foraker, of Ohio, the Senate on April 3 passed a bill providing a civil government and a revenue system for the island of Puerto Rico. The measure



HON. J. B. FORAKER.
(Senator from Ohio.)

proposes a framework of government modeled in a general way upon the familiar plan of government in our Territories. The civil authorities will consist of—(1) a governor, appointed by the President of the United States; (2) an executive council, which will also serve as an upper branch of the lawmaking body; (3) a chamber of delegates, which will be the lower branch. The island will be divided into seven districts, each of which will elect five representatives to this chamber of delegates, which will thus consist of thirty-five members. The executive

council, which will also have the character of a senate, will be an appointive body, and will include the principal department chiefs, such as the secretary, attorney-general, treasurer, auditor, commissioner of education, and commissioner of the interior, besides several others who may not hold executive portfolios. Five members of this council must be natives of Puerto Rico, and all are to be appointed by the President of the United States and confirmed by the Senate. The voters of the island will be those citizens who had decided before the 12th of April to give up their allegiance to the Spanish Crown, together with such citizens of the United States as may have taken up their residence in Puerto Rico. This system will give the people of Puerto Rico an abundant opportunity to show their political capacity, while enabling the President of the United States to interpose to such an extent as he may find necessary at any time. A supreme court is to be established in Puerto Rico analogous in every way to the supreme court of a Territory like Oklahoma or Arizona, and appeals from it may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States. In addition to this there is to be a district court of the United States for Puerto Rico, presided over by a judge who will be regarded as a member of the federal judiciary.

Virtually a Territorial Form.

Thus it will be seen that for all practical purposes the civil administration and system of justice in Puerto Rico will be similar to those of a United States Territory. Each of our Territories is permitted to send to Washington a delegate, who has a seat in the House of Representatives without a vote. This bill proposes that the qualified voters of Puerto Rico shall elect an official who will be known as the Resident Commissioner to the United States, whose relations, it would appear, are to be with the executive rather than the legislative branch of our national Government, but whose salary is to be paid out of the Treasury at Washington, like that of a delegate from a Territory. However open the plan may be to criticism in points of detail, it would seem, like the Hawaiian project which we described last month, to be good enough for practical purposes. With the election of one house of the legislature in their own hands, the native Puerto Ricans can almost at once exercise full control over the ordinary laws under which they must live. Whether or not the native Puerto Ricans are to have a majority in the executive council must depend upon the discretion of the President of the United States. In any case it is supposed that they will have practically half of the executive council, although this will be by appointment rather than by their own choice. It will be very easy in the future, however, when experience has justified it, to change the law and allow the Puerto Ricans to elect a part of the council.

The Protracted Tariff Issue.

The country paid very little attention to the framing of a civil government for Puerto Rico, because of the overshadowing nature of the controversy as to the Puerto Rican tariff. As we have repeatedly stated, it had been the general supposition of the country that in annexing Puerto Rico we were, as a matter of course, giving that island full commercial union as if it were a part of the United States. While waiting for Congress to legislate, there had, under the military government of Puerto Rico, gone into effect by executive order a tariff system that was different on the one hand from that which had existed under the Spanish colonial authorities, and on the other hand from that of the United States. In our opinion it would have been both wise and fortunate if those executive modifications of the Puerto Rican tariff had gone to the extent of free trade between the island and this country. What the Puerto Ricans have wanted has been a stable arrangement of some kind, under which their interrupted trade could become reëstablished. The President, in his message to Congress in the first week of December, had declared it our plain duty to remove tariff barriers between Puerto Rico and the United States.



McKINLEY: "Will it cut any ice in the next campaign for me?"—From *Judge* (New York).

The Cabinet undoubtedly held that view. Mr. Payne, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the House, not only concurred, but introduced a bill to that end. Why all these Republican authorities at Washington changed their minds, and decided that there must, after all, be a tariff between Puerto Rico and this country, has never been explained in a way that has been quite satisfactory to the sincerely inquiring mind. The advocates of the duty readily agreed to so low a scale as 15 per cent. of the rates that would have been due if the full Dingley tariff had gone into force. Then they made the concession that this tariff should be levied for only two years. Finally, in the bill as passed by the Senate, it was further conceded that these duties will be remitted in favor of entire free trade if at any time the Puerto Rican Government shall have established a system of internal taxation that suffices to give the island a revenue sufficient for ordinary necessities.

No Hardship to Puerto Rico.

Meanwhile the 15 per cent. of the Dingley rates that will be collected in Puerto Rico on goods brought there from the United States will be paid into the Puerto Rican treasury for the exclusive benefit of the island. On the other hand, the 15 per cent. of the Dingley rates that will be collected by our Atlantic seaboard custom-houses on goods brought here from Puerto Rico will be scrupulously sent to the island, also for the exclusive benefit of the Puerto Ricans. Goods from European and other foreign countries brought to Puerto Rico will pay the Dingley tariff rates, exactly as if brought to New York. Now let nobody feel in conscience bound to say that in passing such a bill we have selfishly and wickedly broken faith with the people of Puerto Rico, and have invented an oppressive scheme for taxing them without their consent. A great deal of this sort of accusation has appeared in the newspapers, and it is remote from the truth. Under the arrangement provided by the bill, the Puerto Ricans will enjoy the stability and general protection assured them under the sovereignty of the United States, without paying a penny, directly or indirectly, of federal taxes. The small duty they will pay on imports from the United States simply gives them an easy and convenient way to raise taxes for their local expenses of administration, schools, and public works. As for the tax that will be collected in the United States on imports from Puerto Rico, this—according to the unanimous opinion of all American free-trade authorities for the past half-century—will come out of the pockets of the people of the United States. Thus, to the full extent of this tariff on imports from Puerto Rico, we shall be levying a tax upon ourselves for the benefit of the islanders, inasmuch as we are sending the proceeds to them. It is true that they have wanted free trade, so as to be put, as far as possible, in the position of citizens of the United States. But apart from sentiment, and as a purely financial proposition, they would find it hard to prove that free trade would be as advantageous to their island treasury as this arrangement which gives their products easy access to the American market, while enabling them to collect a tax from the people of the United States on the entire volume of their export trade. An impartial analysis of all the facts in this most protracted and curious piece of recent lawmaking at Washington would seem to lead to the conclusion that, for some reason carefully held in reserve, the Republican party preferred to be generous rather than to be merely just. Senators Davis and Nelson of Minnesota, Mason of Illinois, Wellington of Maryland, Proctor of Vermont, and Simon of Oregon voted with the Democrats against the bill on its final passage, having held out to the last for the more simple and obvious plan of free trade. The bill was passed in the Senate by a vote of 40 to 31, and was at once taken up by the House of Representatives, which adopted its provisions without modification, after a spirited debate, by a vote of 161 to 153. The measure became a law by the President's signature on April 12. President McKinley promptly nominated for the post of civil governor of the island Assistant Secretary Allen, of the Navy Department, whose career and qualifications are sketched in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Mr. Henry Macfarland. The inauguration of Governor Allen will take place at San Juan on May 1, when the new law goes into effect.

Alaska's Proposed Government.

The present session of Congress is likely to be memorable in the constitutional and political history of the United States as one occupied with an exceptionally large amount of constructive legislation. Thus, besides the measures intended to provide full schemes of executive, legislative, financial, and judiciary administration for Puerto Rico in the Atlantic and Hawaii in the Pacific, there has been pending a very important governmental code for Alaska. The debates, moreover, have embraced the creation of a system of local governments for the various parts of the great Philippine Archipelago, and the government, present and future, of Cuba. The necessity of providing a more complete framework of government for Alaska than has heretofore existed has become urgent through the rapid influx not only of gold-seekers,

but also of energetic men who are able and willing to do pioneer work in the development of various other Alaskan resources. We are only beginning to guess at the variety of ways in which this northerly possession of ours can be made to yield wealth to the hardy and adventurous men who dare to face exposure and danger, and who come of a race that has done pioneer work across the whole breadth of our continent. We describe in a succeeding paragraph an interesting experiment in stocking the Alaskan Islands with foxes. This may bring it about that the equivalent of what has been lost to us of our great fur-seal industry through international complications may come back to us in the unexpected form of valuable fur-bearing animals regularly bred upon island dots heretofore regarded as without utility. As for the mineral wealth of Alaska, the marvelous discovery of gold in the sands of the Cape Nome beach has already attracted thousands of people, and it is probable that within another year there will be a large and thriving town on that distant Arctic shore. It has sometimes been said, particularly by the opponents of an expansion policy, that the people of the United States have shown themselves incapable of providing for the proper government of acquired territory by their failure to establish a suitable government in Alaska. Such criticisms have no conclusive value. It is only within the past two or three years that the rush of population to that vast region has created new conditions that must be met by more elaborate plans of government.

The Carter Bill.

The measure entitled "A Bill Making Further Provision for a Civil Government for Alaska, and for Other Purposes," introduced by Senator Carter, of Montana, is in effect both a Territorial constitution and a code of law. It seems to have been very carefully devised to meet actual conditions. It makes Alaska a "civil and judicial district" under the executive administration of a governor, appointed, as at present, by the President of the United States, with an exceptionally large range of discretion and authority, owing to the remoteness of Alaska from the seat of our government at Washington. The surveyor-general of Alaska is to be *ex-officio* secretary of the district, and to perform such duties as are assigned to secretaries of Territories. There is to be a district court with three district judges, one of the judges residing at Juneau, another at St. Michael's, and another at Circle City, the first one holding court alternately at Juneau and Skagway. These judges have authority to appoint commissioners throughout Alaska who are to act as justices of the peace, recorders, and



Photo by Bell.

HON. THOMAS H. CARTER.
(Senator from Montana.)

probate judges, and perform various duties, civil and criminal, of a kind imposed by law on United States commissioners. In view of the territorial extent of Alaska and the wide dispersion of the people, it is obvious that these commissioners will have a great deal of importance in the maintenance of law and the protection of rights. There will be an attorney-general for Alaska, and three district-attorneys, one for each of the judicial divisions, with subordinates that we need not here specify. There is also due provision for marshals and deputy-marshals for the efficient execution of the law and of the orders of the judges and commissioners. The important officers besides the governor—such, for example, as the surveyor-general, the attorneys, judges, and principal clerks and marshals—are to be appointed by the President of the United States with the confirmation of the Senate, and are to hold their offices for four years.

Local Government Provided.

While this measure makes full provision for executive and judicial administration, it does not provide for a lawmaking body. The proper time does not seem yet to have come for the holding of general elections in Alaska. For the present, Congress must continue to serve as the legislature of the Territory. Last year there was a very complete code of criminal law provided for Alaska, and this Carter bill, which forms a document of more than 600 pages, comprises a seemingly complete, simple, and workable code of civil law and pro-

cedure for dealing satisfactorily with all questions that are likely to arise. Due provision is made for the incorporation of any community having 300 permanent inhabitants, the process being a petition, signed by not less than 60 *bona-fide* residents, to the United States judge of the district in which the community is situated. The judge has authority to make final decision as to the boundaries and the name of the town, and to give notice of an election at which the people will decide for or against incorporation. The first election will choose a common council of seven members, the voters being male citizens of the United States, and also those who have declared their intention to become citizens; provided these men have lived in Alaska for a year, and in the community that is to be incorporated for six months. In the first election, however, that is to decide on the question of incorporation, the voters will be limited to those having substantial property interests. These municipal corporations are to take the simplest, and therefore probably the best, possible form. The voters are merely to elect a council, and the council itself will designate one of its own members, who shall be *ex-officio* mayor. The council will also appoint, and at its own pleasure remove, a treasurer, a secretary, an assessor, and such other officers as are deemed necessary. The councilors are chosen for terms of one year, and no officials are to be appointed for longer terms.

A Statesmanlike Measure.

It is highly refreshing to see such good sense as is shown in all these provisions. Far from showing American incapacity for the framing of administrative laws, it is our opinion that this entire measure for Alaska shows sagacity and good judgment of a very high order. It is free from the fault of creating needless offices, and it leaves the system to be established elastic enough so that men in authority may not be unduly hampered in the exercise of necessary discretion. Alaska is not settled down enough yet for a legislature; but all present aspirations for home-rule will be satisfied by the ease with which fully self-governing municipalities may be formed in every little neighborhood. In the course of a very few years it will be feasible, undoubtedly, to allow these self-governing neighborhoods to send their delegates to a general Alaskan assembly, upon which Congress will in due time confer such law-making and administrative authority as circumstances may require.

The Rush to Nome.

The recent sensational developments of the gold-bearing sea-beach at Cape Nome have not affected the popular imagination to any such extent as the Klondike Eldorado; but from present indications, the coming summer will see an even greater emigration to Nome than any season has brought to the region about Dawson City. More than twenty thousand passages to Cape Nome have already been engaged by prospectors from many different States and Territories, and it is estimated the season will probably bring 40,000 to 50,000 gold-seekers to that far-away shore of Behring Sea. As each emigrant miner must spend, on the average, $200 for transportation, equipment, and living, the transaction in its entirety will show a loss unless the three months of the season produce $10,000,000 of gold. The operations of 1899 showed an estimated average of something over $20 per day per man; and hence, if the deposit of gold along the twenty-five miles of auriferous beach and tundra is at all homogeneous, there can scarcely be a doubt that this total of production will be exceeded. No man can stake a claim on the beach, as the gold deposit lies



LANDING MINERS ON THE BEACH AT CAPE NOME.



NOME, AT THE MOUTH OF THE SNAKE RIVER.

between high-water mark and low-water mark. When Bill is exhausted with his shoveling, Jim will be ready to begin where Bill left off. The beach diggings will be peculiar, therefore, in offering absolutely no opportunity for organized capital to operate on a large scale. Not to be daunted, certain capitalists have planned to send elaborate dredging outfits, which are to be anchored just off the beach, for the purpose of exploiting the ocean bottom, which is said to be of the same auriferous character as the beach. Whether the Nome gold-supply keeps up with its magnificent promise or not, the transportation companies in the spring and summer of 1900 will make fortunes. Canadian shipowners are using every effort to have Cape Nome made a port of entry, in order to share in this lucrative trade—a project which is being vigorously opposed by the people of our Pacific seaboard. Nome itself has no harbor, and the process of discharging passengers and cargoes by lighters and small boats is so highly unsatisfactory, that a company has been formed to build a railroad one hundred miles northwest to Port Clarence, a good harbor. The preliminary surveys have been made, and if the present town of 5,000 inhabitants grows in a few months to one of 40,000, as appears likely, the undertaking will almost certainly be completed.

Fox-Breeding in Alaska.

That Alaska promises to be of service in other ways than producing gold, is shown in the last annual report of Mr. Howard M. Kutchin, the special agent of the treasury in charge of the preservation of the salmon fisheries. A curious and interesting part of the effort to save our valuable wild animals from extinction is to be seen in the breeding of wild foxes on the Alaskan islands. No less than thirty-five of these small bare islands, for each of which the United States charges $100 per year rental, are occupied by the fox farmers. The blue fox had been in the line of extinction with the buffalo, the wild pigeon, and the ruffed grouse. The pelt was a valuable article of commerce, and it was found that the blue fox, unlike the more valuable, but utterly unmanageable, silver variety, could be successfully raised under favorable conditions. The fox-growers pay from $150 to $200 for a pair of breeding animals, and they must wait for a dozen years or more for profits. Then the profits are large and reasonably certain. Each island is in charge of a keeper and two or three native Indian assistants. The animals are fed on unmarketable fish, blubber, and cornmeal, and are trapped in box snares to prevent injury to the breeding individuals. The island of Kadiak alone has now 1,275 foxes bred by an enterprising Long Islander, who is enthusiastic in his work, and who believes the success of this experiment will lead to the partial domestication of many other fur-bearing animals.

The Friends of the Animals.

This spring is seeing other efforts for the preservation of animal life on a more logical and better concerted plan than ever before. The League of American Sportsmen is working with unprecedented vigor over the whole country. Mr. George W. Shields, the president, reports that more than three thousand members of the League have been enrolled in every State and Territory, and gives a most creditable chronicle of their specific achievements—generally in the line of bringing lawbreakers to justice. This task of enforcing the law on unthinking people with guns who shoot birds and animals in the close season, on restaurant-keepers who persist in selling game when the law says they shall not do so, on ruthless Italians who use their Sundays to slaughter robins and song-birds, is always a thankless one, locally, and the men who are brave enough to insist on their duties as wardens of the League should have the effective support of every one who can give it. After an item describing the legal punishment of lawless deer-hounding, the League reports are only too apt to have to add that the barns of the game-warden were promptly burned. Local sentiment in nineteen cases out of twenty favors the game-law breaker when he is brought to justice; but the rapid extinction of birds and animals now makes it simply a question of whether any wild things shall be kept to make laws for. The League of American Sportsmen does not by any means restrict its wardenship to purely game-birds, nor are the notable men who act as vice-presidents merely sportsmen. The platform of the League is "the protection of game- and game fishes, the song, insectivorous, and other innocent birds." Its object is to enforce the laws, and to secure proper legislation where it does not now exist. Its vice-presidents and influential members are such men as Governor Richards, of Wyoming; Dr. C. Hart Merriam, Chief of the Biological Survey; Dr. W. T. Hornaday, of the New York Zoological Society; Governor Roosevelt, of New York; President Jordan, of Stanford University; President Gilman, of Johns Hopkins University; and Mr. Ernest Seton-Thompson, the artist and naturalist, the author of "Wild Animals I Have Known." Mr. Thompson's methods in the chase illustrate the sentiment of a considerable body of the leaguers. He goes hunting with a camera. No one man has done so much as Mr. Thompson in

awaking popular interest in this movement to befriend the animals. His rare understanding of the animals and his sympathetic introduction



ERNEST SETON-THOMPSON.

of his public to the mysteries of wild life, have brought over the whole country a wave of interest in this phase of nature study, and several societies interested in the preservation of bird-life have been encouraged to renew their work to save the comparatively few remaining terns, herons, gulls, and other handsome and useful birds that are about to disappear wholly before the demands of millinery art.

The New York Legislature.

The New York Legislature almost every year has to consider at least some questions of importance to the country at large. The State is more populous than any other in the Union, and it is on various accounts the most conspicuous. Its Legislature in times past has enacted a great number of measures which have subsequently been accepted as a pattern for similar action by many other States. Last year the Ford franchise-tax law attracted wide attention, and set an example that in one way or another will be imitated very extensively. Under this law such corporations as street railways, gas companies, and others enjoying privileges of the sort commonly known as public franchises have now for the first time been subjected to an assessment for taxation purposes upon the value of those privileges. Most of the rights of street railways in New York City were unwisely granted many years ago in perpetuity, with no provision for rental or public remuneration. Those franchises have acquired a great value, which has been capitalized and is represented by many millions of dollars of stocks and bonds. Under the new system taxes must be paid upon the assessed value of the franchises, very much as if such property were tangible like real estate. Of the measures enacted by this year's Legislature at Albany, none has so much interest for the country at large as last year's franchise-tax law. The one question of large national significance that was considered by the Legislature was that of the radical enlargement of the State canal system—chiefly, the Erie Canal connecting the Great Lake system with the ocean by way of Buffalo, Albany, and the Hudson River. The commission headed by Gen. Francis V. Greene recommended an expenditure of some $60,000,000 for the sake of a canal that would greatly reduce the cost of transportation of grain and bulky materials, and would thus tend to build up the commercial interests of the port of New York. It is obvious that the maintenance of a waterway system from the West to the East is at least as advantageous to the Western producers as it can possibly be to Eastern consumers and commercial interests. In fact, a great many of the citizens of the State of New York who do not live on the line of the State waterways are strongly opposed to the expenditure of money which will make it easier for Western products to compete with Eastern farmers, who have now for many years past felt themselves heavily burdened by Western competition. Although it proved impossible to secure in the Legislature this year any conclusive action in the direction of General Greene's report, a bill was passed under an emergency message from Governor Roosevelt on the closing day of the session, appropriating $200,000 for a complete and final investigation and survey that will supply exhaustive information upon the whole subject. A matter of so much moment as the possible expenditure of $60,000,000 upon a public work may well be expected to require a good deal of deliberation.

Some Notable New Enactments.

The progress of the State of New York in its administration of public charities and in its dealing with various classes appealing to public help and care, has long been well worthy of the observation of the country at large. In our March number we published an article entitled "A New York 'Colony of Mercy,'" descriptive of the Craig Colony for Epileptics, conducted as one of the charitable institutions of the State. A most note-

worthy step in the new direction has now been taken under a bill passed by the legislature before its adjournment last month providing for the establishment by the State of a hospital in the Adirondack Mountains for the reception and treatment of consumptives. This experiment bids fair to prove a veritable landmark in the history of progressive charitable and sanitary administration. A radical improvement in the transit facilities of the overcrowded city of New York is assured for the near future by the actual beginning of work upon the underground railroad system. The Legislature just adjourned made this consummation possible by supplementary legislation, which removed all lingering obstacles, and the authorities of the city on March 24 began the work with elaborate ceremonies, Mayor Van Wyck turning the first spadeful of earth. This system will have a marked effect in relieving the pressure of population upon the overcrowded districts of Manhattan Island; and this, in turn, will make more feasible the destruction of unsanitary property and the enforcement of a higher standard in the construction and maintenance of tenement houses. Very timely, therefore, is the passage of a law authorizing the governor to appoint a tenement-house commission to recommend improved methods. Governor Roosevelt has appointed on this commission fifteen representative citizens, including architects and builders, lawyers, experienced health-officers, charity organization workers, building experts, and owners of tenement property. The governor himself regards this commission as a very important body, since it will have to deal with one of the fundamental factors in the most difficult and complex of the social and industrial problems of the day. It would be deeply humiliating and discouraging if a city which some sixty years ago had the enterprise to establish a magnificent system of public water-supply by means of the original Croton Aqueduct should now put its people at the mercy of a private water company. Such a company has through political influence obtained control of various sources of water-supply with the hope of putting the city in a position to compel it to buy from this private corporation the additional water that ought, readily and inexpensively, to be made to reinforce the city's present supply. The past season has witnessed a great struggle on behalf of good citizens to make certain the overthrow of this conspiracy against the true interest of the city. While it did not prove possible to secure legislation of a kind regarded as permanent and conclusive, it is at least satisfactory to know that a measure was passed which will for the present make it certain enough that the Ramapo contract cannot be carried through. A great deal of effort was expended, with success at the end of the session, in an endeavor to secure the repeal of a law under which prize-fighting has recently flourished in New York.

Other New York Concerns.

A measure likely to prove of great importance for New York City is one which conferred upon Governor Roosevelt the authority to name a charter commission to revise the framework of government of New York City. Our readers will remember that the consolidation of New York and Brooklyn, together with considerable suburban territory, to form the present City of New York, occurred some three years ago. It was very generally expected that the elaborate charter then provided for the government of the city would need early revision in the light of experience. The existing mechanism of the municipal government is exceedingly complicated; and the observation of its working has seemed to convince the community that many changes would be desirable, and that they might be introduced without any violent disturbance of such departments of municipal life and work as are carried on satisfactorily. For several years past there has been a marked disposition to try to improve the public-school system of the city of New York, and some further legislation to that end was enacted in the recent session. Incidentally it is to be noted that a bill was passed admitting colored children to every public school in the State. This does not affect conditions generally prevailing, but was meant to apply to certain special instances. A matter of far more than local note is the passage of a measure making provisions which look toward the establishment of a park for the sake of preserving the scenic beauty of the famous Palisades of the Hudson River, a few miles north of New York City. The Palisades lie partly in New York and partly in New Jersey. The two States are now proceeding upon harmonious plans, and it is hoped that complete success may attend the effort to preserve what is rapidly undergoing mutilation and destruction. Some of the finest spurs of the Palisades have already been destroyed by companies which break down the great wall of rock with immense dynamite blasts and then crush the stone for road-making materials. The bill provides for ten commissioners, with full power to select the necessary lands. It is probably within bounds to say that the general administration of the State of New York has not, in half a century, been so efficient at all points and so free from scandal or reproach as now, under Governor Roosevelt's energetic direction.

The Kentucky Dispute in the Courts.

The legal questions involved in the contest concerning the Kentucky governorship were decided, by the Court of Appeals of that State, on April 6. Six of the seven judges held that the action of the Legislature in declaring William Goebel governor and J. C. W. Beckham lieutenant-governor was constitutional, and that, as a result of the death of Goebel, Beckham is the acting-governor of the State. The court explicitly declares that the power to pass on election contests was conferred on the Legislature by the constitution of the State, and that the judiciary, a coördinate branch of the State government, cannot call in question the motives of the Legislature in acting within its constitutional powers. A few days later a writ of error to the United States Supreme Court was granted, and the appeal has been filed at Washington. Meanwhile, several circumstantial accounts of an anti-Goebel plot, differing from one another in important particulars, but agreeing in implicating the Republican leaders in Goebel's assassination, have been "given out" at Frankfort. Governor Taylor has declared his readiness to face an indictment based on such testimony. The grand jury of Franklin County has named him as an accessory.



HON. WILLIAM GREGORY.
(The new governor of Rhode Island.)

The April Elections.

The spring elections of this presidential-campaign year have afforded no indication of the country's political drift. The Republicans carried Rhode Island by a slightly reduced plurality, electing the Hon. William Gregory to the governorship. Under the constitution of Louisiana, adopted two years ago, the first quadrennial election of a governor and other State officers took place on April 17. The educational restriction of the franchise greatly reduced the number of votes in the State as compared with the returns of the State election in 1896. The Democrats were entirely successful, electing State Auditor Heard governor and a legislature pledged to the election of Governor Foster as successor to Senator Caffery. In Utah, the Hon. W. H. King, a Democrat, was chosen to occupy the seat in the House of Representatives from which Brigham H. Roberts was excluded. In the Chicago aldermanic elections, a majority of the candidates approved by the Municipal Voters' League were successful. The Rev. Dr. Washington Gladden was elected to the city council of Columbus, Ohio. A Republican, Mr. Julius Fleischmann, was elected mayor of Cincinnati. In Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri the Republicans made gains in the municipal elections, while in Michigan there were large Democratic gains. If these results signify anything at all, they point to the increasing tendency among the voters to disregard the claims of the national parties in local affairs.

The Strike Epidemic.

The present season has witnessed an epidemic of strikes unlike anything the country has seen in several years. At first glance this looks like an evidence of hard times, but in reality it is one of the evidences of better times. The first effect of industrial revival is the general employment of the unemployed; the next effect is a succession of strikes to secure an advance in wages corresponding to the advance in prices. It is this second effect which the country is now experiencing. The center of the recent disturbances has been the city of Chicago, and the greatest of the strikes which have centered there has been that among the machinists. At one time over three thousand machinists were out in Chicago alone, and nearly two thousand more in Cleveland and Columbus, Ohio; while the general unrest in the trade threatened the suspension of work among union machinists all over the country. The cause of the conflict, as stated by the men, was their demand for a nine-hour day without reduction of wages, and "price and a half" for overtime work. The cause, as stated by the employers, was the insistence of the union upon its "recognition," which was believed to involve the ultimate discharge of non-union

machinists. The employers endeavored to form a national union of empioyers with which to fight the national union of laborers; but either the sense of class solidarity was weaker among the employers or else the attempt to organize came too late to be effective. Before a general tie-up had been actually precipitated, the employers accepted the proposal of the men to arbitrate the various points at issue Next to the machinists'



JAMES O'CONNELL.

(President of the International Association of Machinists.)

strike, the most important has been that among the building trades. Here the workmen have been less successful, because the phenomenal rise in the price of iron and the exceptional rise in the prices of lumber have reduced building operations much below last year's level, and the demand for labor has been proportionately cut down. In the building-trades strike the issue has been the preservation or overthrow of the Building Trades Council, through which the carpenters, masons, plasterers, etc., of Chicago have been able to dictate terms to a degree unknown in any Eastern city. Through this council, every one of the organized building trades stands by every other, ordering sympathetic strikes whenever necessary to secure any important demand. The enormous power thus secured has brought great gains to the workmen, especially in the matter of hours, but has in many particulars been wielded so as to hamper production. The contractors are determined to overthrow this council, and seem thus far to have the best of the fight. The fact that some of the trades-unionists have been resorting to intimidation and violence is the clearest evidence of weakness as well as its surest promoter.

Strikers and Soldiers.

In Chicago, the violence to which strikers have resorted has not seemed, to local officials, to be beyond their powers to deal with. In New York, however, the militia has been called out to preserve order among some Italian strikers who had been employed by public contractors upon the Croton Dam. These Italians were working for much lower wages than the new law permits upon public work; but then the contracts were made before the new law went into effect. Since the militia arrived one soldier—a sergeant—has been killed by the strikers. At last accounts the effect of the soldiers' presence seems to have operated to prevent any further violence, and work on the dam has begun again. More serious, however, in the eyes of the labor world than the presence of the militia at the scene of the strike in New York is the continued presence of the United States troops at the scene of last year's strike among the miners of the Cœur d'Alêne, in Idaho. Rarely has there been so clear an occasion for the calling in of federal troops as there was in the mining districts of Idaho last year. The concentrator of a non-union mine was attacked by an armed mob and destroyed by dynamite, and the absence of the State militia in the Philippines made it difficult for the State authorities to cope with the situation. Only the most extreme trade-unionists protested against the calling in of the federal troops. Nevertheless, the continued presence of these troops, coupled by the continuance of martial law in the disturbed district, has occasioned a national ferment in trades-union circles. The especial object of trades-union hostility has been an order forbidding mine-owners to employ any miners connected with the miners' union. For a month past, the committee on military affairs of the House of Representatives has been investigating the situation, and there is some hope that its report may



GOV. FRANK STEUNENBERG, OF IDAHO.

outline a plan by which the State authorities may assume the duty of preserving order. The New York situation, where the commonwealth immediately concerned has to bear the burden of supporting the troops, promises a speedier settlement than the Idaho situation, where the State authorities use the federal troops without expense to their own commonwealth.

Corporations and Publicity.

We published last month an interesting article by Professor Jenks, of Cornell University, in which our readers will find a summary of the measures by which it has been proposed to secure in the State of New York a better regulation of trusts and great corporations. Professor Jenks himself took the lead for the Industrial Commission in the conduct of the recent very remarkable inquiry at Washington into the growth and operation of particular industrial organizations and of the so-called "trust movement" in general. He is reputed also to have had an important part in the drafting of the New York bills which he described in that article. Professor Jenks does not belong to the school of reformers who would smash the trusts first and investigate them afterward. He does believe, however, very firmly in the importance of turning the white light of publicity upon the methods and operations of private corporations. These bills referred to failed to pass in the present New York Legislature; but the doctrine is good, and it is held to be the one safe present conclusion concerning the management of trusts by so many clear-headed men that there can be no doubt the effective trust legislation of the immediate future will proceed along these lines. We have had some sensational and startling illustrations of late of the necessity—not merely from the point of view of the general public, but also from that of the innocent shareholders—of a better public oversight and regulation of corporations. One of these illustrations was the complete financial breakdown of a street-railroad system in New York City, known as the Third Avenue, the stock of which was readily selling not so very long ago at 240, and which declined with almost lightning-like rapidity to a point where it sold in March for about 45, following which the company went into the hands of a receiver. The road was enjoying without any cost one of the most lucrative franchises in the world, and was operating cars about as closely together as they could be moved on the tracks, each car being suffocatingly packed with people who paid their fares uncomplainingly. The stockholders of the road had simply been the victims of mismanagement, part of which may be set down to blunder and part to plunder. A better public oversight of large corporations would have saved this wreck.



BLOCKED.
(From the *Herald*, New York.)



MR. H. H. VREELAND.
(President of the Metropolitan Street Railway Company.)

Third Avenue Rediviuus.

At the darkest moment of the history of the Third Avenue Railroad, a quiet but wholesale purchase of its stock was begun by the managers of the Metropolitan Street Railway—the corporation which, under President Vreeland's effective guidance, has come to be one of the most influential and substantial street-railway systems in the world. When enough stock had been acquired to make the Metropolitan's influence paramount in any future disposition of the Third Avenue's affairs, it was announced that President Vreeland had secured a 999 years' lease of the bankrupt road. The reorganization was financed by the issue of $50,000,000 of 100-year first-mortgage 4 per cent. bonds, of

which $35,000,000 were sold to a banking-house at par, the remaining $15,000,000 being held in reserve to satisfy outstanding bond obligations of the old concern, and to provide some necessary cash. These bonds are guaranteed unconditionally, principal and interest, by the Metropolitan Street Railway Company, which further agrees to pay the Third Avenue company the entire net earnings above fixed charges and operating expenses for four years, then for two years 5 per cent. on the capital stock of $16,000,000; for four years after that 6 per cent., and after that 7 per cent. for the balance of the term of the lease. President Vreeland is confident that he can manage the old Third Avenue property in conjunction with the Metropolitan to such advantage as to earn in the immediate future as much as 4 per cent. over all the heavy interest charges established by so heavy a bond issue; and this confidence is reflected in the market-price of the stock, which is now quoted well above par, to the great relief of many investment holders.

Another Instance.

The Third Avenue is not the only great transit company whose sensational affairs have lately been discussed in Wall Street, the newspapers, and the law courts. Various transit lines in Brooklyn had been consolidated a year or two ago, largely through the exertions of the late ex-Governor Flower. Faith in the great intrinsic value of the franchises and the vast daily patronage of this Brooklyn system kept the stock for a time at high quotations in the market. Then came a time, several months ago, when disquieting rumors began to affect the stock market, and the quotations began to go sharply down from a maximum of 135 or more to about half those figures. The amount of capital stock outstanding being $45,000,000, it is readily seen how such sudden and violent changes in the market value must have affected not merely the speculators, but also great numbers of *bona-fide* investors; and such fluctuations are the more disturbing because the monopoly conditions that protect street-railroad enterprises seem to insure exceptional safety to investors. The fact is, respecting Brooklyn rapid transit, as respecting Third Avenue, that neither stockholders nor the general public had been allowed anything like a sufficient knowledge of the policies and methods of the company and of its financial status from time to time. In the case of Brooklyn rapid transit, the lack of sufficient information gave opportunity to defamers; and a grand jury has now confirmed the charge that there was a conspiracy in Wall Street to depress the quotations by the systematic circulation of defamatory rumors.

Erratic "Industrials."

If a business as comparatively simple in its factors as that of street railroads suffers such violent ups and downs, nobody must be surprised at the erratic financial career that one or another of the great industrial corporations or trusts is bound to pursue from time to time. Thus the condition of the sugar trust was much under discussion last month. It had been regarded as an exceptionally sound example of the alleged value of the trust plan in giving steadiness to a great industry. Last year the stock of the sugar trust sold at 182 as the highest quotation. Early last month the same stock was sold at about 95. This change was due to the announcement that the quarterly dividend payable April 1 would be only half as large as the dividends paid for some time past. Thus with all its immense prestige and power, the American Sugar Refining Company has not been able in the past year to regulate prices and control the situation, in view of the determined attitude of the independent refiners. In the face of such a situation, it would seem worth while for the public to renew its efforts in the direction of breaking down railroad rebates and discriminations, and safeguarding all the conditions under which competition may naturally spring up when monopolies attempt to fix arbitrary prices. Furthermore, it might well be argued from current industrial facts and conditions that the public does not need protection so much from the mere principle of combination and aggregation as from semi-fraudulent schemes which float vast issues of stock, the subsequent failure of which is destined to involve legitimate business interests, destroy credit, and provoke panic and depression at a time when the country is entitled to a period of quiet prosperity

The Carnegie Consolidation.

Happily the disagreements between Mr. Frick and the Carnegie Steel Company, which were described in an article in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS last month, have come to an end without the litigation which, if protracted, might have disturbed the magnificent economy of production due to Mr. Carnegie's genius. A giant corporation has been formed under the laws of the State of New Jersey, the laws of Pennsylvania not permitting such an organization, to include the score or more properties in which Mr. Carnegie is interested. The separate properties retain their Pennsylvania charters; the Carnegie Steel Company itself changing in Pennsylvania from a firm to a corporation, and the whole are combined under the New Jersey charter, with a capital of $160,000,000. Mr. Carnegie owns a majority of the stock of the new corporation, Mr. Frick is a stockholder to the ex-

tent of $16,000,000, and the remainder of the stock is divided among the partners in the separate properties, none of it being offered to the public. Mr. James B. Dill, the lawyer in charge of the vastly complicated details of this reorganization, has drawn up a charter which gives the Carnegie Company the right to engage in such a number of industries as would seem to completely cover every operation connected with the making of steel and steel manufactures, from the original extraction of the raw materials from the earth to the marketing of the finished product. This altogether fortunate settlement of the questions at issue in the Carnegie Steel Company will doubtless insure the continued attention of both Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Frick, in greater or less degree, to the business of producing the best steel at the smallest cost by means of an extraordinary division of labor. The vast fortune accumulated by Mr. Carnegie and the wealth and industrial power also secured by his partners and associates are simply the result of great courage and foresight in the use of legitimate business opportunities such as were equally available to other business men. Americans have no more reason to find fault with Mr. Carnegie for having been exceptionally successful than has the business community of Prussia for looking with hostile eyes at the stupendous success achieved by the Krupp firm through a like talent for the organization of industry on a large scale. It is due to the success of Mr. Carnegie and a few other great captains of industry in this country that America has at length reached preëminence in the iron and steel business; and a great part of the present wave of prosperity that the whole country feels grows out of the fact that our iron masters can now compete successfully in all markets at a time when Asia and Africa are entering upon great schemes of railroad construction, bridge building, and other engineering operations that require wholesale supplies of manufactured steel.

$80,000,000 Per Year.

Following the publication of the astonishing profits of the Pittsburg steel companies has come the quarterly dividend on the Standard Oil stock, in figures which simply stagger the imagination. A regular dividend of 3 per cent. for the three months was declared, and in addition an extra cash dividend of 17 per cent., or a total payment to stockholders of $20,000,000, for the three months' operations of Mr. John D. Rockefeller's organization. The capitalization of the Standard Oil Company is $110,000,000, and the stock is now worth in the open market nearly $550,000,000—by no means an extravagant appraisal by the dealer in stocks, if there is any likelihood that the future will show the average profits of the past three years. The present dividend is the largest ever declared by the Standard Oil Company, and, it is said, the largest ever declared by any corporation for a like period. But for four years past the company has averaged dividends of nearly $32,000,000 per year, the rate before 1896 being $12,000,000 per year since 1891. Mr. Rockefeller's company disposes of nearly all the 1,700,000,000 gallons of oil annually produced in America, and together with Nobel Brothers, of Russia, it supplies Great Britain and Europe as well. The announcement of this enormous increase in the profits of the oil trust aroused Mr. Fitzgerald, of Massachusetts, to introduce into the House a resolution stating that the unusual dividend was the result of an increased price of three cents a gallon to the consumer, and calling on the attorney-general to direct the several United States district attorneys to enforce the provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law.

Gigantic Railroad Mergers.

President A. J. Cassatt, who succeeded to the head of the Pennsylvania Railroad on the death of Mr. Frank Thomson, last June, is giving the most striking evidence of his belief in railroad expansion and of energy in promoting the corporate connections which will insure to his road an advantageous control of rates and traffic arrange-



A. J. CASSATT.

(President of the Pennsylvania Railroad.)

ments. Not only has the Pennsylvania Railroad obtained a controlling voice in the Chesapeake and Ohio, and bought 200,000 shares of the Norfolk and Western, which will give it two directors in that company; it has also obtained a sufficiently strong interest in the Baltimore and Ohio for its purposes. The Baltimore and Ohio has, too, completed arrangements for taking over the Baltimore and Ohio Southwestern, which runs from Parkersburg, W. Va., to Louisville and St. Louis by way of Cincinnati. The Chesapeake and Ohio and the Norfolk and Western are two of the most important bituminous-coal roads, and these combinations, together with the harmonious relations now established between the Pennsylvania management and the New York Central interests should obviate any repetition of the serious disturbances in coal rates. The Pennsylvania management has adopted the method, in the execution of these important "deals," of selling its stock to provide for the purchase, in the open market, of interests in the properties it wishes to control or influence. That the company is to pursue still further the policy of controlling, wherever possible, any Eastern lines which can be operated to greater advantage under a united management, is indicated by the programme of a stockholders' meeting to increase the capitalization. In the Southwest the Louisville and Nashville Railroad is about to absorb the Nashville, Chattanooga and St. Louis property, by the exchange of L. & N. stock for stock of the merged property in the proportion of two to one.

The Nicaragua Canal.

Early in April it became evident that the Hay-Pauncefote treaty could not be ratified by the Senate, with or without the Davis amendment. Under the circumstances, the postponement of action on the treaty was for a time thought to involve the postponement of the bills that were pending for the construction of a governmental canal. Representative Hepburn was able, however, on April 20, to announce an agreement among the leaders in the House by which his bill for a government canal was to be considered by the House on May 1 and 2. The Isthmian Canal Commission has returned to this country, after spending three months in Central America selecting the best route for a canal. It is expected that the Commission's report will be made in December next. The commissioners found that the sentiment of the people in Nicaragua and Costa Rica was in favor of the United States building the canal. The Panama route was also thoroughly surveyed; but until the report is made the commissioners will say nothing of the advantages or disadvantages of either route.

Affairs in the Philippines.

By an order of the War Department a military division of the Pacific has has been erected in the Philippine archipelago. This division is divided into four departments, and the headquarters of the division will be at Manila. Since this order went into effect General Otis has been relieved from command in the Philippines at his own request, because of continued ill health. He will be succeeded on May 1 by General MacArthur, whose success in coping with the unusual difficulties of the Philippine military situation has been universally recognized. In recent engagements, especially in the province of Ilocos Norte, the insurgents have sustained heavy losses. A statement issued by the War Department shows that on April 1 our total force in the Philippines amounted to 63,855 men in service, including 956 regular army officers and 1,356 officers with volunteer rank. Of the enlisted men 23,397 were regulars and 30,847 volunteers. General Otis has recommended that a large repressive force be maintained in the islands for some time. He has approved a scheme of municipal government which gives the Filipinos for the first time the right of suffrage in the election of officers and the establishment of town governments. This work of organizing municipalities, so well begun by General Otis, will be advanced by the Philippine Commission, which sailed from San Francisco on April 17. The Navy Department has issued orders looking to the speedy reduction of our naval force in the archipelago.



GEN. ARTHUR MACARTHUR

Paris Opens Her Great Fair.

The French Exposition of 1900 was formally opened on April 14. M. Millerand, the socialist minister of commerce, was chosen to deliver the inaugural address—a significant choice, as M. Millerand, of all members of the cabinet, has been the most savagely attacked by the clerical and anti-republican factions. Scarcely less significant was the absence of any religious function or allusion. President McKinley sent a congratulatory cablegram, and Americans figured honorably in other



M. MILLERAND.

ways at the birth of the great fair; and as a Chicago firm has already secured the contract for tearing down the buildings, they will also be represented at its death. Like all expositions, the present one was opened some few weeks before all the buildings were ready; but it is pleasant to learn that no exhibits were in such a forward condition as our own. The number of American exhibitors is second only to those of France herself, and far ahead of all other competitors. Where the English have only 1,000 and Germany 3,000, the United States has 7,000—a result which is exceedingly creditable to Mr. Peck, the American commissioner-general, and his assistants. There is every reason to believe that the Exposition will have good effects beyond its commercial success. It opens after three years of almost incessant turmoil for France, during which the very stability of the republic has seemed to be more than once in danger. The fact that the Waldeck-Rousseau ministry, with its curiously composite character, should have lasted so long is some guarantee, now that the Exposition has begun, that it will last till it closes, and so give to France a much-needed breathing-time in which to think of other things besides politics. A quiet period of rest, by its own fireside, is what the country most needs for the present, and what the Exposition seems likely to provide with benefit both to France and the rest of the world.

Europe's Friendly Interest.

It need hardly be said that the French people have put forth every effort to make the Exposition a success. The number of French exhibitors reaches 30,000—some 12,000 more than all foreign competitors put together. While there is nothing in the present fair to attract the world-wide interest of the Eiffel Tower, all the published accounts agree that the grounds and buildings have been laid out with the taste the French always show in such things, and that several features—the new bridge across the Seine, named in honor of Alexander III.—will remain as worthy monuments to the Exposition of 1900. So far as the interest of foreign countries is concerned, the enterprise is already assured of success, and there is not the least reason for doubting that Europe and America will again depopulate themselves to enjoy it, as they did in 1889. Germany has shown particular friendliness, and the Berlin Chamber of Commerce sent a cordial telegram of congratulations and good wishes. The Russian section was opened on the 17th with special ceremonies, at which M. Loubet was present, and the occasion utilized for the presentation of a personal gift from the Czar to France. The Queen of Saxony visited the Exposition on Wednesday, the 18th, setting an example which will probably be followed by all the royalties of Europe. The American section, on the forwardness of which General Porter and Mr. Peck were complimented both by M. Loubet and Commissioner-General Picard, occupies 329,052 square feet, with 47 distinct exhibition spaces, 33 in the main grounds and 14 in the Vincennes Annex. That the Exposition was in a state of unreadiness at the last moment was certainly not due to any lack of effort on the part of M. Picard and the other managers of the Exposition. Great numbers of laborers had been at feverish night work in the attempt to make the great fair presentable on the opening day. Even the military were called in to aid in the national undertaking, and the spectacle of some thousands of red-trousered soldiers industriously gleaning scraps of papers, and débris of every sort, suggested unexpected utilities of a standing army.

The Queen's Visit to Ireland.

Queen Victoria left Windsor for Ireland on April 2, the centenary of the passing of the Act of Union, and both at Kingstown and Dublin received from her Irish subjects the heartiest possible welcome. Dublin is a city that lends itself capitally to a state pageant, and the Irish have the instinct of the true Celt for the management of such ceremonies. All accounts agree that, as a mere matter of artistic display, the Queen's reception surpassed the Jubilee celebrations of 1897. Far more remarkable was the irrepressible delight of the Irish people at having the Queen again among them after an absence of nearly forty years; and the attempted assassination of the Prince of Wales at Brussels, on the very day the Queen landed on Irish soil, gave naturally an extra enthusiasm to their welcome. The visit was undertaken in recognition of the bravery of the Irish soldiers in South Africa, and no attempt was made on either side to give it a political coloring. Nationalist and Unionist put their differences out of sight to meet on the common ground of honoring the lady who, on her own initiative, had decided on this appealing act of homage to the valor of their countrymen. Nevertheless, one cannot dissociate the visit from its possible political effects. Taken together with the decree permitting Irish soldiers to wear the shamrock on St. Patrick's Day, and with the formation of the new regiment of Irish Guards, it may be said to be the first sign that the English are beginning to realize the value of sentiment in their conduct of Irish affairs. Only the most stiffnecked indifference to those little sympathetic touches that count for so much in politics could ever have allowed the shamrock to become a badge of disloyalty, or could ever have given the Irish reason to feel that they and their country were slighted in the matter of royal visits. A more tactful statesmanship than British limitations seem to permit of would have smoothed out these little exasperations long ago. As it is, it has been left for the feminine instinct of the Queen to prove the success of governing Ireland through the affections and imaginations of the Irish. The influence of her example was shown in the debates in the House of Commons on the proposal to establish and endow a university for Irish Catholics. The proposal was voted down, but the spirit and tone of the speeches were in hopeful contrast to any previous utterances on the subject.

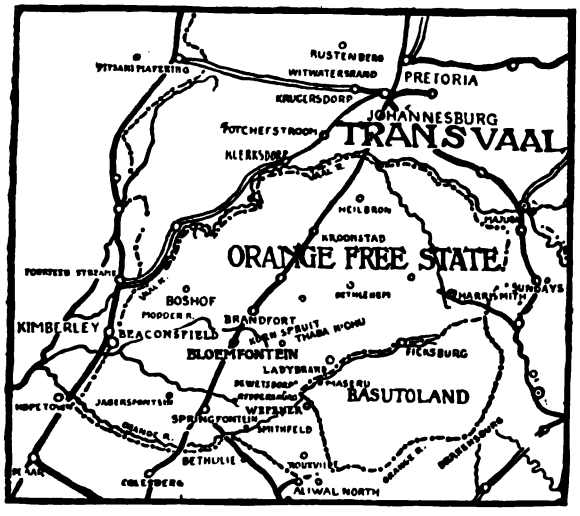
Lord Roberts Waits for Horses.

Our chronicle of the South African war closed in the April issue with Lord Roberts at Bloemfontein, busily engaged in disarming and registering the Free Staters who had not fled, with Mafeking still besieged by General Snyman, while the Boer commandant Olivier was trekking north from Cape Colony as rapidly as an immense train of ox-teams would allow. President Steyn had removed the seat of the Free State Government to Kroonstadt, some one hundred and sixty miles northeast of Kimberley, and there the main body of the Boers rested their leaders exerting every effort to repair the demoralization which necessarily followed General Roberts' brilliant advance on Kimberley and Bloemfontein. That this dashing movement of the British commander was costly in other ways than in loss of men is now shown by the five weeks of inaction that have followed. The fearful strain on horseflesh demanded by the rapid and sustained movements of Generals French and Kelly-Kenny in the capture of Cronje and the advance to Bloemfontein had seriously incapacitated the British cavalry, and Lord Roberts has been forced to wait weeks for remounts. It is said that after Bloemfontein was taken some of the regiments could not show a hundred men on serviceable horses. New animals are arriving weekly at Cape Colony, to



THE ARRIVAL OF THE ROYAL YACHT IN KINGSTOWN HARBOR.

be hurried on to Bloemfontein ; but a large margin of loss must necessarily be expected in the active use of horses and mules immediately after their journey of thousands of miles, and their introduction into a new climate with winter setting in. A cargo of perfectly sound horses sent from Michigan to New York are always partially incapacitated, for even the light demands of carriage service, for some days or weeks after their arrival, until they become acclimated ; and it can be imagined what a large factor this will be in the preparation for the British advance, with the necessity of bringing some scores of thousands of horses and mules from Europe and America. The effect of this phase of the South African war is felt in the remotest country districts of Kentucky, Arkansas, and Missouri, where the English agents have been drumming up many thousands of horses and mules for African service, and the extra demand has raised the market-price of sound animals beyond any figure seen in ten years. Not only must the horse question be solved by Lord Roberts before a general advance can be made on the Transvaal ; the South African winter is approaching, and he must get heavy clothing for his men. Huge quantities of supplies are



SCENE OF THE BOERS' RECENT RAIDING OPERATIONS.

pouring into Bloemfontein daily, and it looks now as if the British communications would be kept open without trouble, and Lord Roberts would be ready in a week or two to move forward with the seventy-five thousand or more men which he can easily spare for a determined advance on Kroonstadt and the Vaal River. The thorough little commander is not satisfied with the material perfection of his army. General Gatacre has been sent home with scarcely any denial of the openly expressed opinion that the reason was his inefficiency in the disastrous action at Stormberg, and afterward in the unsuccessful attempt to head off Commandant



MAJ.-GEN. SIR H. CHERMSIDE.
(Successor to General Gatacre.)

Olivier's commando, which, though incumbered with a long train of impedimenta, successfully eluded the British and joined the main force at Kroonstadt. General Chermside, a younger officer, with an excellent reputation for energy and ability, is to take General Gatacre's command. General Roberts has, too, spoken his mind very freely in his London dispatches concerning the operations at Spion Kop, with more than implied blame for both General Buller and his subordinate, General Warren. The Boers have now lost both their chief military leaders as well as their foremost foreign adviser,—General Cronje being at St. Helena, General Joubert dead, and Colonel de Villebois-Mareuil killed in battle. Sketches of these sturdy leaders, and also of the new commander, Botha, and other prominent republican generals, are printed in another department of this issue Mafeking is in the seventh month of its siege, Colonel Plumer having been defeated and driven back in his plucky attempt to enter the town with a small force of picked men. A new note has been introduced into the British campaign by the landing of General Sir Frederick Carrington at Beira in Portuguese East Africa with a body of colonial troops,

mainly Australian bushmen, and the Canadian regiment raised by Lord Strathcona, head of the Hudson Bay Company, at his own expense. It is given out that General Carrington's force will pass through Portuguese territory to intercept any of the Boers who will attempt to fly, when the final defeat comes, into the wild country north of the Transvaal, and, perhaps, to push on to the relief of Mafeking.

Boer Raids and British Losses.

The condition of things with Lord Roberts described in the preceding paragraph together with the effect of Great Britain's unequivocal denial of President Krüger's "peace and independence" proposals, and that shrewd leader's use of the incident, have encouraged the Boers to move swiftly south from Kroonstadt in several wonderfully mobile detachments that succeeded in penetrating to all sides of Bloemfontein, and even to get south of that city. The recuperative power of the Boers is strikingly shown in the presence of General Olivier and his men near Bloemfontein only a few days after they had completed the dangerous and demoralizing trek along the eastern Free State border to Kroonstadt. A clash soon came between the reheartened burghers and the outlying detachments of British troops.



LORD STRATHCONA.

(Who sent a Canadian regiment to South Africa at his own expense.)

On March 31 the Boers appeared at Thaba N'Chu, fifteen miles east of Bloemfontein, and ambushed Colonel Broadwood's horse artillery at Korn Spruit with such skill that this officer lost nearly four hundred men, seven guns, and all his baggage, the Boers taking possession of the water-works nearby and holding them. This was followed, on April 4, by the capture of over five hundred British cavalry and infantry troops at Reddersburg, directly south of Bloemfontein. To complete their demonstration, the Boers shut up Major Dalgetty and a detachment of colonial troops in



THE BOER COMMANDANT OLIVIER.

Wepener, near the Basutoland border. As we go to press the siege of this town is being prosecuted, while Generals Brabant and Rundle are moving to its relief. A minor success on the British side was the capture, on April 5, near Boshof, of a small party of Boers, by Lord Methuen's troops, made more important by the death, in the fight, of Colonel de Villebois-Mareuil.

Public Opinion in England.

As for the future settlement of South Africa, public opinion in England seems definitely to have decided in favor of the extinction of the two Dutch republics, and in spite of the opposition of a considerable section of the Liberal party. Even many people who regret the war are anxious to prevent by this means a possibility of its recurrence, and consider that permanent peace can only be secured on the basis of British predominance. Mr. Rhodes is at present rather cold-shouldered in England, his attack on the English generals and the tales of his refractory behavior during the siege of Kimberley having set the populace

against him. South Africa, however, will be none the worse off for this. There seems to be some danger, to judge by the tone of the English press and a recent debate in the House of Commons, lest the English people should be in too great a hurry to translate the talk of Imperial Federation into facts. In South Africa, as elsewhere, federation, if it is to come at all, must come from within and not from without —from the colonies, that is, and not from the mother-country. While it is indisputable that the war has given birth to a new feeling of solidarity throughout the empire, the various schemes now being put forward for colonial representation in an Imperial Council, or for a Zollverein coterminous with the empire and directed against the rest of the world, can only fall to the ground if pressed too hard. Probably a system of imperial defense, with each colony contributing its share to the military and naval forces of the empire, is the most feasible proposal yet made. But for that, too, time and patience, especially on England's part, are needed.

Russia In Turkey and Corea.

While it was at no time likely that any power would attempt direct intervention in the South African war, it was inevitable, as we have remarked in previous months, that England's rivals should take advantage of her entanglements to feather their own nests. Russia, as she always does, has shown great skill in turning the opportunity to profit. Since the war began she has materially strengthened her position in Asia Minor, Persia, and the Far East. The loan which she negotiated for the Persian Government makes her practically the paramount power in the northern half of that decrepit country. On April 2 it was announced that Turkey had agreed to the very extensive demands of the Russian Government for exclusive railroad concessions in the north of Asia Minor, along the Black Sea littoral. These demands are viewed with some suspicion by the Germans, who are busily pushing on their own railroad to Bagdad, and have established flourishing little colonies in Syria and Anatolia, where it is believed the Kaiser hopes to found a real German dependency. Taken together with the strong Russophile leanings recently manifested by Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria, they have considerably enhanced the Russian position as against Turkey. In the Far East Russia has managed, within the past fortnight, to extract from the Corean Government a guarantee that the island of Kojedo, at the mouth of Masampho Harbor, shall not be transferred to any other power. Kojedo is half-way between Port Arthur and Vladivostok, and the nearest point to Japan, and Japanese statesmen have been greatly exercised over the matter. Practically, it is a matter of life or death for Japan to keep Corea independent; and the evidence of Russian designs upon that country have caused a friction between the two powers that may have serious consequences.

The Delagoa Award.

After a delay of nearly ten years, the Delagoa Bay Arbitration Tribunal appointed to assess the damages due from Portugal to the British and American governments for the seizure of the Delagoa Bay Railroad returned its verdict on March 29. The court held Portugal liable in the sum of $3,062,800 with interest at 5 per cent. from June 25, 1889, in addition to the $140,000 deposited in 1890. The grounds on which the award is based are to be made public in a second report "shortly"—an elastic term, if experience goes for anything. The original concession for a line from Delagoa Bay to the Transvaal frontier was granted to Colonel McMurdo, a Kentuckian, in 1883. When the road was built, Portugal suddenly fixed a point five miles farther on as the real terminus, which prevented the completion of the project in contract time, and led to the canceling of the concession and the seizure of the line and the guarantee of support from the Transvaal. Mr. Blaine and Lord Salisbury joined in vigorous protest, and the matter was referred to the decision of three arbitrators, to be chosen by the President of the Swiss Republic. Of the $2,500,000 first-debenture shares in the company, about $5,000 worth are held in this country, and of the $1,250,000 second debentures about $250,000. Americans also own about 28,000 of the ordinary shares to 22,000 held in England. As the costs of the litigation are to be borne equally by the three parties, it is not to be expected that the ordinary shareholders will receive anything. England had confidently looked forward to Portugal's being mulcted in swinging damages, which she would be unable to pay without recourse to a loan, for which Delagoa Bay was counted on as security. It was in view of this event that the Anglo-German agreement of 1898 was arranged relative to the partition of Portuguese possessions in Africa. There seems, however, no doubt that Portugal will be able to pay the trifling sum demanded of her within the stipulated time out of her own pocket; and though it is more than probable that, some day or other, Delagoa Bay will pass into British hands and Portugal retire from her unprofitable colonial ventures, the time is apparently not just yet.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From March 20 to April 19, 1900.)



HON. WILLIAM H. KING.

(The newly elected Representative from Utah.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

March 20.—The House begins debate of the Loud bill relating to second-class mail matter.

March 21.—The Senate passes the urgent deficiency appropriation bill, and adopts a resolution of inquiry as to mining concessions at Cape Nome, Alaska.

March 22.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the treaty between the United States and Great Britain relative to the estates of citizens of one country who die in the other....The House, by a vote of 148 to 96, orders the recommittal of the Loud bill regulating rates on second class mail matter to the Committee on Post Offices and Post Roads.

March 23.—The senate, by a vote of 35 to 15, adopts the conference report on the Puerto Rican relief bill.... The House passes 142 private pension bills.

March 24.—The Senate passes a bill authorizing the President to appoint a commission to investigate the commercial and industrial conditions of China and Japan....The House, by a vote of 135 to 87, adopts the conference report on the Puerto Rican relief bill, which is thereupon signed by President McKinley.

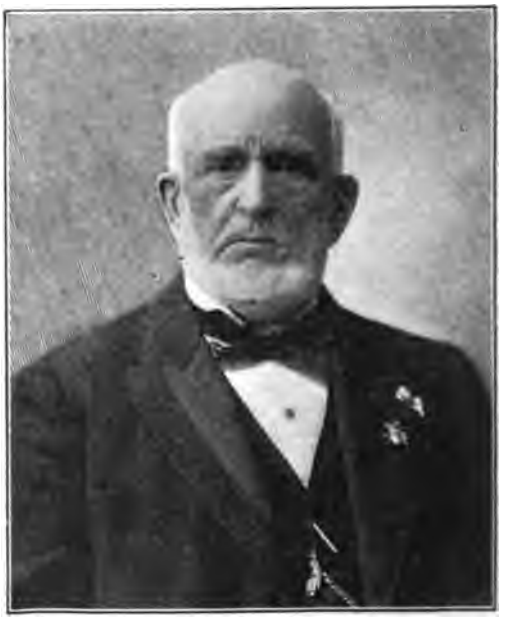
March 26.—In the Senate Mr. Davis (Rep., Minn.) introduces a free-trade substitute for the Puerto Rican tariff bill....The House begins consideration of the army appropriation bill.

March 27.—In the Senate Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) introduces amendments to the Puerto Rican tariff bill passed by the House.

March 28.—The Senate, by a vote of 15 to 33, rejects the free-coinage amendment to the Puerto Rican tariff bill offered by Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.).

March 29.—The Senate, by a vote of 16 to 33, rejects the proposition of Mr. Pettus (Dem., Ala.) to strike out the duty of 15 per cent. of the Dingley rates in the Puerto Rican bill....The House passes the army appropriation bill.

March 31.—The House passes the fortifications appropriation bill ($7,093,488).



THE LATE HON. PHILETUS SAWYER.

(Formerly United States Senator from Wisconsin.)

April 2.—The House adopts a resolution calling upon the Secretary of the Treasury for an estimate of the surplus likely to be created by the operation of the existing revenue laws during this and the succeeding fiscal year.

April 3.—The Senate passes the Puerto Rican tariff and civil-government bill by a vote of 40 to 31....The House begins consideration of the substitute for the Senate bill providing a territorial form of government for Hawaii.

April 5.—The Senate, in executive session, begins consideration of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty....The House adopts the following amendments to the bill providing a territorial government for Hawaii: To nullify any labor contracts and to extend the alien contract-labor laws to the islands, to prohibit the sale of

intoxicating liquor in saloons, to limit the land holdings of corporations to 1,000 acres, and to substitute the Senate provision for the House provision relating to the appointment of judges and other officers of the island; the House provision lodges the appointing power in the Governor; the Senate places it in the President.

April 6.—The Senate begins consideration of the Indian appropriation bill....The House, by a vote of 120 to 28, passes the Hawaiian government bill, with amendments.

April 9.—The Senate passes the Indian appropriation bill, after defeating the sectarian-school amendment....The House considers the agricultural appropriation bill.



KANSAS CITY CONVENTION HALL.

(This building was burned to the ground on April 4, but funds were at once provided for rebuilding it in time for the Democratic National Convention on July 4.)

April 10.—The Senate sends the Hawaiian government bill to conference....The Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections, by a unanimous vote, recommends that the seat of Senator Clark, of Montana, be declared vacant ....The House passes the agricultural appropriation bill.

April 11.—The Senate passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill and the bill introduced by Mr. Hale (Rep., Me.) appropriating $3,000,000 for a submarine cable from San Francisco to Honolulu, to be laid under the supervision of the Navy Department....The House, by a vote of 161 to 153, concurs in the Senate amendments to the Puerto Rican bill.



COMMODORE SEATON SCHROEDER.

(The new governor of Guam.)

April 12.—The Senate, by a vote of 15 to 33, refuses to take up the Nicaragua Canal bill introduced by Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.)....The House passes the bill authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to designate depositories of public funds in Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines.

April 13.—The House, by a vote of 240 to 15, adopts a resolution favoring a constitutional amendment for the popular election of United States Senators.

April 16.—The Senate considers the Alaskan civil-code bill....The House begins debate on the naval appropriation bill.

April 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass.) makes an elaborate speech in criticism of the administration's Philippine policy.

April 19.—The Senate adopts a resolution providing for the temporary administration of civil affairs in Puerto Rico, pending the appointment of permanent officials under the new law..

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

March 21.—Commander Seaton Schroeder, U. S. N., is appointed governor of Guam, to succeed Captain Leary.

March 27.—Secretary Root issues an order making the Philippine Archipelago the Military Division of the Pacific, divided into four departments, with General Otis in supreme command.

March 29.—A new political party composed of the more conservative advocates of Cuban independence is organized at Havana.

April 2.—Julius Fleischmann (Rep.) is elected mayor of Cincinnati, and Gen. Alexander Harbison (Rep.) mayor of Hartford, Conn....Webster Davis, Assistant Secretary of the Interior, resigns office....William H. King (Dem.) is chosen Representative in Congress from Utah, to the seat from which Brigham H. Roberts was excluded.

April 3.—In the Chicago municipal election the Republicans secure a majority of the Council....In Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri municipal elections generally

result favorably to the Republicans; in Michigan there are large Democratic gains.

April 4.—In Rhode Island William Gregory (Rep.) is elected governor over Nathan Littlefield (Dem.) by about 9,000 plurality....Admiral Dewey announces his willingness to be a candidate for the Presidency.

April 5.—The Pennsylvania Democratic convention instructs its delegates to the national convention to vote for the nomination of W. J. Bryan for President.

April 6.—The Kentucky Court of Appeals decides, by a vote of 6 to 1, that the action of the Legislature in declaring William Goebel governor was legal; and that, by the death of Goebel, J. C. W. Beckham is acting-governor....The New York Legislature adjourns.

April 7.—General Otis is relieved from command in the Philippines at his own request; General Mac Arthur succeeds him.

April 9.—President McKinley signs an order ceding to the Navy Department Dry Tortugas Island for a fortified naval base.

April 11.—President McKinley issues an order consolidating the departments of Havana and Pinar del Rio, Cuba, under command of Gen. Fitzhugh Lee.... The Republicans of Maine strongly indorse the national administration, and the Democrats of Vermont declare for Mr. Bryan.



THE LATE OSMAN PASHA.

(The famous Turkish general, the hero of Plevna.)

April 12.—President McKinley signs the Puerto Rican tariff and civil government bill and appoints Charles H. Allen, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, civil governor of the island....The Naval Board of Construction decides to put no more double turrets on battleships.

April 13.—John Addison Porter, Secretary to the President, resigns on account of ill-health, and is succeeded by Assistant Secretary George B. Cortelyou....The Navy Department purchases the Holland submarine torpedo-boat.

April 16.—The appeal in the Kentucky governorship contest is filed in the United States Supreme Court ....Governor Roosevelt appoints on the New York tenement commission Messrs. Raymond T. Almirall, Hugh Bonner, Paul D. Cravath, Robert W. De Forest, William A. Douglas, Otto M. Eidlitz, F. Norton Goddard, E. R. L. Gould, William Lansing, William J. O'Brien, James B. Reynolds, I. N. Phelps Stokes, Myles Tierney, Alfred T. White, and Dr. George B. Fowler.



THE LATE ARCHIBALD FORBES.

(The most distinguished of war correspondents.)

April 17.—The New York State Republican convention chooses Governor Roosevelt, Senators Platt and Depew, and Benjamin B. Odell delegates-at-large to the national convention at Philadelphia.

April 18.—President McKinley nominates Frank W. Hackett to be Assistant Secretary of the Navy in place of Charles H. Allen.

April 19.—The Cuban census figures are made public at Washington.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

March 22.—The Danish cabinet resigns.

March 23.—The Canadian minister of finance delivers his budget speech.

March 26.—It is announced in Constantinople that by imperial order 6 per cent. is to be levied for military requirements on the general amount of all taxes in the empire.

March 28.—The Italian Chamber of Deputies suspends its sittings.

March 31.—Signor Colombo, President of the Italian Chamber of Deputies, resigns on account of Socialist obstruction.

April 2.—By a vote of 265 to 158, Signor Colombo is reëlected President of the Italian Chamber of Deputies.

April 3.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 277 to 238, sustains the government's plans for the opening of the Paris Exposition.

April 4.—A young anarchist fires two shots at the Prince of Wales in a Brussels railroad station; neither shot takes effect....Queen Victoria makes a formal entry into Dublin.

April 11.—The French Government receives a vote of confidence in the Chamber of Deputies.

April 14.—The Paris Exposition is formally declared open by President Loubet.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

March 21.—Secretary Hay and the French ambassador, M. Cambon, sign a protocol extending for one year the time set for the ratification of the Franco-American reciprocity treaty.

March 22.—A treaty providing for the settlement by arbitration of the claims of American citizens against Nicaragua is signed at Washington.

March 29.—Secretary Hay and the Duke of Arcos sign a protocol extending for six months the period allowed Spanish residents in the Philippines to make choice whether they shall remain subjects of Spain or adopt the nationality of the country in which they live....The award of the Delagoa Bay arbitration tribunal on American and British claims against Portugal is announced.

April 3.—Portugal announces her consent to the transporting of British troops from Beira, Portuguese East Africa, to Umtall, in Rhodesia....President McKinley invites the President of Switzerland to name the umpire on the Chilian Claims Commission.

April 7.—It is announced that the American, British, German, and French Governments have demanded the suppression of the anti-foreign society in China known as Boxers, within two months.

April 10.—The Transvaal peace commissioners arrive at Naples.

April 19.—A crisis is reached in the diplomatic relations between the United States and Turkey because of the failure of the Turkish Government to pay indemnity for the destruction of missionary property.



THE LATE RICHARD HOVEY.
(The young American poet.)

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.

March 23.—General Lyttelton is appointed commander of the fourth division, General Clery to the second division....Accident to four officers of the Guards. General Clements takes possession of Philippopolis.

March 27.—Death of General Joubert reported....Sir Alfred Milner arrives at Bloemfontein. Mafeking is heavily bombarded. Sir George White is received by the mayor and corporation of Cape Town....Fauresmith occupied by General Clements.

March 28.—Resolutions in favor of annexation of the republics passed by the Kimberley Town Council.

March 29.—Meeting of Dutch Loyalists at Paarl, Cape Colony.

March 30.—Sharp skirmish at Karee Siding Station, a few miles south of Brandfort, in which the Boers are driven back; British casualties in killed and wounded nearly 200.

March 31.—A British convoy, commanded by Colonel Broadwood, and consisting of the Tenth Hussars, the Household Cavalry, two horse batteries, and a force of mounted infantry under Colonel Pilcher, is ambushed at Korn Spruit, near the Bloemfontein water-works, some 22 miles east of the city. Nearly 400 men and seven pieces of artillery captured by the Boers....Colonel Plumer repulsed near Mafeking, and a sortie from the besieged town checked.

April 3.—Premier Schreiner attacked by a mob of English residents at Cape Town.

April 4.—Three companies of the Irish Rifles and two companies of the Ninth Mounted Infantry, numbering over 500 men, captured by the Boers at Reddersburg, 38 miles south of Bloemfontein.

April 5.—Small scouting party of Boers captured by General Methuen's troops near Boshof. Among those killed is Col. de Villebois-Mareuil, the French military expert who had been General Joubert's chief-of-staff.

April 9.—British garrison at Wepener isolated, and a siege begun.

April 10.—General Buller's forces attacked at Elands-Laagte, Natal.

April 11.—General Gatacre's recall to England announced....General Chermside appointed to succeed him in command of the Third Division....Heavy bombardment continues at Wepener.

April 14.—General Cronje and other Boer prisoners arrive at St. Helena.

April 17.—British War Office makes public a report of General Roberts, severely criticising General Warren, Major Thorneycroft, and General Buller in connection with the battle of Spion Kop. General Warren's recall rumored.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

March 24.—The new Carnegie Company is incorporated at Trenton, N. J., with a capital of $160,000,000....The ceremony of beginning work on the New York City rapid-transit subway takes place.

March 26.—The number of bubonic plague cases reported at Sydney, N. S. W., reaches 36.

March 31.—Cambridge wins the annual boat-race with Oxford on the Thames.

April 1.—The Borchgrevink exploring expedition, arriving at Wellington, New Zealand, reports the location of the magnetic pole.

April 7.—A million-dollar dam across the Colorado River, near Austin, Texas, is swept away by a flood, with a loss of 50 lives, and property valued at $3,000,000.

April 14.—Governor Roosevelt authorizes the sending of several companies of militia to the scene of the strike of Italian laborers on the aqueduct works near New York City.

OBITUARY.

March 20.—Admiral Sir Henry Fairfax, 63....Sir Edmund Fane, British minister to Denmark, 62.

March 21.—Gen. Zealous Bates Tower, U. S. A., retired, 81....Prof. Henry Cohn, of Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., 53.

March 23.—Sherman S. Rogers, a prominent lawyer of Buffalo, N. Y., 70....Ex-Judge Jesse H. MacMath, of Cleveland, 67....Chevalier de Souza Correa, Brazilian minister to Great Britain, 64.

March 26.—Rabbi Isaac M. Wise, of Cincinnati, 81 ....Sir Donald Martin Stewart, 76....Ex-Gov. John M. Stone, of Mississippi, 70....Cardinal Camillo Mazzella, 67.

March 27.—Gen. Pietrus Jacobus Joubert, commander-in-chief of the Boer forces, 69 (see page 573).

March 28.—Count Vincent de Benedetti, French ambassador to Prussia at the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian war, 83.

March 29.—Archibald Forbes, the famous war correspondent, 62....Ex-Senator Philetus Sawyer, of Wisconsin, 84....John Henry Pepper, the London illusionist, 79.



THE LATE RABBI ISAAC M. WISE.

(One of the most eminent Jewish theologians in the United States.)



THE LATE DR. ST. GEORGE MIVART.

(The Roman Catholic scientist whose controversy with the authorities of the Church concerning the inspiration of the Scriptures has aroused world-wide interest.)

March 31.—Ex-Senator Charles H. Gibson, of Maryland, 58.

April 1.—Prof. St. George Mivart, the English scientist, 73.

April 4.—Ghazi Osman Nubar Pasha, the greatest of Turkish generals....Gen. John Bidwell, a California pioneer of 1841, 80.

April 5.—Silas B. Cobb, a prominent business man of Chicago, 88....Col. de Villebois-Mareuil, the French military expert with the Boer army, 52 (see page 573).

April 7.—Frederick E. Church, American landscape painter, 74.

April 9.—Commodore William Kennon Mayo, U. S. N., retired, 76.

April 10.—Frank H. Cushing, American ethnologist, 43....Mme. Murio-Celli d'Elpeux, a well-known song-writer, 56.

April 11.—Col. J. H. Lifford, a noted Texas colonist, 80.

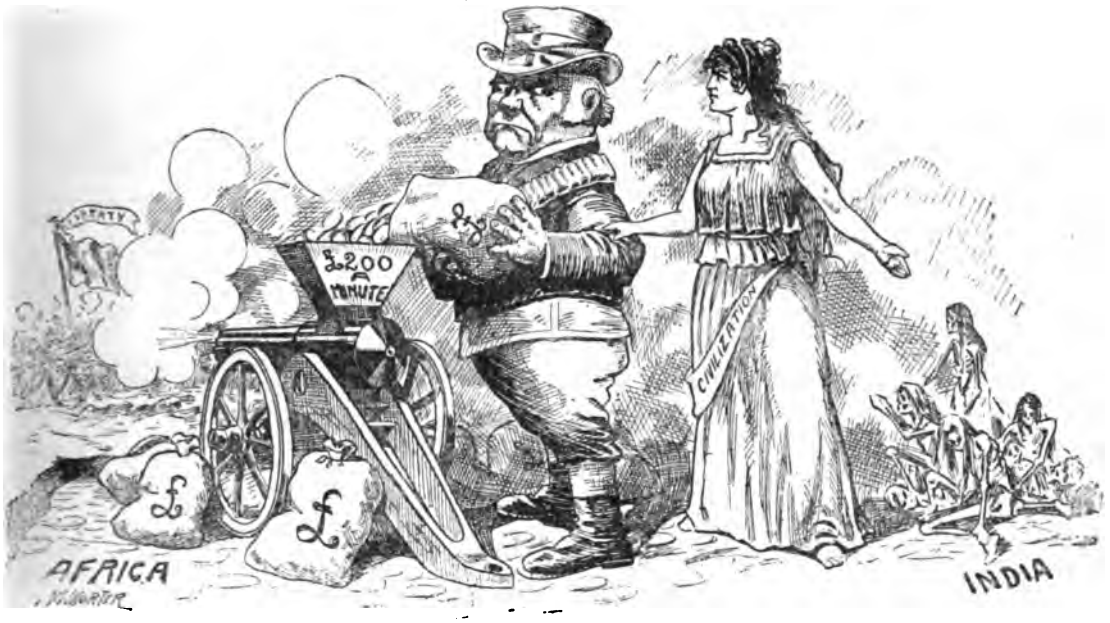
April 12.—Ebenezer Burgess Ball, nearest surviving relative of George Washington's family, 84.

April 13.—Prof. J. Wesley Churchill, of Andover, Mass., 61.

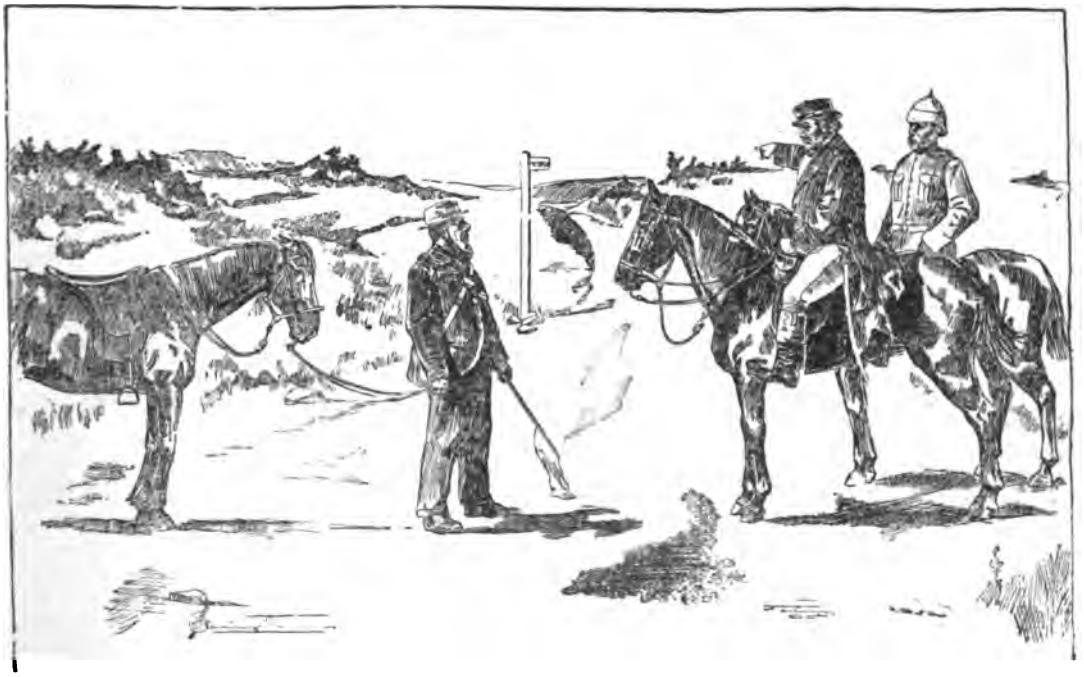
April 16.—Ex-Mayor John W. Hunter, of Brooklyn, N. Y., 93.

April 19.—Robert Alan Mowbray Stevenson, the British artist, 53.

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARICATURE.



CIVILIZATION TO JOHN BULL: "If you have so much money to spend for my sake, give some of it here."
From the *Leader* (Des Moines).



JOHN BULL: "Peace! We will discuss that matter at Pretoria."
From *Judy* (London).



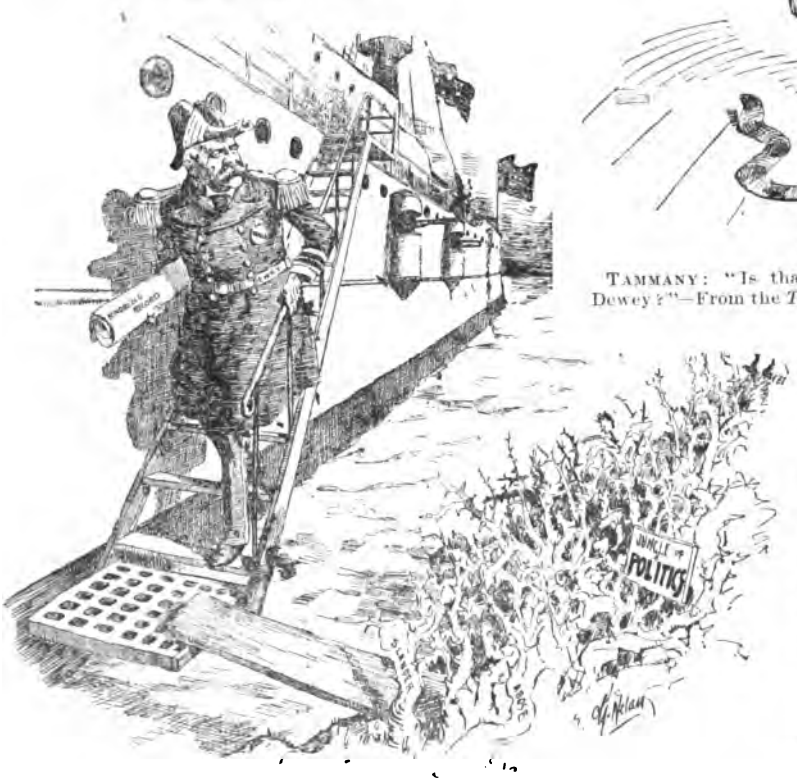
THE SONG OF THE SIREN.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



"HELLO!!!"

TAMMANY: "Is that you, Dick? Who's it—Bryan or Dewey?"—From the *Tribune* (New York).



LEAVING THE OLD SHIP.

"We know our honor'll be sustained
Where'er his pennant flies,
Our rights respected and maintained,
Whatever power defies."

—Colonel Hopkins' song at the farewell banquet to Dewey, November, 1897.

From the *Herald* (New York).

IT is gratifying that the cartoonists of whatever parties or persuasions in nearly every instance have restrained themselves, in their treatment of Admiral Dewey's political aspirations, to a more or less kindly satire. While not many of the hundreds of cartoons called forth by the Admiral's move have the real dignity—and pathos—of Mr. Nelan's picture on the left of this paragraph, we have seen none that attacked their subject on any intimately personal side, even though there are hundreds that are conceived in an open disapprobation of his course. "Bart's" cartoon on the last page of this department, with the Yankee pig as a subject, refers to the recent proposal of Turkey to discriminate against American pork—a proceeding all the less gracious because of the critical situation of that indemnity now long due Uncle Sam.



MAN OVERBOARD!

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



TOO LATE.—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



I WOULDN'T CARE IF HE DID STING ME.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



ON THE BRYAN-Y DEEP.

DEWEY: "Kansas City harbor appears to be pretty heavily mined."—From the *Tribune* (New York).



A TRUE IRISH WELCOME!

HIBERNIA: "Sure, your majesty, there's no place like home, and it's at home ye'll be with us!"
From *Punch* (London).



FRANCE HAS AN AXE TO GRIND.—From the *Times* (Denver).



WILL THE PIG GET IN?

SPAIN: "Beware the 'Yankee Pig,' Abdul Hamid; it doesn't pay to get his mad up."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



RUSSIA SEIZES A FAVORABLE OPPORTUNITY.

Over and over the story, ending as he began;
There is no truce with Adam-Zad, the bear that walks like a man.—KIPLING.—From the *Times-Herald* (Chicago).

CONVENTIONS AND GATHERINGS OF 1900.

SOME PRELIMINARY ANNOUNCEMENTS.

IN this forecast of the conventions and other important gatherings of the coming six months, which is made in accordance with a regular custom of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, it is natural that the great congresses at Paris and at London should have a large part. Not for many years have so many Americans included in their vacation plans more or less of Transatlantic touring and sight-seeing.

It happens, however, that the summer of 1900 will not be in any degree lacking in interesting occasions on this side the water. That unique and distinctly American institution, the Presidential nominating convention, still maintains its sway. As early as May 9 the fusion Populists will gather at Sioux Falls, South Dakota, the "Middle-of-the-Road" wing of the party meeting on the same day at Cincinnati. The Prohibitionists will meet at Chicago on May 27. The Social Democrats having placed their ticket—Debs and Harriman—in nomination early in March, all of the minor parties will have their candidates in the field before the meeting of the Republican convention at Philadelphia on June 19. After the completion of the Philadelphia ticket and platform there will be a lull before the massing of the Democratic hosts at Kansas City on July 4. The burning of the Kansas City convention hall just three months before the date set for the Democratic convention seems not to have made the slightest difference in the convention arrangements, except that a much better building is promised, to be fully equipped and ready when the delegates assemble. Unusual facilities are to be provided for the press—even for that humble but necessary factor in the party machinery, the country editor.

In the following pages are presented the announcements of a considerable number of scientific, educational, religious, sociological, and patriotic societies, together with the programmes of several important summer schools.

SCIENTIFIC, EDUCATIONAL, AND PROFESSIONAL CONVENTIONS.

In this year of transatlantic pilgrimages several of the principal scientific and professional bodies of this country have arranged for joint sessions with like organizations in England or on the Continent, where the remarkable series of congresses held in connection with the exposition at Paris will attract large numbers of American professional and scientific men.

On this side of the water a marked change is about to be inaugurated by the American Association for the Advancement of Science in adopting, as the date for its annual meeting, the last week of June instead of the first week in August, at which time all the previous meetings



PROF. R. S. WOODWARD.
(President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.)

have been held. This experiment is made because experience has shown that many members of the association are unwilling to have their summer vacations interrupted by the meeting, while many of those in Government service are necessarily engaged in field-work during the month of August. Holding the meeting in June at Columbia University, New York City, will make it possible for many members to attend on the eve of their departure for Europe.

The association at present contains about eighteen hundred members, and its meetings are held not only in general sessions, but in

sections of mathematics and astronomy, physics, chemistry, mechanical science and engineering, geology and geography, zoölogy, botany, anthropology, and social and economic science. It is proposed to establish at the next meeting an additional section to represent physiology and experimental medicine. In joint meeting with these sections several affiliated societies will be represented, including the Geological Society of America, the American Chemical Society, the American Mathematical Society, the Conference of Astronomers and Physicists, the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, the American Forestry Association, the Society for the Promotion of Agricultural Science, the Association of Economic Entomologists, and probably the American Folklore Society, and some others. The president of the association this year is Prof. R. S. Woodward, of Columbia University. Prof. L. O. Howard, of the United States Department of Agriculture, is the permanent secretary.

It is expected that in the session of the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society reports will be presented by observers of the total eclipse of the sun on May 28.

The annual meeting of the American Fisheries Society, composed of fish commissioners, fish-culturists, sportsmen, and scientists, will be held at Woods Holl, Mass., July 18–20. Those attending this meeting will be able to see the practical workings of a large marine fish-cultural station conducted at Woods Holl by the United States Fish Commission. The practical work of the *Fish Hawk* and other boats of the Fish Commission will also be illustrated, and an excursion to one of the commercial trout-hatcheries of Massachusetts has been proposed. The objects of this society are as follows: "To promote the cause of fish-culture; to gather and diffuse information bearing upon its practical success and upon all matters relating to the fisheries; the uniting and encouraging of all the interests of fish-culture and the fisheries, and the treatment of all questions regarding fish, of a scientific and economic character. . . ."

The next annual meeting of the American Ornithologists' Union will be held at Cambridge, Mass., November 13–15.

In the last week of December, the American Historical Association and the American Economic Association will each meet at Detroit, Mich., and several joint sessions will he held. At the meetings of the Economic Association papers will be presented on the various phases of colonial finance. There will also be a session on the taxation of corporations, with special reference to the administrative features of such taxation. The president of the Economic Association is Prof. Richard T. Ely, of the University of Wisconsin, and of the Historical Association, Dr. Edward Eggleston.

The National Geographic Society of Washington has arranged for an annual field-meeting and long-distance excursion to observe the total eclipse of the sun on May 28. The party will leave Washington at seven P.M., on May 27, and go to Norfolk, Va.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the National Educational Association is to be held at Charleston, S. C., July 7 to 13. The association has chosen an opportune time for holding a meeting in the South. Leading Southern educators and newspapers have earnestly sought the aid of the association in advancing the recent revival of educational interests in that section. The people of Charleston are making every effort to give the convention an enthusiastic welcome. An auditorium with a seating capacity of 8,000 will be provided, and it is believed that this building is better adapted for the general sessions of the association than any audience-room in which it has ever met. Department meetings will be held in commodious halls and churches. Accommodations have been secured by canvass for 10,000 visitors. The active or permanent members of the association now number 2,200; the associate membership numbers about 10,000 for the current year. In connection with the Charleston meeting, there will be an extensive exhibit of school work, organized with the special view of emphasizing manual-training exhibits.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION.

Important topics in secondary and higher education will be discussed at the annual convocation of the University of the State of New York, to be held at Albany, June 25–27. Among the subjects treated will be "New York's Opportunity in Connection with Cuban Education;" "Manual Training in Secondary Schools;" "Public Libraries as a Source of Inspiration;" "High-School Defects from the College Standpoint;" "College Defects from the High-School Standpoint;" "Systematic Individual Instruction in High School, College, and University," and "What Secondary Subjects are Most Valuable for a Business Life and for a Professional Life." A report will be made to the convocation on the organization and plans of the joint college-entrance board for the Middle States and Maryland. Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Dean Edward R. Shaw, of New York University, Brother Constantius, of



PROF. OSCAR T. CORSON.
(President of the National Educational Association.)

Christian Brothers' College, Memphis, Tenn., Principal Van Duzen, of the Ogdensburg Free Academy, and other prominent educators will join in the discussion of this report.

OTHER MEETINGS OF TEACHERS.

For the second time in its history, the American Institute of Instruction, said to be the oldest educational association in America, if not in the world, will hold its annual meeting on foreign soil. In 1897 the institute met in Montreal. This year it will be the guest of the city of Halifax, N. S., July 7–11. This body devotes its energies chiefly to the interests of the New England States.

The annual national convention of the German Teachers' Association will be held at Philadelphia, July 5–9.

THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS.

The National Congress of Mothers will meet at Des Moines, Iowa, on May 21. The convention will consider "Child-Study in its Possibilities for Boys," "The Right Education for Women," "The Training of Young Children," "The Child-Saving Problem in Its Many Attitudes," and allied topics. Col. F. W. Parker, of Chicago, will speak on "The Ideal Education." The president of the congress is Mrs. Theodore W. Birney, of Washington, D. C.

Two other important meetings of women must be mentioned here, although we regret our inability to give more than the dates and places of meeting. These are the General Federation of Women's Clubs, which will assemble at Milwaukee on June 4–9, and the Women's Christian Temperance Union, which is announced to meet at Washington on November 30.

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The twenty-second annual meeting of the American Library Association will be held at Montreal, June 6–17. One of the principal topics to come under consideration at this meeting will be library-work for children. Questions of administration affecting trustees and libraries will also have consideration. One session will be devoted to the libraries and literature of Canada. After the conference there will be an excursion down the St. Lawrence and up the Saguenay, with visits to Quebec and Tadousac, and during the sessions at Montreal brief side-trips will be made to places of historic interest in the vicinity.

MEDICAL AND SURGICAL CONVENTIONS.

Several important congresses of physicians will be held during the spring and early summer. The Association of American Physicians will meet at Washington, May 1–3. The president of this organization is Dr. E. G. Janeway, of New York City. Papers will be presented by Dr. William Osler, of Baltimore; Dr. Richard C. Cabot, of Boston; Dr. A. C. Abbott, of Philadelphia; Dr. Andrew H. Smith, of New York; Dr. J. N. Danforth, of Chicago; Dr. Norman Bridge, of Los Angeles; Dr. W. W. Johnston, of Washington, and other eminent practitioners. At the same time and place the American Surgical Association will hold a meeting, at which a number of papers will be presented by eminent surgeons throughout the country. On the same dates, also at Washington, the American Climatological Association will hold its annual meeting, considering such subjects as "The Modern Physician's Duty to His Tuberculous Patients;" "The Construction and Management of Small Cottage Sanatoria for Consumptives;" "The Educational and Legislative Control of Tuberculosis;" "Some Phases of the Tuberculosis Problem in Colorado;" "The Blood-Changes in High Altitudes," and "The Relation of Tuberculosis to the Nature of the Soil."

The fifty-first annual meeting of the American Medical Association will be held at Atlantic City, N. J., June 5–8. The membership of the association comprises about 8,500 practitioners. The work of the association is presented in twelve sections. European specialists will present papers, and a special feature of the meeting will be the report of the committee on tuberculosis appointed at the meeting in 1899 to investigate th

subject systematically. The president of the association is Dr. W. W. Keen. Just preceding the sessions of the American Medical Association the American Academy of Medicine will hold its twenty-fifth annual meeting, also at Atlantic City. The meetings of this organization are devoted to a consideration of questions bearing upon the larger relations of the profession to the general public, and of the different parts of the profession to one another. The president's address will be delivered this year by Dr. G. Hudson Makuen, of Philadelphia. Several papers will be presented on "The Medical Aspects of the Home."

The annual meeting of the American Medico-Psychological Association will be held at Richmond, Va., May 22–25. This association considers the condition and treatment of the insane. The next meeting of the Association of Assistant Physicians of Hospitals for the Insane will be held at Indianapolis during the latter part of September. The Association of Medical Officers of American Institutions for Feeble-Minded will meet at Polk, Pa., May 29–31.

The American Public Health Association will meet at Indianapolis on October 1, and continue in session for five days. At the last meeting a new section was formed, known as the Laboratory Section, which embraces in its membership representatives from most of the important laboratories of the United States and Canada.

The American Academy of Railway Surgeons is to meet at St. Paul, September 5. The next meeting of the American Institute of Homeopathy will be held at Washington, D. C., June 6. The National Eclectic Medical Association will hold its annual meeting at Atlantic City, N. J., June 19–21. This meeting will consider especially those subjects relating to materia medica and therapeutics.

The American Electro-Therapeutic Association will hold its annual meeting in New York City on September 25. The president of this association is Dr. Walter H. White, of Boston.

On the first three days of the first week in May, the Society of Superintendents of Training-Schools for Nurses will meet in New York City. The programme of this convention will be entirely made up of reports on the progress of the various educational reforms and movements in training-schools; namely, the extension of courses from two to three years, the substitution of the non-pay for the pay system, the movement for shorter working and longer study hours, and the details of the proposed curriculum for the three-years' course.

The National Dental Association will meet at Old Point Comfort, Va., on June 26–29.

The American Veterinary Medical Association will meet at Detroit, Mich., on September 4–6.

THE AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION.

The twenty-third annual meeting of the American Bar Association will be held at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., on August 29–31. The names of those who are to deliver addresses on this occasion have not yet been definitely determined. The meeting usually includes an annual address by some distinguished jurist, an address by the president of the association, who this year is the Hon. Charles F. Manderson, of Omaha, Neb., giving a summary of the important legislation in the various States during the year, and a few papers of a technical character. Reports are also to be made by various standing and special committees. The committee on jurisprudence and law reform is charged with the consideration of law of fellow-servants, slipshod legislation, consideration of certain phases of anti-trust legislation, torts on the high seas, and revision of the United States Statutes. The committee on commercial law will probably make a report on the working of the bankruptcy laws. The committee on international law is charged with the duty of bringing to the attention of the President and Senate the resolution adopted by the association in regard to the Hague Conference. Among



HON. CHARLES F. MANDERSON.
(President of the American Bar Association.)

the most important special committees is one on uniform State laws; there is also one on the reorganization of the federal judiciary system, and another on the observance of John Marshall Day on February 4, 1901.

THE ENGINEERS AND ARCHITECTS.

The thirty-second annual convention of the American Society of Civil Engineers will be held in London during the first week of July, at the house of the Institution of Civil Engineers, Great George Street. The general meeting of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, to be held at Philadelphia on May 16, will adjourn to meet in Paris on August 16, in joint session with the British Institution of Electrical Engineers. The American Society of Mechanical Engineers will hold its spring convention at Cincinnati, May 15–18. In November the Society of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers will hold its annual meeting in New York City.

The International Mining Congress will meet in Milwaukee, on June 17–22. The reports of the standing committees of the congress will be made upon the questions of a mineral department in the Cabinet of the President of the United States, which would require an additional secretary, and also the question of the conflict of what is known as the "apex" and "sideline" doctrines.

The American Institute of Architects will meet in Washington during December. It is proposed to have papers and discussions in relation to landscape work, including different varieties of gardens, as well as parks, and the grouping of buildings. It is expected that an exhibition of drawings will be arranged.

STENOGRAPHERS.

The National Shorthand Reporters' Association will meet at Put-in-Bay, Ohio, on August 14–17. An excellent programme has been arranged for the regular session of the association. Addresses are expected from some of the ablest and best-known reporters in the country. A banquet will be one of the social features of the occasion. The indications are that the meeting will be one not only of the greatest social enjoyment, but of unqualified success as respects the consideration and advancement of the material interests of the profession.

SINGING SOCIETIES.

As a prize for the clubs composing the Northeastern Saengerbund on the occasion of the Saengerfest to be held in Brooklyn on the first days of July, the Emperor William of Germany has offered a cup. Later in the season, on August 9–12, the Saengerbund of the Northwest will hold its annual Saengerfest at Burlington, Iowa.

The twenty-second annual convention of the Music Teachers' National Association meets at Des Moines, Iowa, on June 19–22.

A MEETING OF ART TEACHERS.

The annual meeting of the Eastern Art Teachers will be held at Boston, in the Massachusetts Normal Art School, on May 24–26. The general topic of the programme will be art as related to industry. Prof. H. Langford Warren will lecture on "Architecture in American Cities and Towns," illustrating his subject with lantern-slides. The subject of "Art in the Manual-Training School" will be presented by Miss Wright, of the Boardman High School, New Haven, Conn.

RELIGIOUS GATHERINGS.

It is difficult to assign an order of relative importance to the various religious bodies that will assemble in the coming months, and particularly in the month of May. The General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, meeting quadrennially, and officially representing one of the great religious denominations of the



REV. JAMES ROBERTSON.

(Delegate from the Wesleyan Methodists of Ireland to the General Conference of 1900.)

world, will perhaps attract more general attention than any other similar gathering during the coming season. The conference will assemble at Chicago on May 2, and remain in session during the greater part of the month. Especial interest is felt in this conference, because of the fact that the lay and clerical representation will for the first time be equalized in this body, provided the new rule adopted by the annual conferences throughout the country is confirmed by the General Conference itself. Lay delegates have had seats in the General Conference since 1872, and have usually constituted about one-third of the conference. Under the new rule the ministerial quota will remain the same, the lay representation being increased. It is believed that the effect on legislation will be at first conservative. The subject of a time-limit of pastorates is likely to be again discussed in the conference, and a committee of fifteen on the constitution of the Church will make report, while it is probable that the old debate on the church discipline and other matters that have received the attention of the conference in previous years will again come before the delegates. Several bishops will also have to be chosen.

The General Conference of the Methodist Protestant Church is appointed to meet in Atlantic City, N. J., on May 18. The conference will probably remain in session until May 29. This conference is the legislative body of the Methodist Protestant Church for the making and amending of the Church laws, and also for electing the general boards and officers of the Church for the coming four years.

CHURCHES OF THE PRESBYTERIAN ORDER.

The General Assembly of the Northern Presbyterian Church is to meet at St. Louis on May 17, and will remain in session until the end of the month. A special committee of the assembly is considering the question of beneficiary aid to students for the ministry, giving special attention to the charge that this system of aid tends to degrade ministerial character. Another committee on vacancies and supplies will report statistics showing that there is a dearth instead of a surplus of ministers in the Church. The question of creed revision will also have an important place in the deliberations of the assembly.

The General Assembly of the Southern Presbyterian Church will meet at Atlanta, Ga., on May 19. Among the prominent questions to be discussed by this assembly will be the matter of publishing a new church-hymnal and the promotion of a scheme for raising a large extra fund for the equipment of missions of the Church in foreign lands. It was decided, one year ago, to call upon the churches to contribute $200,000 to foreign missions as a twentieth-century fund.

The Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church, the highest court of the denomination, will meet at Cedarville, Ohio, on May 30, and continue in session for about one week. The synod will discuss the subjects of temperance, Sabbath-keeping, Godless government, secret societies, and missions. This is the denomination usually known as the "Covenanter Church."

The General Assembly of the United Presbyterian Church of North America will be held at Chicago on May 23; the Cumberland Presbyterian Church General Assembly will meet at Chattanooga, Tenn., on May 17; the Associate Reformed Synod of the South will assemble at Charlotte, N. C., on November 9; the next General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Canada will take place at Halifax, Nova Scotia, on June 13.

The General Synod of the Reformed Church in America will meet at Asbury Park, N. J., on June 6, and continue in session about one week. A committee appointed at the last meeting of the Synod to review the past progress and present condition of all the departments of church-work and to suggest plans for improvement, will report at the approaching meeting. Meetings will be held in the interest of home and foreign missions.

MEETINGS OF AMERICAN BAPTISTS.

The May anniversaries of the Northern Baptists will be held in Detroit, Mich., beginning on May 23, when the sixty-eighth anniversary of the American Baptist Home Missionary Society will be celebrated. The American Baptist Missionary Union will meet on May 28; the Rev. Dr. Henry C. Mabie will review ten years of work on the home field; the Rev. John L. Dearing, of Yokohama, will speak on "Japan During the Last Decade;" the Rev. S. W. Hamblen, also of Japan, will describe station-work in that country; the Rev. Dr. Joseph F. Elder, of New York, will speak on recent achievements in European missions.

The Southern Baptists' convention will meet at Hot Springs, Ark., May 11 to 15. This convention is composed of delegates from the Baptist Church in territory situated south of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi rivers, and including Maryland, Missouri, Arkansas, Indian Territory, Oklahoma, Texas, Cuba, and Mexico. As these delegates represent 18,873 churches and 1,586,700 members, the convention is regarded as the largest body of Baptists in the world. The annual sermon will be preached by the Rev. J. J. Taylor, D.D., of Norfolk, Va., or his alter-

nate, the Rev. A. J. Barton, D.D., of Arkansas.

The Woman's Missionary Union, an auxiliary to the Southern Baptist Convention, holds its annual meeting at the same place and on the same dates. The American Baptist Education Society, a national organization holding its meetings alternately with the Southern Baptist convention and the Northern Baptist anniversaries, meets this year on May 10 at Hot Springs. The new buildings for the Virginia Union University, at Richmond, will be dedicated with appropriate ceremonies on May 17 and 18. These buildings are said to constitute one of the finest educational equipments in the South.

The Baptist Vineyard Association will hold its annual meeting in the Baptist Temple, Wayland Grove, Cottage City, Mass., from August 12 to 19. The programme includes evangelical services under the direction of the Rev. Daniel Shepardson, Jr., of Chicago, sermons by the leading clergymen of the denomination, lectures on the Bible by Prof. Charles Rufus Brown, D.D., and a rendering of the cantata of "The Wreck of the Hesperus."

The National Baptist Convention will meet in the Fifth Street Baptist Church in Richmond, Va., on September 12. Reports will be made by the foreign and home-mission boards and the educational board.

CONGREGATIONAL MISSION BOARDS.

The annual meeting of the Congregational Home Missionary Society will be held at Detroit, Mich., on June 5 to 7. It is expected that Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard, U.S.A., retired, will preside at the session of the society, and the Rev. H. P. Dewey, D.D., of Concord, N. H., who has recently been called to succeed Dr. R. S. Storrs, of the Pilgrim Church, Brooklyn, will preach the annual sermon. The Rev. Philip S. Moxom, D.D., of Springfield, Mass., Dr. A. H. Bradford, of New Jersey, Dr. J. D. Kingsbury, of Massachusetts, and Mrs. Kate Upson Clark will also have parts in the programme.

The fifty-fourth annual meeting of the American Missionary Association will be held in Springfield, Mass., in October. This meeting will be especially interesting, as new mission fields have been opened in the island of Puerto Rico.

The next annual meeting of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions will be held at the Pilgrim Congregational Church, St. Louis, beginning on October 9. The Rev. E. C. Moore, D.D., of Providence, will preach the annual sermon, and Mr. Samuel B. Capen, of Boston, will preside. Addresses from missionaries are expected.

THE CHRISTIAN ENDEAVOR CONVENTION AT LONDON.

London, England, is to entertain the nineteenth International Christian Endeavor Convention, July 14 to 18, 1900. The meetings are to be held in the Alexandra Palace, and the immense "Endeavor tents" which will be spread in the beautiful park surrounding the palace. Preparations are being made for an attendance of twenty-five or thirty thousand. Several steamers have been chartered by the American Endeavorers, who will be represented by two thousand or more delegates.

The convention will open with a civic welcome by the Lord Mayor of London, at the Mansion House. The public meetings in the evening will be addressed by Rev. Francis E. Clark, D.D., Rev. F. B. Meyer, Rev. Joseph Brown Morgan, Rev. W. Knight Chaplin, and distinguished delegates from foreign lands. Sunday special services will be held in Westminster Abbey and in all the churches of the city. Sunday afternoon special children's services will be held in hundreds of churches, to be addressed by visiting delegates. The topic for Monday is "The Dawning Age and Its Problems," to be considered along commercial, intellectual, social, and missionary lines. Tuesday's topic will be "Demonstrations of World-wide Endeavor," with sectional meetings for pastors, temperance and missionary workers, work for young men and young women, the Tenth Legion, Sabbath observance, "Quiet Hour," etc. In the evening there will be addresses on the theme, "Pentecostal Power;" Wednesday there will be a school of methods, national rallies, and in the afternoon a great international peace demonstration, with speakers from all parts of the world. In the evening the closing consecration services will be held.

Thursday will be given up to denominational pilgrimages to Scrooby, Epworth, Bedford, and other places of historic interest.

The London convention will be followed by Christian Endeavor conventions in France, Germany, and Spain, where the movement is growing rapidly.

Among the prominent speakers who are expected to address the convention may be mentioned Dr. George C. Lorimer, Dr. Maltbie D. Babcock, Dr. W. T. McElveen, Rev. Chas. M. Sheldon, Rev. Cortland Myers, Bishop B. W. Arnett, Bishop Alexander Walters, and others of America, and Dr. Fairbairn, Dr. Munro Gibson, Dr. Joseph Parker, Archdeacon Sinclair, Dr. McLaren, and others of England, Australia, Africa, India, China, Japan, while the countries

of Europe will also be represented by leading Christian Endeavor workers.

THE NORTHFIELD SUMMER CONFERENCES.

Beginning earlier than usual, the events which make Northfield, Mass., the "Christian Mecca" that it has been called, will follow one another this year in quick succession.

From June 29 to July 8, the World's Student Conference will be in session. The usual programme of Bible classes, missionary institute, conferences on the methods of the student work, platform meetings in the Auditorium morning and evening, and "Round-Top" gatherings held at the sunset hour, and devoted to "life-work topics," will be carried out, and the plans foretell an exceptionally strong session. Athletics and recreation have their place, a committee from different colleges being in charge, and a part of each afternoon set apart for this purpose. Among the speakers already announced are Bishop Vincent, Mr. Robert E. Speer, Dr. W. R. Richards, the Rev. R. A. Torrey, President Schurman, Dr. C. E. Jefferson, and others.

July 13 to 23 follows the Young Women's Christian Association Conference, with purpose similar to the preceding one. The platform services morning and evening in the Auditorium, and the "Round-Top" meetings in the early evening will be addressed by the Rev. C. I. Scofield, D.D., Mr. Robert E. Speer, Miss Effie K. Price, Miss Bertha Condé, and other leaders of the Y. W. C. A. work. Dr. Charles Cuthbert Hall, of New York, and Dr. Whyte, of Edinburgh, have been invited.

In the Summer of 1880 the first of the gatherings which have come to be known as the General Conference for Christian Workers, assembled at the call of Mr. D. L. Moody. The coming session, August 2 to 19, will be the eighteenth held since that time. Services are held in the Auditorium mornings, afternoons, and evenings, and on "Round-Top" at sunset. Among the speakers will be the Rev. G. Campbell Morgan of London, the Rev. R. A. Torrey, Mr. Robert E. Speer, the Rev. John Douglas Adams, and others. The Rev. F. B. Meyer has been invited, and will probably be present. Special conferences on young people's and Sunday-school work are being arranged, and in the absence of any large young people's convention in this country this year, it is believed that these special meetings will meet the need of many young workers who are unable to go to London.

It is worthy of special note that since the death of Mr. Moody not a backward step has been taken in his work, but rather advance is being made not only in Northfield, where the enlarged hotel, the new summer session at Mount Hermon, wider conference plans, and a very large number of applications from those who wish to attend the conferences point to yet greater things for the future; but also in the western part of Mr. Moody's work, where the Chicago Bible Institute plans, in addition to its regular summer course, directed by the Rev. James M. Gray, D.D., of Boston, is to hold a gathering of Christian workers, September 19 to 26, as a general preparation for the winter's campaign.

Y. M. C. A. AND Y. W. C. A. CONFERENCES.

In addition to the Northfield Students' Conferences, gatherings of a like character will be held at Lake Geneva, Wis., under the auspices of the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A. The College Students' Conference will be held June 15–24. Last year the attendance at this conference rose to 376 students, representing 158 colleges and 15 States. An increased attendance is expected this year. The salient features of the programme will be Bible studies, conferences on religious work among college men, a missionary institute, a series of addresses on life-callings, and a number of platform addresses on the religious life and religious work in general.

The Young Women's Christian Association will hold its Lake Geneva Conference from June 29 to July 9, and its sixth Southern Conference at Asheville, N. C., June 15–25.

On July 13 will open the third session of the conference of active workers of city, railroad, and town Y. M. C. A.'s. One of the features of this conference will be an athletic meet under the auspices of the Athletic League of the Y. M. C. A.'s of North America.

The annual session of the Lake Geneva summer school for Secretaries and Physical Directors will be held from July 26 to August 26. Sixty students were in attendance in this school last year from all parts of the United States and Canada.

The fifth Pacific Coast Students' Conference will be held at Pacific Grove, Cal., May 18 to 27, under the direction of the college department of the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations.

A YOUNG PEOPLE'S UNION ASSEMBLY.

For the past twenty-six years Methodist camp-meetings have been held at Epworth Heights, near Loveland, Ohio, in the heart of the picturesque Little Miami Valley, about twenty-two miles from Cincinnati. This year there will be held there a ten days' interdenominational gathering of young people, beginning on July 17.

YOUNG PEOPLE'S DENOMINATIONAL MEETINGS.

The next international convention of the Baptist Young People's Union of America is to be held in Cincinnati, from July 12 to 15. The annual sermon will be preached by the Rev. E. G. Gauge, pastor of the Regent's Park Baptist Church, London.

The United Society of Free Baptist Young People will hold its twelfth annual convention at Lewiston, Me., from July 5 to 8.

The National Convention of the Young People's Christian Union of the United Brethren Church will hold its sixth biennial session at Lebanon, Pa., June 21–24. This organization represents over 2,000 Young People's Christian societies, having a membership of 80,000. Prof. J. P. Landis, D.D., is president, and Rev. H. F. Shupe, Dayton, Ohio, is secretary.

The twelfth annual convention of the Young People's Christian Union of the United Presbyterian Church of North America will be held at Denver, Colo., on July 25–30. It is believed that the attendance at this gathering will be very large. That at the Pittsburg convention in 1899 was about ten thousand.

The fifteenth annual convention of the Brotherhood of St. Andrew will be held at Richmond, Va., on October 10–14.

The Luther League of America will meet at Cincinnati on May 22.

MEETINGS IN THE INTEREST OF MISSIONS.

Although the great missionary gathering of the year—the Ecumenical Congress—has just taken place in New York City, there will be many meetings during the summer and autumn to advance the mission cause.



PROF. RICHARD GOTTHEIL.
(President of American Zionists.)

The seventeenth annual meeting of the International Missionary Union, a body composed exclusively of missionaries from the foreign field, either now in service or retired, will be held at Clifton Springs, N. Y., May 30 to June 5.

The national convention of the Christian Woman's Board of Missions is to be held at Kansas City, Mo., on October 11–13.

Summer conventions of the Christian and Missionary Alliance are announced for Grimsby Park, Ontario, Canada, June 20 to July 1; Beulah Park, Ohio, July 12 to 22; Asbury Park, N. J., July 25 to 29; Old Orchard Beach, Me., August 3 to 12, and Atlanta, Ga., August 16 to 26.

FEDERATION OF AMERICAN ZIONISTS.

The third annual convention of the Federation of American Zionists, of which Prof. Richard Gottheil, of Columbia University, is president, will be held at New York City on June 10. This body will elect delegates to the Zionist Congress to be held at Basle, Switzerland, in August.

CONFERENCES ON SOCIAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM.

An important conference is to be held at Montgomery, Ala., on May 8–10, for the discussion of race problems in relation to the welfare of the South. This conference is to be controlled entirely by Southern men, being held under the auspices of what is known as the Southern Society, an organization formed for the promotion of the study of race conditions and problems in the South. The permanent chairman of the conference will be the Hon. H. A. Herbert, former secretary of the navy. The first specific problem to be taken up by the conference will be the question of the franchise. The Hon. Alfred M. Waddell, mayor of Wilmington, N. C., will advocate the solution of this problem which is now pending in North Carolina. Other speakers will discuss the Mississippi and Louisiana provisions. A discussion of popular education in the South will be opened by Dr. H. B. Frissell, of Hampton Institute. He will be followed by Dr. J. L. M. Curry, and other eminent exponents of Southern education. The religious aspect of work among the negro race will be treated by leading representatives of the Baptists, Methodists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and Roman Catholics. There will be a general discussion of the legal aspect of the lynching question. This topic will be presented by the Hon. Alexander C. King, of Georgia; the Hon. Clifton R. Breckinridge, of

Arkansas; the Hon. John Temple Graves, of Atlanta; and Dr. Dreher, president of Roanoke College, Virginia. Mr. Walter H. Page, of New York City, will speak upon "The Significance of the Color Line in Relation to the Race Problem." The closing address of the conference will be delivered by the Hon. W. Bourke Cockran, of New York, on the subject of "The Negro as an American Problem." The various forces of religious education and political life of the South seem to be heartily united in this movement represented by the Southern Society. The discussion of these vital problems at the Montgomery conference cannot fail to result in the broadening of the public mind, both North and South.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction will meet at Topeka, Kan., on May 18 to 24. The president of the conference is the Hon. C. E. Faulkner, of Minneapolis. The conference will be devoted to the discussion of questions relating to the care of the poor, insane, feeble-minded, epileptics, dependent and neglected children, etc. Arrangements have been made to enable the members of the conference to visit the Haskell Institute and the Indian School at Lawrence and also the United States Prison and the Soldiers' Home at Leavenworth. The session of the prison committee will be held at Leavenworth. A special feature of the conference will be the use of the stereopticon to illustrate the evening addresses. Dr. Peterson, of New York, will exhibit views illustrating the Craig Colony at Sonyea, N. Y., recently described in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Mr. Stonaker will exhibit views of model jails and poorhouses. Mr. Folks will exhibit views illustrating the best hospital for the insane. The work of charity organization societies, child-saving work, and the work of juvenile reformatories will be illustrated by the same method.

The National Prison Association will meet at Cleveland, Ohio, on September 22–26. Among the subjects to be discussed by this conference will be criminal law reform, preventive and reformatory work, prison discipline, the care of discharged prisoners, the work of the prison physician, and the police force in cities.

The eighteenth annual meeting of the Lake Mohonk Indian Conference will be held at Lake Mohonk, October 10–12. No definite programme for this gathering is arranged in advance.

SOCIAL SCIENCE.

The general meeting of the American Social Science Association will be held in Washington, D. C., on May 7–11. The annual address will be delivered by Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, president of the association. One day will be devoted to the department of health, and especially the discussion of efforts for the control of yellow fever. Another day will be given to the department of education and art, and a third to social economy and finance. There will be papers on social changes in the United States in the last fifty years by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, Miss Kate Sanborn, and Dr. J. H. Claiborne, of Virginia. The growth of building associations and banks since 1850 will be reviewed, and the currency and trust questions will be discussed.

The annual convention of the National Association of Officials of Bureaus of Labor Statistics will be held at Milwaukee on July 10–14. Papers will be presented by Prof. R. T. Ely, of the University of Wisconsin, Hon. James W. Latta, of Pennsylvania, and others.

PUBLIC PARK IMPROVEMENT.

The American Park and Outdoor Art Association was formed at Louisville, Ky., in May, 1897, "for the purpose of promoting the conservation



MR. CHARLES M. LORING.
(President of the American Park and Outdoor Art Association.)

of natural scenery, the acquirement and improvement of land for public parks and reservations, and the advancement of all outdoor art having to

do with the designing and fitting of grounds for public and private use and enjoyment." The membership of this body represents eighty-five cities and towns in twenty-eight States and Canada. The meeting at Detroit in June, 1899, was especially interesting, the papers presented covering a wide range of important and valuable subjects. At that meeting committees were formed for the following purposes: to consider the best methods of checking the abuses of public advertising; to endeavor to secure the appointment of a special census agent who shall obtain concise statistics of the parks throughout the country; to consider the best method of keeping park accounts and to recommend the same for general adoption; to coöperate with the Bureau of Horticulture at the Pan-American Exposition to be held at Buffalo in 1901, and to consider the offering of prizes for designs of home and school-grounds. The president of the association is Mr. Charles M. Loring, of Minneapolis, a gentleman who has labored unselfishly for many years in the interest of the magnificent Minneapolis park system. The meeting of the association for 1900 will be held on June 6 to 8, at Chicago.

GOOD GOVERNMENT MEETINGS.

In November the National Municipal League will meet at Milwaukee and the League of American Municipalities at Charleston, S. C. Definite programmes for these meetings have not yet been arranged, but the question of municipal ownership is likely to be prominent in each.

The American Society for Municipal Improvement will meet at Milwaukee on August 28.

The annual convention of the American Anti-Saloon League will be held at Chicago on May 24–25. The superintendent of this organization is the Rev. Howard H. Russell, of Delaware, Ohio.

A Christian Political Assembly will be held at Rock Island, Ill., on May 1, to discuss the question whether the principles of Christianity should be applied in concrete form to State and national government through a Christian political union or party. It is possible that this convention may nominate candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency.

PATRIOTIC SOCIETIES.

The Grand Army of the Republic will hold its thirty-fourth national encampment at Chicago in the week beginning August 27. On Tuesday of that week the grand national parade will occur. Other organizations meeting at the same time and place are the Woman's Relief Corps and the Ex-Prisoners of War.

The annual meeting of the Commandery-in-Chief of the Military Order of the Loyal Legion will be held in Indianapolis, probably on October 10.

The nineteenth annual encampment of the Commandery-in-Chief of the Sons of Veterans will be held in Syracuse, N. Y., September 11–13. The present commander-in-chief is Lieut.-Gov. A. L. Jones, of Ohio.

It is proposed by the United States Veteran Navy to have nautical memorial services on the Atlantic Ocean near New York City on Memorial Day, May 30, in memory of shipmates who have been buried at sea and are lying in an unmarked grave. The function will consist of appropriate



COL. ALBERT D. SHAW, OF WATERTOWN, N. Y.
(Commander-in-Chief G. A. R.)

ritualistic ceremonies and addresses by some distinguished clergymen and others. It is said that this will be the first time that such a ceremony has taken place on this side of the Atlantic.

The annual reunion of the Society of the Army of the Potomac will be held at Fredericksburg, Va., May 25–26. Gen. Daniel E. Sickles will be the orator of the day. This will be the first meeting of the society on ex-Confederate soil. President McKinley has promised to be present.

The next reunion of the United Confederate Veterans will be held at Louisville, Ky., on May 30 and the four following days. The next annual convention of the United Daughters of

the Confederacy will be held at Montgomery, Ala. November 14–17. The president of this organization is Mrs. Edwin G. Weed, of Jacksonville, Fla.

The General Society of the War of 1812 will meet at Philadelphia on June 19, the anniversary



MRS. EDWIN G. WEED.

(President of the Daughters of the Confederacy.)

of the declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain in 1812. It is said that this society carries on its rolls to-day a number of the actual participants in our "second war for independence," all of whom have passed the century mark.

The second annual reunion of Roosevelt's Rough Riders will be held at Oklahoma City on July 1–4. A number of other volunteer regiments have been invited to the reunion, and among those that have accepted are the First Tennessee, the First Colorado, and the Twentieth Kansas. The governors of the different States and their staffs have also been invited. Governor Roosevelt has promised to be present during the four days of the reunion.

The American Flag Association, which is a union of the flag committees of all patriotic societies for the purpose of fostering public sentiment in favor of honoring the flag and preserving it from desecration, will hold its annual meeting at New York City on June 14. The president of this organization is Col. Ralph E. Prime, of Yonkers, N. Y., and the secretary is Gen. Thomas Wilson, of New York City.

INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS.

The American Federation of Labor, under the presidency of Samuel Gompers, will meet in annual session on December 5 at Louisville, Ky. The convention of the Knights of Labor, headed by Grand Master Workman John M. Parsons, will be held at Birmingham, Ala., on November 13.

The biennial convention of the Tobacco-Workers' International Union will be held at Wheeling, W. Va., on the last Monday in September. The Coopers' International Union, an organization affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, will hold its next convention at Boston on October 8. The Glass-Bottle Blowers' Association, also affiliated with the A. F. L., will hold its twenty-fourth annual convention at Detroit on July 9.

The International Typographical Union will meet in Milwaukee on August 13–18. During the month of September the convention of the United Typothetæ of America will be held at Kansas City, Mo. The National Association of Photo-Engravers will hold a convention at Cleveland, Ohio, on July 16–21. The Photographers' Association of America will hold its annual convention at Milwaukee on July 23.

The biennial convention of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen will be held at Des Moines, Iowa, on September 10. The biennial convention of the International Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers will be held at Milwaukee on May 9.

The annual convention of the National Association of Stationary Engineers will be held at Milwaukee on September 3. At this convention papers will be read on important mechanical subjects, and there will also be excursions to points of interest in and about the city. This association does not countenance strikes, and its meetings are devoted chiefly to self-improvement and education in the engineer's calling. The president of the association, Mr. Herbert E. Stone, is the chief engineer of Harvard University. The International Brotherhood of Stationary Firemen will hold its third annual convention at Peoria, Ill., on September 9.

The eighth annual convention of the United States League of Local Building and Loan Associations will be held at Indianapolis on July 25. The convention will be composed of delegates chosen by affiliating State leagues. The principal papers to be read at the convention will treat of the history, development, and evolution of building and loan associations in the United States. It will be the endeavor of the managers to secure a complete review of home-building



MR. SAMUEL GOMPERS.
(President of the Federation of Labor.)

coöperation since its inception in this country seventy years ago.

RAILROAD CONVENTIONS.

A great number of railroad conventions will be held during the next few months. At Milwaukee, on May 28, the national convention of Railroad Commissioners will meet. This organization is composed of railroad commissioners of all States, and State officers charged with any duty in the supervision of railroads are invited to attend and participate in the discussion of such topics as may come before the convention. The Association of Railway Accounting Officers is also invited to attend, or to send delegates to the convention, and join in the consideration of such questions of special interest to that association as may arise.

The Association of American Railway Accounting Officers will meet at Boston on May 30; the American Association of Traveling Passenger Agents at Old Point Comfort, Va., probably in September; the National Association of Railway Agents at Detroit, Mich., July 24–27; the American Association of General Baggage Agents at Boston on July 18; the Association of Railway Claim Agents at Louisville, Ky., during the last week in May; the Freight Claim Association at St. Louis, Mo., on May 2; the National Association of Local Freight Agents' Associations at Boston on July 12; the American Railway Master Mechanics' Association and the Master Car-Builders' Association at Saratoga, on June 18; the Association of Railway Superintendents of Buildings and Bridges at St. Louis, Mo., on October 16; the Road-Masters' Association of America at Los Angeles, Cal., on November 13; the National Railway Master Blacksmiths' Association at Detroit, Mich., on September 18; the Association of Railway Telegraph Superintendents at Detroit, Mich., on June 20; the Train Dispatchers' Association of America at Atlanta, Ga., on June 12; and the American Street Railway Association at Kansas City, Mo., on October 16.

AMERICAN SUMMER SCHOOLS.

SUMMER WORK AT THE UNIVERSITIES.

The summer work at Harvard University for the coming season will attract unusual attention because of the presence in Cambridge of over fourteen hundred Cuban teachers, for whom instruction will be generously provided by the university authorities. The president and fellows have guaranteed the sum of $70,000 in order that the Cuban teachers may have the advantages of a summer's instruction. Although this instruction is to be given during the regular session of the Harvard Summer School, the committee in charge of that work announces that it will be given under separate direction and by instructors especially chosen for that task. A few of these Cuban teachers, who have a sufficient knowledge of English, may be entered in the regular summer classes. All of the courses offered are adapted to the needs of teachers in elementary and secondary schools.

The first summer session of Columbia University, New York City, will open on July 2, and continue until August 10. The courses of instruction include the subjects of botany, education, English, geography, history, manual training, mathematics, philosophy, physical training, physics, and psychology.

At Cornell University there will be summer courses in Greek, Latin, German, the Romance languages, the science and art of education, psychology, ethics, history, civics, political and social science, mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, geology, physiology, drawing and art, mechanical drawing and designing, mechanic arts, and nature study. In the latter subject the course is offered in three departments: nature study in insect life, nature study in plant life, and nature study on the farm.

New York University, at University Heights, New York City, offers forty courses in the depart-

ments of Greek, Latin, Semitics, English, German, philosophy, education, history, economics, mathematics, physics, chemistry, and biology. The session will begin on July 9 and end on August 17. The university has placed at the service of the students taking the summer courses all the libraries, laboratories, recitation-halls, dormitories, dining-hall, and athletic-grounds at University Heights.

The summer session of the University of Michigan will begin on July 2, and continue in the literary department for six weeks, and in the law department for eight weeks. In the courses offered the pedagogical side will be especially emphasized, and the university authorities announce their intention to increase from year to year the number of courses that will appeal to teachers. A number of special lectures bearing on the history and teaching of several branches taught in the summer sessions, such as Latin, English, mathematics, physics, botany, and others, will be given by members of the faculty, and will be free to all members of the summer session. As at Cornell, special courses will be offered in nature study, to begin on July 23, and continuing to the end of the session.

The summer school maintained by the University of Wisconsin since 1887 was replaced last year by the summer session of the university, the scope of the work being greatly enlarged. At present all of the departments of the college of letters and science are represented in the summer instruction by from three to thirteen courses each. Altogether one hundred and twenty-four courses of study will be offered in twenty-four departments, ranging from the elementary work of the university to graduate courses of instruction. A new feature for the coming session is the introduction of several courses of lectures by professors from other institutions. Among these are Prof. Kuno Francke, of Harvard, in German; Prof. F. H. Giddings, of Columbia, in sociology; Prof. H. Morse Stephens and Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, of Cornell, in history; Prof. Jesse Macy, of Iowa College, in political science; William M. Payne, editor of the *Dial*, in English literature; Prof. Jesse B. Carter, of Princeton, in Latin, and Professor Fenneman, of Greeley, Colo., in physical geography. Especial attention will be given during the coming session to the departments of economics and sociology, and allied subjects. Four of the special lecturers will lecture in these departments. The summer session will begin on July 2 and close on August 10.

The University of Chicago offers the usual wide range of courses for the summer quarter, the work in that part of the year being organized on the same basis as that in the other quarters.

Iowa College, at Grinnell, announces for the first time a summer session, to continue for six weeks, beginning on June 19. The courses provided in this session are intended to be of a quality and quantity of work commensurate with courses given regularly with the college year, and may be accepted for college credit. Courses will be given in biology, English, French and German, history, Latin, mathematics and astronomy, physical culture, and physics.

The University of Nebraska announces a summer session from June 8 to July 20, with instruction in American history, botany, chemistry, the Romance languages, English, German, mathematics, and philosophy.

As usual, the University of Virginia announces its summer courses of law lectures, established as long ago as 1870, and a summer class in chemistry. The summer quarter of West Virginia University is a regular division of the university year, with the addition of a large number of popular scientific and literary lectures, concerts, etc., open to all students. The quarter begins on July 22, and continues until September 1.

At McGill University, Montreal, summer classes will be opened in drawing, modeling, and painting. These classes will be open to men and women. The syllabus will comprise both elementary and advanced courses in freehand drawing, model drawing, painting in oils and water-colors, studies in still life, landscape art, the human head, draped figures, and living models.

SUMMER SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS.

In addition to the liberal provision made oy several of the leading American universities for summer instruction adapted to the needs of public-school teachers, there are several long-established summer institutions which offer attractive programmes to those seeking pedagogical training. The Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute announces courses by Prof. Edward Howard Griggs on psychology, pedagogy, and child-study; by Dr. W. A. Mowry on civil government, and by other well-known normal-school instructors on topics connected with the science and art of teaching.

The Summer School of Methods at Roanoke, Va., reported an enrollment in 1899 of 700 students. It will be conducted during the coming summer under the direction of Mr. E. C. Glass, of Lynchburg, and Prof. W. A. Jenkins, of Portsmouth, Va.

The Hampton Summer Normal Institute at Hampton, Va., will give courses in methods of teaching, sewing, cooking, manual training,

upholstery, and simple business forms and methods. The shops of the trade-school will also be open for any who wish to work at a trade. On July 18–20 the Hampton Negro Conference will hold its annual session. The institute will begin on July 5, and continue in session four weeks. Last year there were 316 teachers in attendance.

A summer school for teachers will be opened at Hanover, N. H., on July 5. This school will be under the direction of instructors from Dartmouth College, and will offer courses in education and teaching, history, English, German, Latin, mathematics, physics, and biology.

The Sauveur Summer School of Languages will hold its annual session at Amherst, Mass., beginning on July 9 and continuing six weeks. At this school the natural method of learning languages is exemplified; and, by coöperation with members of the Amherst College faculty, instruction is given in library economy, mathematics, chemistry, and other subjects.

CHAUTAUQUA FOR 1900.

The twenty-sixth Chautauqua season will open on July 27 and close on August 23. The summer schools will be in session from July 7 to August 17. The attendance last year was the largest in the history of the institution. Of the 41,000 different people present during the season, 3,500 came from south of Mason and Dixon's line, 1,200 from west of the Mississippi, and nearly one thousand from New England.

Among the series of university extension lectures announced for the coming season may be mentioned the following: Pres. G. Stanley Hall, "Educational Problems;" Mr. Alleyne Ireland, "Tropical Colonization;" Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, "Interesting Points in American History Since 1789;" Pres. Benjamin Ide Wheeler, "Studies in Greek Life;" Mr. Bliss Perry, "The Modern Novel;" Dr. Alexander S. Chessin, "Russia, Political, Social, and Educational;" Prof. John Dewey, "School and Society;" Miss Jane Addams, "Problems of Democracy;" Prof. Graham Taylor, "The New Social Chivalry;" Prof. Edward Howard Griggs, "Education and Life;" and many others of note.

Single lectures and addresses will be given by many well-known speakers, among whom may be mentioned: Bishop J. M. Thoburn, Pres. W. W. Birdsall, Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth, Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman, Miss Susan B. Anthony, Dr. J. M. Buckley, Bishop C. H. Fowler, Dr. A. E. Winship, Rev. S. Parkes Cadman, Bishop John H. Vincent, Rev. S. A. Steele, *et al.* Over one hundred and twenty courses of instruction will be offered in the thirteen summer schools. The New York State Free Institute will be continued under subsidy from the Legislature. Nearly six hundred were enrolled in this department alone last summer. One of the innovations for 1900 will be a vacation school in which teachers from the elementary school of the University of Chicago will conduct instruction in harmony with the theories and methods worked out under the guidance of Prof. John Dewey, who will himself be present for three weeks.

THE JEWISH CHAUTAUQUA.

The fourth Annual Summer Assembly of the Jewish Chautauqua Society will be held at Atlantic City, N. J., July 15 to 30, 1900. In the absence of the Chancellor, the Rev. Dr. Henry Berkowitz, of Philadelphia, Prof. Richard Gottheil, of Columbia College, New York, will assume general charge of the educational work. The director of the assembly will be Mr. Isaac Hassler, of Philadelphia. It is purposed this year to introduce the feature of class work; that is, to combine the assembly with the summer-school idea for the purpose of giving tuition to Jewish teachers and others in Jewish subjects. This is the first time that any summer work of this kind has been attempted among Jews. The work will be divided into three departments: (1) department of Chautauqua circles in Bible and Jewish history and literature; (2) summer school, which will include courses in Hebrew, pedagogics, and the like; (3) the department of popular entertainment.

THE CHAMPLAIN SUMMER SCHOOL.

At Cliff Haven, N. Y., near Plattsburgh, the Champlain Summer School will begin its ninth session in the first week of July, and continue until the end of August. This school is the leading Roman Catholic institution of its class in the United States. Invitations from the board of studies, in charge of the programme, have been accepted by George Melville Bolling, Ph.D., and Charles P. Neill, Ph.D., of the Catholic University at Washington, D. C. Those in attendance at former sessions will be pleased to extend a hearty welcome to Dr. James J. Walsh, of the University of Pennsylvania, and Henry Austin Adams, A.M. A number of leading questions of philosophy are assigned to the Rev. James A. Doonan, S.J., of St. Joseph's College, Philadelphia; the Rev. Thomas I. Gasson, S.J., of Boston College, and the Rev. John T. Driscoll, S.T.L., author of two recent volumes bearing on theism and the human soul.

Under the direction of the Rev. D. J. McMahon, special studies covering a period of six weeks have been planned, dealing with Shake-

spearean literature. These studies will be conducted according to the plan of "Round-Table Talks," by Dr. James J. Walsh, Alexis I. du Pont Coleman, B.A. (Oxford), and the Very Rev. Hubert Farrell, V.F., of Westbury, N. Y. According to the same plan the "Divina Commedia" of Dante will be discussed: the "Inferno" by the Rev. D. J. Mahoney, D.D., of New York City; the "Purgatorio" by the Rt. Rev. Monsignor Loughlin, D.D., Chancellor of Philadelphia; the "Paradiso" by the Rev. Joseph F. Delaney, D.D., of New York City.

Prof. William L. Tomlins, who was choral director of the World's Columbian Exposition, has been engaged for a training course in singing, especially adapted to the needs of teachers, amateur organists, and parents who are seeking for the best methods of developing vocal music, especially among children. A course of illustrated lectures on art will be given by Miss Anna Seaton Schmidt, of Washington, D. C.

SUMMER SCHOOL IN PHILANTHROPIC WORK.

The Charity Organization Society of New York City purposes to conduct a second summer school in philanthropy from June 18 to July 28. Extended notice of the methods initiated last year was given in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS at that time. The programme for the coming season is divided into five main topics, although half of the time will be devoted to the consideration of the first. These topics are the treatment of needy families in their homes; the care of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children; medical charities; institutional care of adults, and neighborhood improvements. The work is in charge of the same experts and practical charity workers who so successfully conducted the course of 1899, the whole being under the direction of Dr. Philip W. Ayres. The Charity Organization Society seeks an endowment of $100,000 to enable it to extend its work of training persons for the various charitable societies and institutions that are constantly applying to it for trained workers.

SCHOOLS FOR NATURE STUDY.

Mr. Albert L. Arey announces the eleventh season of his natural-science camp for boys at Canandaigua, N. Y. Although no text-books are used in Mr. Arey's camp, excellent instruction is given in the subjects of biology, entomology, taxidermy, and photography.

The Rhode Island Summer School for Nature Study will hold its second session on July 5–20, at Kingston, R. I. The work of this school consists in the examination of particular animals and plants in their natural environment, chiefly such forms as are found about every schoolhouse and home; living, as distinguished from post-mortem, biology; instruction out of doors, in the laboratory, and by special evening lectures by distinguished specialists. Tuition is free to teachers in the schools of Rhode Island.

Beloit College, Wisconsin, will hold a summer school on Madeline Island, Lake Superior, from July 26 to August 30. This is to be exclusively a nature school. Geology, botany, zoology, with field work, will be, in an original and unique place, the subject-matter of the school. An old Indian mission will be occupied by the college. High-grade work on college lines will be pursued. Credit will be given on the regular college course for the work done in this summer school. Geological and botanical excursions will be made to the different Islands of Lake Superior, especially Isle Royale, which is a botanical paradise in summer.



OLD INDIAN MISSION ON MADELINE ISLAND, LAKE SUPERIOR.

(Beloit College Summer School.)

A school of applied agriculture and horticulture will be established near New York City, to open in September for study and practical training. Sixty acres of land have been secured for this purpose in Westchester County, within twen-

ty-seven miles of New York City. A building is to be erected at once to accommodate forty students and instructors, with lecture and class rooms. Instruction is to be given in the planting and care of orchards, gardening, hothouse culture, bee, poultry, and dairy work, and the marketing of products. Students will have the use of the laboratories and the extensive collection of plants in the museum, the conservatories, and upon the grounds of the New York Botanical Garden. The work will be under the direction of Mr. George T. Powell.

EUROPEAN CONGRESSES AND OTHER GATHERINGS.

The expression "world's congress" became current in the United States in 1893 in connection with the World's Fair at Chicago. Ever since that time American leaders of scientific and religious thought have looked forward to the opening of the great fair at Paris in the present year in anticipation of the assemblages of learned societies to be held on that occasion. The leading scientific bodies of this country have taken quite as much interest in the preparations for these world congresses of 1900 as for the material part of the Paris show. We publish herewith a partial list of the congresses to be held in connection with the exposition. Each congress has its own conditions for participation, its special fees, and its own publications.

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY.

Horticulture	May 25 to 27
Forestry	June 4 to 7
Agricultural stations	June 18 to 20
Viticulture	June 20 to 23
Cattle-feeding	June 21 to 23
Agriculture	July 1 to 7
Agricultural coöperation	July 8
Apiculture	September 10 to 13
Fruit-culture	September 10 to 12
Aquiculture and fishery	September 14 to 19

ANTHROPOLOGY, ARCHÆOLOGY, AND HISTORY.

Numismatics	June 14 to 16
Comparative history	June 18 to 21
Ethnography	August 25 to September 1
History of religions	September 3 to 8
Basque studies	September 3 to 5
Folklore	September 10 to 12
Americanists	September 17 to 21

ART.

Photography	July 23 to 28
Architecture	July 30 to August 4
Teaching of art	August 29 to September 1
Music	August —
Municipal art	August —
Stage	August —

COLONIAL QUESTIONS.

Colonial sociology	July 30 to August 4
Colonies	August 6 to 11
Economic and commercial geography	August 27 to 31

ECONOMICS AND FINANCE.

Movable property	June 4 to 7
Joint-stock companies	June 8 to 11
Landed property	June 11 to 13
Insurance	June 25 to 30
Actuaries	June 25 to 30
Commerce and industry	July 23 to 28
Industrial property	July 23 to 28
Tariff regulations	July 30 to August 4
Gold and silver	September —

EDUCATION.

Modern-language teaching	July 24 to 29
Higher education	July 30 to August 3
Primary education	August 2 to 5
Secondary education	August 2 to 5
Philosophy	August 2 to 7
Educational press	August 9 to 11
Stenography	August 9 to 15
Bibliography	August 16 to 18
Psychology	August 22 to 25
Teaching of drawing	August 29 to September 1
Popular education	September 10 to 13

LABOR AND COÖPERATION.

Cheap dwellings	June 18 to 21
People's credit banks	July 8 to 10
Profit-sharing	July 10 to 18
Workmen's coöperative productive associations	July 11 to 13
International coöperative alliance	July 18 to 22

MARINE AFFAIRS.

Naval architecture and construction	July 19 to 21
Navigation	July 30 to August 4
Chronometry	July —
Maritime law	October 1 to 8

MATHEMATICAL, PHYSICAL, AND CHEMICAL SCIENCE.

Applied chemistry	July 23 to 31
Physics	August 6 to 11
Mathematics	August 6 to 11
Electricity	August 18 to 25
Chemistry	September 20 to 29

MEDICINE AND HYGIENE.

Professional medicine	July 23 to 28
Medicine	August 2 to 9
Dermatology	August 2 to 9
Pharmacy	August 8
Dentistry	August 8 to 14
Hygiene	August 10 to 17
Hypnotism	August 12 to 15
Medical press	August —

MINING, ENGINEERING, AND APPLIED SCIENCE.

Mines	June 18 to 23
Aeronautics	June —
Automobiles	July 9
Testing of materials	July 9 to 16
Thread-numbering	July —
Steam-engines, etc	July 16 to 18
Applied mechanics	July 19 to 25
Railroads	September 10 to 12

NATURAL SCIENCE.

Ornithology	June 26 to 30
Meteorology	July 28 to 28
Geology	August 6 to 28
Alpinists	August 12 to 14
Botany	October 1 to 7

PHILANTHROPY.

Life-saving	July 17 to 23
Poor relief	July 30 to August 5
Blind	August 5 to ——
Deaf-mutes	August 6 to 8
Antislavery	August 6 to 9
Housing	August 6 to 9
Red Cross	——

PEACE.

September 29 to October 6.

TECHNICAL, SOCIAL, AND COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

Agricultural education	June 14 to 16
Teaching of social science	July 30 to August 5
Technical and industrial education	August 6 to 11
Social education	September 6 to 9

WOMEN.

Women's work and institutions	June 18 to 23
Women's rights	September 5 to 8

AN INTERNATIONAL LEAGUE OF SCIENCE AND ART.

Much interest has been aroused in France, England, and the United States in the formation of what is known as the International Association for the Advancement of Science, Arts, and Education. This body will hold its first assembly at Paris during the coming summer. The object of this assembly is to enhance the educational value of the exposition. The assembly offers privileges to men of science and to the general public, and both to those persons who are to visit the exposition and to those who are not. It is expected that the assembly will serve to promote closer relations between the learned societies, the universities, and the other educational institutions of the different countries as well as between individuals. It is intended that this International Association shall be permanent, and have assemblies in connection with future exhibitions. Our important function of the association will be to establish a central bureau for the promotion of the exchange of reports and correspondence between learned societies and universities. The president of the association is M. Léon Bourgeois, late French minister of education; Prof. Patrick Geddes, acting as secretary, has been active in promoting the formation of the American group. In this effort he has secured the hearty coöperation of Mr. Robert Erskine Ely, president of the Prospect Union, of Cambridge, and a well-known lecturer and student of economics.

CONVENTIONS IN ENGLAND.

During the coming months there will be a great variety of religious, scientific, and social assemblies in Great Britain. Of these the most notable is the British Association for the Advancement of Science, which will meet in September at Bradford. It was the coöperation of this great association with the French association of similar character which brought about the formation of the great international association which we have just described. The Sanitary Institute, which holds a brief meeting, the Iron and Steel Institute, and the coöperative associations, are all associations of business men interested in the development of particular enterprises and of particular methods of production and distribution. The Trades-Union Congress is the chief labor assembly of the year, and, like most of the others, will meet in autumn. The Association of Chambers of Commerce is what its name signifies. The most widely occupied field is that of religious associations. The chief place is taken by the Church Congress, which meets in September. The Wesleyan Conference, and the Methodist bodies which have split off from the parent connection, will have their meetings. The Congregational Union and the Baptist Union are also important bodies. There is an annual meeting of the Home Reading Union, a sort of English Chautauqua. The great Christian Endeavor convention at London has already been mentioned.

A Pan-African Conference has been called to meet in the Westminster Town Hall on July 22. This conference will be held under the auspices of the African Association, a British organization. The motive of this conference is to influence public opinion on existing proceedings and conditions affecting the welfare of the natives in the various parts of the world, especially in South Africa, West Africa, the West Indies, and the United States.

THE PASSION PLAY AT OBERAMMERGAU.

Next to the Paris Exposition the great attraction in Europe this year will be the "Passion Play" at Oberammergau, the performances of which will begin on May 20. The plan of the Oberammergau Theater for the coming season is a new one. For the first time the seats are under cover, but the stage is open to wind and weather as before. It is believed that nearly every one of the 4,000 visitors will have a good view. Following are the dates announced for the performances:

First (and only) dress rehearsal, May 20. Performances: May 24, 27; June 4, 10, 16, 17, 24, 29; July 1, 8, 15, 18, 22, 29; August 5, 8, 12, 15, 19, 25, 26; September 2, 8, 9, 16, 23, 30.

CHARLES H. ALLEN, THE FIRST GOVERNOR OF PUERTO RICO.

BY HENRY MACFARLAND.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY wanted, for the first civil governor of Puerto Rico,—the first civil governor of any of the islands taken from Spain,—a man whose appointment would be commended at once and by everybody. He felt that the man who was to organize the first American civil government in any of these islands, and to carry the burdens and wield the powers of its executive head, must not only be well fitted for such delicate and difficult responsibilities, but must be known by the country at sight to be so fitted. In beginning this momentous experiment, with all its novel features and all its possible effects upon this country, as well as upon Puerto Rico, the first governor, the President felt, must have the confidence of the United States, and, having it, would the sooner secure the confidence of Puerto Rico, with all that that would mean toward the success of the undertaking. Although it was to be similar to other things which the State-building American has done, it was to be different, too; and in a way more difficult than any of them. The fact that it was to be the first attempt at governing solely by civil authority any of the "dependencies" would have drawn all eyes to it, even if it had not been for the controversy in Congress over the civil status of Puerto Rico, which for sentimental reasons made the island the object of the nation's attention.

This controversy had stirred up the Puerto Rican as well as the American politicians, and the discomforts and distresses of the delay in legislating for the island which it caused had disquieted even the patient peasants who had never risen against Spain. The promoters and speculators, impatiently awaiting the chance to acquire franchises and make money out of the island, furnished another reason for making clear at the start the character of the new government by the character of its head.

With all this in mind, the President appointed the Hon. Charles Herbert Allen, of Lowell, Massachusetts, to be the first governor of Puerto Rico, and had the pleasure of seeing his choice immediately and unanimously approved. President McKinley knew that it would be received in this way, because it had been received in just that way by every one to whom he had spoken of it privately. The President had been thinking of making Mr. Allen governor of Puerto



HON. CHARLES H. ALLEN.

Rico ever since last summer, when he contemplated setting up a civil government without waiting for legislation by Congress; and besides the private assurances he then received that Mr. Allen's appointment would be acceptable, he had a very good test in the response that was made when the fact that he was considering it got into the newspapers at that time. So, when Congress passed the legislation for which the President waited, he offered the governorship to Mr. Allen before he signed the bill in full confidence that the announcement of it would be generally applauded. The only difficulty the President had over the appointment was with Mr. Allen himself, who for family and business reasons and because he preferred his congenial duties in the Navy Department, refused last summer and demurred this spring. But the President has remarkable success in persuading men that they ought to do what he wants them to do, and he succeeded with Mr. Allen, just as he succeeded with Judge Taft when he induced him to give up his life place for the presidency of the Philip-

pine Commission, and by the same appeal on grounds of personal friendship and public duty.

It is as encouraging as it is extraordinary that the man upon whom the choice of the President, and the country, fell, in this striking way, for this new and great responsibility was modest and unpretentious; one who never did any self-advertising or thrust himself forward in any way, but did with all his might whatever his hands found to do, in private or in public life, and did it well —distinctly a doer rather than a talker. Mr. Allen had made his impression on the men who knew his work, and then through them on the country. President McKinley, for example, learned to know him and so to admire him when they served together in the House in the Forty-ninth Congress, where they sat near to each other, with Secretary Long, then also a member, sitting near them; and the other men who served with Mr. Allen in that Congress and the next never forgot his sterling fidelity, courageous independence, steady industry, and practical ability. Long afterward, when at the outbreak of the Spanish war Mr. Roosevelt felt called to the field, and gave up the assistant secretaryship of the navy against the protests of President McKinley and Secretary Long, they both turned, in what they regarded as an hour of great need, almost instinctively, to the quiet member from the Lowell District of their Congressional days. They knew that he could take up the heavy task which Mr. Roosevelt had laid down and carry it on successfully in his patient, persevering way, employing his marked executive ability in organizing and improving the department's work, and meeting the innumerable daily difficulties with that common sense which is almost as uncommon as the sense of humor which he also happily possessed.

It is a curious fact that another Lowell man, Gustavus Vasa Fox, held the post of assistant secretary of the navy during the Civil War, and during his brief visits home sat in church just in front of young "Charlie" Allen, who thought him to be his great example and then thirty years later took not only his office, but actually his desk, which had recently been brought up from the Navy Department cellar. The two Lowell men were alike at least in their ability, their energy, and their success, and no history of the navy in either war can be commended which does not give the Lowell assistant secretary great credit for what was accomplished.

Mr. Allen was fifty years old when he came to the Navy Department, although he looked ten years younger, as indeed he does to-day, in spite of the silver in his hair and in his mustache. He was even younger in figure than in face, moving and acting with youthful spring and charm, in the full prime of vigorous mind and body, a strong and attractive personality. He had had excellent preparation for his arduous undertaking. He came of the best New England stock; his father is still active, though a nonagenarian. The home was a comfortable one, —for his father was a successful manufacturer.— and after going through the Lowell public schools he was graduated at Amherst in 1869; three years later he took the A.M. degree, and in after years became a trustee of the college. Although he is a good writer and a good speaker, and has always been a reading man, he preferred a business career to any of the professions, and has been a manufacturer since graduation, first with his father, and then with others in Lowell, where he has a beautiful home on a charming estate.

Having a strong sense of public duty, he has given as much time as he could spare to public life, serving while a very young man in local offices and then in the Massachusetts House in 1881 and 1882, then in the Massachusetts Senate in 1883, and in Congress for two terms, after which he felt that he must devote himself to his private affairs and declined renomination. Against his will he was nominated for governor of Massachusetts against William E. Russell in 1891, but with that exception was able to resist the politicians. He came to the Navy Department at a personal sacrifice and as a patriotic duty, just as he would have gone into the army or the navy, because the appeal came to him in time of war. Mr. Roosevelt had apparently taken all the war honors of the position, and the salary of the assistant secretary of the navy is as absurdly inadequate as those of several other important executive officers. But Mr. Allen came not for the honors or the emoluments, but to give the Government the benefit of his strength and sagacity, trained by long management of large affairs.

It is simple justice to say that he greatly improved the work of his office, and that he became the *alter ego* of the secretary, performing his duties in his absence, and carrying on the business of the department so efficiently that both the secretary and the President said he ought to be secretary of the navy, if Mr. Long should retire. In the constant controversy of the bureau chiefs, and in the clashing of the claims of individual naval officers, as in the dealings with politicians, contractors, and newspaper men, Mr. Allen, by his discretion, firmness, courage, tact, and unvarying courtesy, constantly made friends, as he consistently served his country. No civilian official ever had more of the respect and regard of the navy than he; and the general re-

gret in Washington over his departure was perhaps more deeply felt by naval officers than by any other class of men. No greater tribute to a man in such a position could be paid than this; for there is a natural difference, which may easily become a strong antagonism, between the professional navy men and the civilians temporarily in authority over them from one administration to another.

In the stress of the war-days and the heat of the summer, when Mr. Allen was so suddenly and unexpectedly plunged into the midst of the Navy Department affairs, the overworked, and in some cases overexcited, naval officers were particularly glad to find that the new assistant secretary was always calm and well-balanced, patient and considerate, and capable of dispatching important business quickly and accurately all day and all evening, if necessary. The bureau chiefs soon discovered what fine business judgment he had, how shrewd he was in making a good bargain for the Government or in preventing the department from being imposed upon. Over and over again his business experience enabled him to save large amounts of money in the buying of vessels and other war material, and especially the coal and stores which had to be purchased in such enormous quantities. As in the Civil War and in all wars, men swarmed around the Navy Department armed with political or financial influence, and determined to make money out of the necessities of the Government. But none of them ever succeeded in deceiving Assistant Secretary Allen, and none of them ever tried it twice.

When peace was declared, Mr. Allen, who had had more to do with hastening it than is generally known, necessarily took a large part in the partial reduction and reorganization of the naval forces, and later was able to devote his organizing capacity to the betterment of the entire department service.

It is easy to see that, as governor of Puerto Rico, the same kind of work, and in the same spirit, that has made Mr. Allen's two years in the Navy Department so successful, will, barring unforeseen circumstances, give him great success. Mr. Allen already knows something of Puerto Rico through a brief visit last year and a careful study of what has been written about it, and is entirely sympathetic with the best aspirations of its people, and desirous above all things to give them good government and to promote their prosperity. "My efforts will be," he said, when his appointment was announced, "to administer the government provided by Congress in such a manner as to command and hold the confidence of the people; to help them, so far as I may, to realize the best there is in them, and to assist them in the development of the island along the lines which have made us such a prosperous nation." And everybody who knows Mr. Allen knows that he was as sincere in this as in saying, "My own inclination and my personal interests urge me to decline the appointment; but one should not always choose the easy way: there is a patriotic duty sometimes to be performed."

The very fact that he has undertaken this patriotic duty in a patriotic spirit, and at the sacrifice of personal feelings and interests, will impress the people of Puerto Rico as it will strengthen him in the difficulties ahead of him, and particularly in resisting unscrupulous schemers who will try to use the Government to exploit the island for their personal advantage.

The President announced, when he appointed Mr. Allen governor, that he would consult him about the appointment of the other officers of the Puerto Rico government, and would go slowly in selecting them, so as to be sure to get men of Mr. Allen's character. This was a disappointment to the politicians, who hoped for a hasty and profitable distribution of the "patronage." Mr. Allen undertook, at the President's suggestion, a preliminary visit to Puerto Rico to consult his military predecessor, General George W. Davis, about the local conditions, and particularly the men suitable for appointment to the places reserved by the Puerto Rico Act for Puerto Ricans, after which Mr. Allen was to return to Washington to consult with the President about the appointment of all the officers of the new government.

It is not proposed that Mr. Allen shall remain indefinitely as governor of Puerto Rico. As the President said, he is "to set up the machinery and turn on the steam;" and if he gets the new government and the new order of things well established within a year, as seems practicable, he may then return. If President McKinley is reëlected, Mr. Allen will probably be called to take office in Washington again; and, if Secretary Long retires from the Navy Department, Mr. Allen will probably succeed him as secretary of the navy. Governor Allen has a charming wife and two attractive daughters, one of them married; and he has a little grandson, who is the pride of his heart. Mr. and Mrs. Allen did not keep house in Washington, but entertained a good deal in their apartment at the Portland, and they will show a gracious hospitality in the governor's "Palace" at San Juan de Puerto Rico, which, with its appurtenances, is to be their official residence, and on the naval yacht *Mayflower*, which the President has ordered to Puerto Rico for the governor's use.



FIRE OF JANUARY 20 BEYOND CONTROL.
(Fugitives fleeing away to the right.)

THE BUBONIC PLAGUE IN HONOLULU.

BY REUBEN D. SILLIMAN.

DECEMBER 12th last, a street rumor—one of those so characteristic of the place—was circulated about Honolulu, telling of the discovery of a case of bubonic plague.

In a short time the essential facts were generally known. The Chinese bookkeeper of an Oriental merchandise importing firm had been stricken down with a severe fever, and death had followed quickly. The man had been attended, toward the close, by one of the prominent physicians, who had, without hesitation, pronounced the case to be a clear one of plague. The physician, moreover, had expressed it as his opinion that a number of sudden deaths which had occurred a short time prior to that, under suspicious circumstances, may have been due to the same dread disease.

The council of state and board of health were convened; a guard, to keep the curious Chinese away from the body of their deceased fellow-countryman, was placed about the building in which the man had died, and the militia was ordered out for general quarantine purposes.

While the board of health was in session, a telephone message was received announcing the death of another Chinaman under circumstances that were equally suspicious. The building in which this man was found was also closed, and a guard was placed there to prevent entrance to it.

After the meeting of the board the government physician held autopsies over the bodies of the two victims of the disease, and removed specimens for subsequent bacteriological examinations, the results of which confirmed the diagnoses.

The council of state passed a resolution appropriating $25,000 for the suppression of the plague, and ordered the construction of a crematory. Work on this was immediately commenced. It was placed on a small coral island adjacent to the entrance of Honolulu Harbor, and was completed in four days. The bodies of the two victims referred to, as well as those of three other Chinese who had died immediately after, were burned in the furnace of a local iron-works company.

Meanwhile all of that portion of the city popularly known as Chinatown, covering a space of fifteen to twenty blocks, immediately adjoining the central business portion of Honolulu, was declared an infected district and surrounded by guards, to whom orders were issued not to allow



A BACK YARD IN CHINATOWN, HONOLULU.

any pedestrians or carriages to enter or leave except such as bore passes issued by the commanding officer, and policemen wearing uniforms and badges. The whole district was placed in charge of a corps of inspectors, who were authorized to make an examination of each building in the district, remove the garbage, and disinfect the soil.

The whole district was covered with tiers of two-storied balconied stores and living-rooms, and there were ten thousand or more Asiatics and natives living in it. There was no sewerage system, and the conditions which prevailed are suggested by the language of an official communication of the president of the board of health to the citizens' sanitary committee bearing date of February 24, 1900. The letter referred to only one of the blocks, but it was undoubtedly one of the worst of all. Among other things the letter stated: "The close crowding of the buildings and sheds, cesspools, stables, and kitchens, together with the intimate connection of all, the rotten flooring on the ground, and the dark, narrow passageways made the task of disinfecting, by any means other than fire, utterly hopeless. In this seething mass of filth were living between twelve hundred and two thousand human beings." One of the inspectors, in rendering his report of the conditions found by him, uses the following language: "The cesspools were horribly full of stench. I never could have found their location except for this. I found them under the floor of the living-quarters, and had to rip up the floors to get at them. . . ."

Another stated: "My block contains mostly Chinese; the block was filthy in many places. Most of the cesspools and sinks were in a terrible condition. I don't consider that I had as bad a block as some of the others, but it was bad enough."

The sugar-planters and members of the chamber of commerce met and appointed committees to assist the Government to provide for the safety of the other islands. For, where sugar-dividends are everywhere recognized as the first consideration, it was highly essential that nothing should by any possibility occur to carry the plague into the hordes of Asiatics employed on the great island estates.

No deaths were reported between the 14th and 22d. On the 19th, one day before the steamship *Australia* arrived from San Francisco, the board of health raised the quarantine that had been established by it, and gave notice thereof by publication in the local newspapers until the 27th. But on the 26th, the day that the *Australia* sailed, the president of the board announced that he found himself under the necessity of informing the public that since his report of the 22d three cases of bubonic plague had been reported to the board; the same having occurred on the 23d, 24th, and 25th respectively. On the 27th and 28th three more deaths were reported.

Quarantine was reëstablished on the 28th, and a policy of intense activity was adopted. It was resolved to condemn and burn all the insanitary blocks of the infected district. The soil was the property of some wealthy estates, notably that of Bernice Pauahi Bishop, deceased, who was the last of the Kamehamehas; but the buildings and property destroyed belonged largely to Chinese tenants, who held long-term leases, and who had made the property, from the standpoint of its earning power, valuable.

The board decided to try to save personal effects and goods as far as possible, and to burn only the buildings and fixtures.

The preparation of the first fire presented an interesting scene. The sidewalk was lined with goods hurriedly packed for removal; drays were backed up to haul these away. Chinese owners, wildly excited, were hurrying aimlessly to and fro, tugging at boxes, bureaus, safes; in fact, every sort and description of bundle or package. Numbers had seized some small parcel, and, clutching it tightly, were gesticulating and shouting in a half-dazed way to their fellow-countrymen. It was a sad but not uninteresting sight.

There had been one death in this block, and one other case was traced to it. The places burned were: six tailor-shops, two shoe-stores, and four other industries, together with the sleeping-apartments of the owners and employees. Eighty-five persons were removed to a detention camp, where they were kept until the night of January 20th, when they were released to make room for others. Their goods were stored for

some time, but were finally thrown into the street to make room for persons removed from the condemned district, and the greater portion thereof was lost or stolen.

The fire was lighted in the middle of the afternoon, and the buildings burned like kindling-wood. Great crowds gathered to see it, regardless of repeated warnings of the danger of possible spread of infection.

The policy of the board, in regard to the burning of property, was summed up later by its president, as follows:

There are two points to be considered: First, if a building is in such an insanitary condition that it cannot by any means be disinfected and put in a sanitary shape by the usual means other than fire, then it should be destroyed by fire. Secondly, if buildings are considered by the board as not being insanitary, but by reason of their adjoining infected premises, and being in such a condition that rats can easily pass from one building to another, we pronounce them to be infected by plague, even though a death did not occur in the premises, and thereby they are condemned to follow others in being destroyed by fire.

Saturday, January 13th, the board issued a report showing that there had been thirty-four cases, of which twenty-seven had proved fatal, while there had been, up to that date, eight fires by which the places of abode of some two thousand persons had been destroyed.

Sunday, the 14th, the community was startled by the announcement that a white lady having charge of the art department of one of the leading dry-goods stores was suspected of having the dread disease. She died on the following Wednesday, and the bacteriological examination confirmed the suspicions that were entertained at the time she was stricken down.

When this sad case was reported the citizens formed an auxiliary organization to assist the board of health. Its self-imposed function was to definitely locate every man, woman, and child in the whole city, prevent changes of residence, visit each house twice daily, see every one of its inmates, and report to a central committee all cases of sickness. It has performed its difficult undertaking faithfully, in the face of considerable criticism, and with little thanks from any one.

During the week ending January 20th, there were nine deaths, most of the victims coming from a big block near the famous Kaumakapili Church, built by Kalakaua, the last king of Hawaii. Saturday of that week a fire was started near the church under the direction of the board of health, for the purpose of burning a portion of the block. But the wind was blowing quite a gale, and some burning embers from the fire were carried to one of the twin steeples of the church, and it was soon a sheet of flame; then the roof caught fire, and soon a Joss-house, or Chinese temple, standing on the farther side of the church burst into flames.

The fire spread slowly for a time, but soon gained a tremendous force, and, as it burst through the outer walls of a row of buildings bordering the street, enveloped a fire-engine in flames so quickly that the firemen were compelled to hurry away and abandon it. It was not long before the buildings of another block began to blaze. Then there arose a scene of wild confusion that baffles description. Surrounded by guards bearing arms and hemmed in by the military police stationed within the general limits of the military cordon, the excited Asiatics saw that their lives were endangered and their property doomed to inevitable destruction. Everywhere were Japanese tugging at great bundles tied up in red blankets, Chinese dragging little black trunks, small-footed women resting on the arms of their servants, or supporting themselves with canes, all hurrying away to places of safety. On the roofs of some of the houses farthest from the burning blocks, Oriental bucket brigades were working frantically, gesticulating, shouting, running, falling, passing water here and there to



REFUGEES FROM THE PLAGUE; CHINESE, JAPANESE, AND NATIVES.

extinguish flames started by sparks from the approaching conflagration. But their labors were quite in vain. All that remained of the district within the path of the wind was reduced to smoldering ashes.

One of the saddest sights of that day of confusion and loss was what is locally termed the "Axe-Handle Brigade." Soon after the fire passed beyond the church-block, the Island militia was ordered to the district in double-quick time. All places of escape were guarded by soldiers with bayoneted rifles. But as the fire



BUILDING HOSPITAL SHEDS.

spread, it became manifest that soon there would not be standing-room even for the thousands of homeless inhabitants. It was decided to remove about two thousand of them to Kawaihao churchyard. A captain of police, mounted, motioned to the guard to let them pass. They started, soldiers with bayoneted rifles and citizens with clubs, axe-handles, iron rods, hatchets, and even butcher-knives, hemming them in on either side. Mothers, carrying crying babes, led older children; Chinese women with deformed feet moved slowly and painfully; their husbands with stolid faces walked beside them; their children with tear-stained eyes trudged on ahead.

The fire burned itself out by four o'clock, and the energy of the people was then devoted to caring for the refugees. That night and Sunday were busy times. There was a great deal to be done to provide permanent shelter for all of the unfortunate victims of the fire. Various camps had been established, where bedding and food were hurriedly provided; and soon all were made comparatively comfortable.

With the burning of Chinatown the principal center of infection was destroyed. The district was soon completely surrounded with a high, tight, board fence, which the board of health has declared its intention of retaining until all possible danger of infection from that source shall have permanently ceased. While there have been a few scattering cases in the city since the great fire, the general feeling of relief following that Saturday was marked. Among the later cases, three white men are included—but one of whom, however, has died. Of the larger buildings destroyed since the fire of January 20th, the principal are a saloon, an adjacent livery stable, and the stables of the Hawaiian Hotel.

Nearly all of the persons removed to the detention camps have finished the period of their quarantine, and have been released. And now one of the most interesting features of the whole situation is the rush of the Chinese for new business locations adjacent to the old quarter. Property that was begging a purchaser a month ago has suddenly become valuable, and buildings are going up everywhere with wonderful rapidity.

The plague is a high fever. Its usual course is a feeling of indisposition to-day, a state of collapse to-morrow, and death the day following. There is no special medical treatment for it; but a serum—that is, a destroyer of the food of the bacilli—may be injected into the blood, and in that way the fever is abated, after which recovery sets in.

The disease had prevailed in Honolulu for more than a month before shipments of the serum were received from the Surgeon-General at Washington. Since it has been given a trial, it is believed that the serum has been beneficial. Altogether about ten patients have recovered; and, as I am informed, but one, a young Chinese boy, has suffered permanent injury. He will be deformed for life. A subscription was taken in his behalf, and contributions were generously given.

When the disease was discovered, there was no hospital for infectious diseases, although as early as 1853 an epidemic of smallpox had carried off great numbers of the native population, and as late as 1895 Asiatic cholera had seriously threatened to become epidemic. There was no crematory, no disinfecting-plant for merchandise; nor was there any system of sewerage in any part of the city, although an uncompleted system for a small portion of the central part of the town was in process of construction.

A hospital for the care of the plague-patients was made up from a number of sheds down by the seashore that had been used in connection

with a rifle-range. The sheds were joined together with a veranda, and some new buildings were added. The whole was thus rendered quite satisfactory for the purposes required, and a most systematic process of disinfection was constantly employed. As far as practicable but one patient was placed in a room, and all were cared for by nurses who heroically volunteered for the dangerous service.

A young man named Armstrong Smith, principal of one of the public schools, having been among the very first to offer himself, and having performed similar service in the cholera epidemic, was placed in charge. He worked night and day, and was declared to be an ideal man for the place. He was at one time thought to be threatened with the dread disease, to the horror of the community; but he soon regained his normal strength, and returned at once to the post of duty. A number of the citizens of Honolulu made up a purse of five thousand dollars in token of their appreciation of his noble self-sacrifice, and he is to use the money in fitting himself for the practice of medicine—an ambition that has long been entertained by him.

The inhabitants of the infected district were removed to detention camps, of which there were four. One was made adjacent to the Rifle-Range Hospital. In it were placed the persons occupying the buildings where cases occurred; another was not far away, where the first leper-station of the islands had been established in years gone by; a third was made out of an old drill-shed—famous for its connection with the days of the revolution; but the largest was down by the sea, on a coral-waste, near the leper receiving-station. Here rows of wooden buildings were put up, and an artesian-well was sunk, a temporary sewer put in, a post-office established, and, in a word, a small village was organized.

There were between five and seven thousand people there in all. Each was bathed and furnished with new clothing before being admitted, after which he was detained for fifteen days and then released. The period of detention was established to cover the utmost period of incubation of the disease; for the plague is caused by a minute organism that enters the system and multiplies with rapidity, ultimately causing local disturbances that produce collapse.

Rats are ready victims of the disease, and die in numbers where it gains a foothold. They are also the most dangerous means of carrying infection from one locality to another. Infection is also believed to be carried in merchandise and food-products. The latter is thought to have been the means of its introduction into Honolulu, and radical measures have been adopted to prevent a future recurrence from the same source. Further importations of certain food-products from Asiatic ports where plague is known to exist have been prohibited. The application of the regulation has not been fully established; but if it is applied generally to Japanese importations, a vigorous protest will be entered at Washington, as the Japanese merchants assert that some of the forbidden products are as essential to their people as butter, milk, and eggs are to us.

On the whole, the Japanese have submitted gracefully to the necessities of the situation; but they are waiting in patience, yet with determined minds, to see what provision is to be made for the payment of claims for losses sustained by them.

It may be of some interest to know what the Chinese think of the situation. One of them contributed a highly interesting communication to one of the local papers. It contains so many of their peculiarities of expression that there can



TAKING CARE OF THE SEWAGE IN THE DETENTION CAMP.

be no doubt of its genuine Chinese origin. It begins:

Ubinam gentium sumus? Where in the world are we? Is this the Paradise of the Pacific, or is it the region of Hades? . . . Recent events have revealed to us beyond a doubt that the men who are proud to claim descent from noble Christian ancestors, and make themselves out to be favorable for the progress of the world at large, have shown by their actions that they have returned to the days of the dark ages, where people could do as they liked, irrespective of the rights, the inestimable rights, of their fellow-men.

After discussing the history of the quarantine, the writer continues:

Talk about plague-deaths in Chinatown! Why, the confinement in such narrow limits, with heaps of rubbish burning in the streets every day, alone would make any one sick; and it is a wonder why more had not succumbed to the so-called bubonic plague. It makes one's blood curdle to witness the events of Saturday last (January 20th). Thousands of people were forced to leave their homes at a moment's notice, and to wander along the highways of the city; their places of abode were made desolate and their belongings scattered about along the streets, or destroyed in the cruel conflagration, just because a set of men has thought it wise to wipe Chinatown out.



KITCHEN IN THE DETENTION CAMP.

Not only were the people driven out from their homes by the oncoming fire, but they must be driven by people with pick-axe handles and soldiers with bayonets.

The ashes of the Chinese victims have, since the crematory was completed, been given to their friends for burial, according to their custom in the ancestral graves in China.

Their losses are upwards of a million dollars, and it will be interesting to note what portion of that amount is ultimately repaid to them. They are largely indebted to the various wholesale and importing houses, which are the agents of the sugar-plantations, and more or less closely connected with the Government.

The natives have lost comparatively little, and whatever their losses have been they will undoubtedly receive payment in full, either through the Government or sympathizing friends.

The serious nature of the threatened epidemic seems to have been permanently overcome, and it is to be hoped that the last case has been recorded. It is not unlikely that when Chinatown rises from its ashes it will take on a higher and purer life.

FIGHTING THE WORLD'S EPIDEMIC OF PLAGUE.

WESTWARD, like the course of empire, bubonic plague takes its way. The statement is as true now as in the earliest epidemics of which any authentic account remains; but it is at present only a half-truth, since the contagion spreads eastward as well. Dissemination of the disease occurs invariably along the trade-routes from foci in southeastern Asia, China, and India, where it is endemic. It is doubtful if certain cities, such as Bombay and Canton, are ever free from sporadic cases. From these centers it is carried in merchandise, clothes, or in living bodies across the great highway of the Pacific, leaving its traces at Manila and Honolulu, and through the Suez Canal to Europe. Alexandria gives first news of its coming, then Trieste and Marseilles, then Portugal, the American continent acting as a breakwater between the eastern and western waves. In the present epidemic, plague-spots are scattered over the whole face of the globe from Sydney to Santos and Hongkong, and recently from San Francisco suspicious cases have been reported.

The annual pilgrimage of Moslems to worship at the shrines of Mecca and Medina is now, as in the past, of all human agencies, the most active in spreading the pest. The pilgrims come from all quarters of the Mohammedan world—Persia, Turkey, India, the Pacific islands, the southern Mediterranean littoral, the Soudan, East and West Africa. They are herded on shipboard in a manner almost unbelievable, vessels carrying hundreds more than their chartered capacity, so that there is sometimes literally not room for them all to lie at length on the open decks. The filth is indescribable in a public print. From the Moslems themselves nothing can be expected but utter indifference to such conditions.

Since Egypt is nearest, plague first appears there in the seaport towns, particularly Alexandria. Sanitary conditions have improved vastly, like economics, under British control; and, last year, what in other times might have been a devastating epidemic was limited to relatively a few scattered cases. Recognizing the danger to themselves, the European powers have been led to take steps, under the Venice Convention, for their own protection. An international quarantine, under the control of the Egyptian Sanitary, Maritime, and Quarantine Council, in which the powers have one vote each and Egypt three, has established stations at two points on the Red Sea. Tor, on the Sinaitic Peninsula, is the southern quarantine post; and Ras Abou Zuneima, half-way between Suez and Tor, is the northern. Foreign pilgrims are not permitted to land in Egypt, but are compelled to go through to home ports. Egyptian pilgrims are permitted to land at Suez, after detention at both stations for a period varying from three to fifteen days. The length of stay depends on whether the pilgrimage is "clean," that is, whether the Hedjaz (Arabian coast) is free from plague and cholera. Since decisions as to the presence of disease is a matter of discretion with Turkish officials, and since they seldom make an announcement of it until its existence is common knowledge everywhere, the three or four day quarantine at Tor is liable to be inadequate, and infected pilgrims, especially in the case of cholera, are allowed to slip through. In this case the home countries must take their own precautions. When the Hedjaz is announced infected, travelers are detained fifteen days after disinfection. This detention is long enough for plague, but not for cholera, since a person who has had the disease may carry the germs about with him for two months. In the process of disinfection all goods are steamed for twenty minutes at 250°, and shoes are soaked in a solution of bichloride of mercury (corrosive sublimate). The pilgrim is given a bath and clean shirt, and in case he shows no sign of fever is sent on to the detention camp to await his discharge. Vessels not carrying pilgrims are quarantined at Moses' Wells, near Suez, where they are disinfected by the inadequate method of squirting a sublimate solution.

Marseilles has its detention port at Frioul, where very thorough disinfection is carried out; but the same cannot be said of Turkish and Syrian ports, whose epidemics are a menace to all Europe and America. We are prepared to adopt stringent quarantine measures at any time of emergency, as was shown in the cholera scare of 1892, when extra detention was carried out, under President Harrison's proclamation, against a vessel from Hamburg, and recently in preventing the landing of a cargo of coffee from Santos, plague-stricken as well as an endemic focus of yellow fever. Once the plague has secured a foothold in a crowded quarter, there is a different state of things to deal with; and the community is justified in taking any measures to protect itself, as in Honolulu, where the whole Chinese quarter was burned and its population beaten back into quarantine limits by armed citizens. The difficulties which the Indian Government has had to face have been enormous, the ignorant and fanatical populace hiding every case; scattering, if possible, with household gods, and resenting to the verge of rebellion precautions taken in their own behalf.

The period of incubation, the time elapsing between exposure and the first outbreak, is from three to six days—rarely longer—so that a quarantine of one week is sufficient after the last case of plague has been disposed of. This disposition is commonly of a dead body, since 70 to 80 per cent of cases die, mortality being even higher in the beginning of an epidemic. The germs preserve their powers for great lengths of time in their dried state, like the bacilli of tuberculosis, and are correspondingly dangerous. In case of houses where such conditions may exist, it would seem that the only method of dealing with their danger to a community is by total destruction, the purification of fire. Portable articles may be steamed; but this is manifestly an impossibility as regards habitations. Not even a thorough washing down with formaldehyde, one of the most powerful germicides known, will reach all the cracks and crevices.

Plague is the filth disease, *par excellence*; but those who fancy themselves secure for that reason in hygienic surroundings are liable to a rude awakening. The Vienna catastrophe is still fresh in all minds, by which a young physician in laboratory experimentation acquired the disease and died, with one of his nurses who caught the contagion in tending him. Squalor and constitutional depravity are, however, prerequisites to a wide epidemic; in the low quarters of towns, the plague exhibits itself in its most malignant forms. There is as yet no protection against the disease, like that of vaccination in smallpox; but efforts are being made to that end, and with more than a little prospect of success. Haffkine, Yersin, and others have prepared antitoxins which have apparently lessened the death-rate in Bombay hospitals. Haffkine is working as well on a preventive serum, with fair promise of success.

THE MILITARY LEADERS OF THE BOERS.

I.—A SKETCH OF GENERAL JOUBERT.

WHEN General Joubert died, Queen Victoria cabled to Lord Roberts asking him to convey to Mrs. Joubert her sympathy at the loss of her husband, and to tell her that the British people always regarded the dead general as a gallant soldier and an honorable foeman. This summed up the tributes paid to Joubert all over the world; for he was regarded everywhere as a soldier of knightly qualities. Friend and foe alike. those who knew him in peace and those



GENERAL JOUBERT.

(From a portrait by Miss Theresa Schwartze, of Amsterdam, now on exhibition at the Society of Portrait Painters, Grafton Galleries, London.)

who knew him in war, those who met him in Pretoria or London or New York, thought of him as a true, Christian gentleman before they thought of his abilities and attainments as a statesman and as a military leader. The men who were most bitter in their attacks on President Krüger, and the other prominent Boers, had nothing to say against General Joubert, except that he was severe in his dealings with the enemies of his country; and even in this he was without the rancor of other Boer leaders.

For this fine soldier loved peace and labored always to maintain it, so that in his later years some of the Boers thought him less aggressive and more conciliatory than he should have been. When he came to this country, where he made a most favorable impression, he repeatedly expressed his hatred of war. When he was asked about his victory in 1881 at Majuba Hill, where he surprised Sir George Colley's force and lost but five men, while 280 British were killed, he said, "Don't talk to me about Majuba Hill. I hate the very name. I am positively disgusted with it. We fought against the English for our rights, and will do so again, if necessary. But it will not be necessary, and we are a peace-loving people."

Mr. Webster Davis, perhaps the last American who saw him before his death, was impressed with his gentleness quite as much as with his strength. That was a characteristic piece of chivalry when, after capturing the wounded General Symons at Glencoe, Joubert telegraphed through the lines to General White: "Regret to inform you that General Symons died this morning. His condition improved during the night, but he became worse in the morning. Please convey my sincerest regrets to Lady Symons." Yet he could be as stern as Cromwell. He wanted the Jameson raiders executed. Krüger only saved them by telling the Volksraad that they "ought not to strike at the little dogs, but at the man that sicked them on." "I do not hate the English," said Joubert; "I hate no man. But let any man come and try to trample on my neck, and I will fight until I am free or dead."

The resemblance which has been traced between General Joubert and Stonewall Jackson as military leaders might be traced between them as men. In both, charac er was dominant, and the character was that of a sincere and spiritual Christian. "Krüger is an Old Testament Christian; Joubert was a New Testament Christian," said one who knew them both well. Joubert's religion was as practical as was Stonewall Jackson's The religious services in his camps were thoroughly characteristic. Mr. Davis says he will never forget the deep impression of reality

which they made upon him. He sang "Old Hundred" with his men before they went into battle with all sincerity, just as he showed mercy to the enemy, and respected their dead after the battle was over. His honesty was as aggressive as his courage. He had a keen sense of honor.

When Sir Theophilus Shepstone, in 1877, annexed the Transvaal by proclamation, Krüger and other Boer statesmen, after formally protesting, consented to take office under the new authority, but Joubert refused, because he would not recognize the sovereignty of Great Britain and swear allegiance to the Queen. Seven years later, after the Boers had agreed by treaty with Great Britain that they would not extend the borders of the republic when Krüger and other leaders planned to annex Bechuanaland, Joubert said: "I positively refuse to hold office under a government that deliberately breaks its covenants, and we have made covenants with England;" and, as he had been selected to lead the Boer army, this stand defeated the plan. He was not always able, however, to withstand Krüger, who had the rougher and more stubborn nature. Joubert's friends say that if Krüger had taken his advice he would have had much less trouble with the Uitlanders, and might have prevented this war by diplomacy.

But although General Joubert loved peace and tried to keep it, he believed fully in being prepared for war, and it was his effective organization of the fighting men of the republics that gave the Boers success in 1881 and successes in the present war. General Joubert might have well been called, like Carnot, "the organizer of victory." On a small scale he had a more complete and efficient organization of the Dutch forces in the South African republics than Von Moltke had ready for the attack of Germany on France. General Joubert had divided the Transvaal into seventeen military districts, and then subdivided them repeatedly, placing each in the command of an appropriate officer, who saw to it that every competent man was ready to appear completely equipped at an appointed place upon a short summons. When the war came on, Joubert had only to send seventeen telegrams to set the whole machinery of mobilization in motion, and to bring all the forces to the field in forty-eight hours. He had prepared likewise the artillery, ammunition, and war supplies of every kind which enabled the Boers to make such a splendid defense. And then, when the fighting began, General Joubert did his full share of it, with a skill and courage that provoked the praise of his opponents. He was sixty-eight years old, and some of the younger Boer generals thought that he had lost his old-time dash and spirit; but the British officers considered his remarkable raid south of the Tugela the most enterprising and adventurous undertaking attempted by the Boers in this war. With only 3,000 riflemen and six guns he moved so boldly and rapidly as to make the British generals believe that 10,000 Boers were in his force; and, although largely out-



MRS. JOUBERT.
(Wife of the General.)

numbered by the enemy, he isolated one British brigade at Estcourt and another at Mooi River, and then when the British reinforcements came up he recrossed the Tugela without losing a gun, a prisoner, or a wagon. It was Joubert who held the British forces at bay all along the line of the war, while he directed the operations of all his subordinate generals.

His full name was Pietrus Jacobus Joubert, and as a young man he had the nickname of "Sliem Piet," or "Clever Peter." He was not born in this country, and he did not serve in the Confederate army, as has been reported. He was born in Cape Colony, and came of a French Huguenot family, long resident there, which had intermarried with the Cape Dutch. His father

was a farmer, who hated the British and removed, when the boy was seven years old, to the Orange Free State, to get away from them. The boy grew up on the farm, and had no other business but that of a farmer, except when he was fighting or holding an administrative position. He had very slight school opportunities, but he loved books and got a fairly good education through his own efforts. He never saw a newspaper, he said, until he was nineteen years old.

Moving, like his father, before the fateful British advance, Joubert went from point to point until he came into the Transvaal. There, while a young man, he made his reputation as the best military leader in the fighting that went on with the natives; it was this that drew Krüger into friendship with him—a friendship that lasted until his death, although they were rivals for the presidency and differed widely at times, especially during the later years. Joubert went into politics and was vice-president when Burger was president, and acting-president while Burger was in Europe. Later in the seventies, Joubert went with Krüger to London to ask independence for the Transvaal, and got his first glimpse of the outside world. They failed to get the assurances they asked of Great Britain; but they got invaluable information about British resources, and they made friends on the Continent. Joubert realized then at once the strength and the weakness of the British military power; and what he learned served him well in his after-work, both in preparing for war and carrying it on.

Joubert, with his passion for independence, led in the movement for the war of 1880–81, as he led in the war itself. It ended, after Joubert had repeatedly defeated Sir George Colley, commander-in-chief of the British forces, with the dramatic capture of Majuba Hill. Then the Boer general, with less than a hundred men, clambered 1,000 feet up the almost perpendicular hill, routed Colley and his 487 men out of their intrenchments, and in a few hours had their surrender. Colley lay dying from a bullet in his brain, said to have been fired by himself. Joubert went at once to his side and spoke to him tenderly and sympathetically. Colley insisted upon giving Joubert his sword, and his last words were: "You are a brave man; God bless you!"

After this war was over, Joubert devoted himself to his family and his business interests. "My wife first, my home next, and then the Transvaal," he said at that time. But Jameson's raid broke his quiet, happy life like an alarm-bell. He saw at once that another and a very different war with Great Britain was inevitable; and as a member of the executive council and commander-in-chief of the armies of the republic, he began to prepare for it.

Joubert was a fine-looking man, taller than most of the Boer leaders—over five feet ten in height, and all bone and muscle, with the strength of a seasoned wrestler. Small but keen and honest eyes lit up his sunburned face above the long, grizzled beard. He made many friends on his visit to the United States.

II.—GENERAL CRONJE AND HIS CAPTURE.

"The Lion of South Africa," "The Leonidas of Africa," these are the names his countrymen gave General Piet Cronje, now imprisoned, like Napoleon, on St. Helena. None of the Boer generals, none of their sturdy deeds, has touched the deepest feeling in the heart of the world more than this veteran soldier and his marvelous defense against overwhelming odds in the bed of the Klip River, near Paardeberg, in the Orange Free State.

Cronje had 4,000 men, incumbered with women and children; and they were, like himself, farmers and amateur soldiers. Field Marshal Lord Roberts had 40,000 professional soldiers surrounding Cronje's little band, and brought fifty guns to bear upon his camp at short range, the howitzers dropping the noxious lyddite shells constantly into the midst of it. Ammunition and food alike gave out in the Boer camp, while the British had superabundant supplies. Yet for twelve days Cronje held Paardeberg as Leonidas held Thermopylæ. This is the most dramatic story of a most dramatic war, and General Cronje is the hero of it.

General Cronje began his activities at the very beginning of the war in his command on the western frontier by seizing the armored train, breaking up the railway and telegraph communication between Cape Town and Rhodesia, and investing Mafeking and Kimberley. He made his first great success at the battle of Modder River, where he beat back Lord Methuen's strange frontal attack with such severe punishment. Methuen followed after him clumsily to Magersfontein, to meet disastrous defeat. The Highland Brigade walked right into the trap that Cronje had set, and was cut to pieces, so that even Methuen was willing to wait. General Cronje left him there, made a visit of encouragement to the Boer forces around Lady-

smith, then returned to find that the main body of the British army was coming up under Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener.

When Lord Roberts had brought his forces forward he sent General French with the cavalry to raise the siege of Kimberley, which he did in a brilliant forced march. General Cronje, who had been occupying his position with a view to prevent the relief of Kimberley, instantly left his intrenchments and daringly tried to pass his little army of five thousand men and women into the Orange Free State between the cavalry of General French and the British infantry division following more slowly northward. All that a general could do, all that his soldiers could do to expedite this march into the Free State to safety, was done. But the wagons were hauled by oxen, much of the way was across deep sands, and there was a river across the route,—so the British came up before Cronje could escape. For a time he kept up the retreat, fighting in the rear with the advancing enemy cleverly and courageously; but the British pressed him more and more closely, the oxen and the mules were tired out, and Cronje soon saw that he could not get away, and must stand at bay and fight.

He had reached the river Klip, and in two miles of its sunken channel, then so dry that only a shallow stream ran at the bottom of a forty-foot ravine, he made his camp behind his wagons, and told his men to dig shelters for themselves in the dry banks of the river. These farmers are great men with the spade, as they have shown over and over again in their intrenching work. In this case they built themselves and their wives and a few British prisoners underground dwellings which made the river banks on both sides look honeycombed. With such protection they were comparatively safe, even under a shower of lyddite shells such as was soon pouring upon the camp. But the artillery ammunition of the Boers gave out; they had nothing to eat but the cattle killed by the enemy's shells; the number of these made the camp uninhabitable; they were drenched by tremendous rains; and, against his will, General Cronje had to surrender.



THE HARBOR OF ST. HELENA, WHERE CRONJE IS CONFINED.



GENERAL CRONJE.

"I am glad to see you," said Lord Roberts, when General Prettyman conducted General Cronje to his headquarters; "I am glad to get so brave a man." Cronje had done all that a general could do, as Roberts himself admits. The contrast between the two men, as they stood together before the tent of Lord Roberts, was striking. Lord Roberts was in a new uniform, with a handsome sword by his side,—a fine picture of a fine general. Cronje looked like a poor old farmer,—a short, thick-set man, with strong eyes, a dark beard streaked with gray, and a remarkable expression of determination. He had on a worn felt hat, a shabby green overcoat, and old trousers, wore cowhide boots, and absolutely no sign of being a soldier—not even the sword or a sword-belt.

Cronje was sixty-five years old when he surrendered. He has been prominent in all the history of the South African Republic as statesman and soldier. He refused, like Joubert, to take office under the British annexation of 1877. He



THE SURRENDER OF GENERAL CRONJE TO LORD ROBERTS.

was prominent in the war of 1880–81. Since then he had become a farmer on a large scale, owning over twelve thousand acres near Pretoria, which he ruled with military simplicity, and with marked success. He kept a hospitable house, and with his quiet little wife entertained his friends. He was a member of the Transvaal executive government, and when the war broke out was second only to Joubert in military position. All the foreigners who saw him speak of his pleasant manners, his courage, and his independence. The English writers have given numerous descriptions of him since the war began. Mr. J. B. Robinson said of him that he "has in him the best blood of Europe. When the edict of Nantes drove the finest subjects of France into exile, many of them went to Holland and from there on to Africa. Picture to yourself a little man, quiet-looking, at first glance almost insignificant. When you first come in contact with him you might, for a moment or two, be inclined to dismiss him as a very ordinary man; but a few words from him show you, by their grasp, their decisiveness, that first impressions are wrong. As you look longer at him the type of face seems familiar, and in a flash it comes to you that this is the kind of head that is seen in the paintings of the old Dutch masters."

This resemblance to the heads painted by the old Dutch masters, and especially to the head of Christ, appears in other descriptions of him. One of the writers who knew him in Pretoria said: "In person he is short in stature, very active, but reserved in speech. His face, with a heavy black beard, reminds one of the type that Rubens and other old masters loved to paint. He is a member of the executive, but I know that he rarely speaks, though when he does his words carry great weight. He is, in fact, one of those strong, silent natures, of a masterful disposition and the greatest determination."

General Cronje had a fine military reputation among the Boers as a fighter in the desultory warfare with the natives, and also in the war of 1880–81, when he narrowly escaped with his life in an ambush set for him by Major Montagu, of the British army.

It was Cronje who captured Sir John Willoughby and the rest of the Jameson raiders at the opening of 1896, leading them into a trap where they could do nothing but surrender, much as they were blamed for it afterward. Cronje's character can only be understood by those who appreciate the fact that, like most of the Boer leaders, he is a sincere Christian man, whose religion is an essential part of his daily life.

III.—LOUIS BOTHA, THE NEW BOER COMMANDER.

Although he was the youngest of the noted Boer leaders, Louis Botha, the victor of Spion Kop and Colenso, succeeded General Joubert in command of the republican armies. His stoical countrymen are slow to set up heroes, but his dramatic achievements commanded universal admiration and made him distinctively the popular leader of the war. He was the popular as well as the official choice for commanding general upon the death of Joubert, and was also mentioned as a possible candidate for the presidency of the Transvaal Republic.

Botha is only thirty-six, little more than half the age of Joubert, and, like most of the Boer leaders, is not a professional soldier, but a raiser of sheep and cattle, or, as he says, "a plain farmer," in the Vryheid District of the Transvaal. He says he is not a military strategist, although he has shown that he is a tactician of the first class. He comes of the best Boer stock, was born in Greytown, Natal; as a young man had a share in the establishment of the Transvaal Republic, and fought under Lucas Meyer in the Kaffir campaign with a success which gave him high standing as an officer and pointed to an important command for him in the present war. He has not remained on his prosperous farms all the time between his fighting expeditions, but made a civic reputation as a prominent member of the Volksraad at Pretoria. He is not only a very able man, a statesman as well as a soldier, but he has more cultivation than many of his associates. His home is distinguished from the homes of most of the prominent Boers by his fine library and his wife's grand piano. As is usual with the Boers of the better class, he has delightful home relations, and a real helpmeet in his wife, who is a superior woman. Personally, he is, like Joubert, a gentleman in every sense of the word. One who has seen him in the present war describes him as a man of attractive manners and as very modest. "Like all Boers, he is a democrat of democrats," says another observer, who saw him at the same time; "and when he told the story of the battle he was clothed in a suit of clothing that might have been dear at ten dollars when he bought it. He wore no collar or scarf; an old, stained, broad-brimmed hat surmounted his head, and the elbows of his coat were worn through. Apparently, he left his flocks of sheep, and without changing his clothing went to the battle-field to assume command of his burghers. He did not seem to be proud of his victory, and spoke only of the bravery of the British soldiers and the injustice of the war which made such slaughter necessary. From one of the men who went up the hill at Spion Kop, I learned that General Botha was one of the first to reach the summit, and that he himself took two rifles from the hands of British soldiers, one of whom he knocked to the ground with the butt end of his revolver." Although, like all Boer soldiers, General Botha cares nothing for uniform, he dresses very well ordinarily when he is in Pretoria. But the climb up Spion Kop and the fight on top had spoiled his clothes.

General Botha's victory at Colenso was won by clever tactics on the defensive, and showed his genius for that kind of warfare. He anticipated the very details of the method of attack the enemy used, and met the repeated onset with concealed forces, which could not be dislodged, and which forced the enemy to retire after fighting from daybreak until four in the afternoon. When General Joubert heard that Spion Kop had been taken he sent word to General Burger, his second in command, "It must be retaken," and General Burger telling General Botha, they at once stormed the hill with a handful of men. General Botha, who led on one side of the hill, went up in front of his men, and bore the brunt of the battle as he went. A witness of the scene shortly after the



THREE GENERATIONS OF BOER SOLDIERS, 15 TO 65 YEARS OF AGE.

fight said, in speaking of the Boer attack, "Forty or fifty of them started up the steep side of that hill. The British, to the number of three thousand, were intrenched upon its summit, yet this small band made the start; they leaped like wild beasts from boulder to boulder, sheltering themselves with the rocks as best they could and firing carefully with their Mausers as they advanced. Not clad in dazzling uniform,—simply the farmer's garb, without bayonets or swords; simply with trusty Mauser rifles and two bandoliers of cartridges around their bodies, each containing one hundred and fifty cartridges. Thus they advanced, followed closely by others, as they arrived in small bands from neighboring laagers located amid the surrounding hills. Up they went, slowly but surely. Not over five hundred Boers engaged in the battle at any one time. British cannon and Maxims roared. Great lyddite shells, to the number of two thousand, flew through the air and burst over and among the Boers in great numbers, so that the air was filled with dust, broken stones, and poisonous acid fumes. Step by step, however, that brave band advanced. The British once endeavored to make a charge with bayonets, but the sure fire of the Boer Mausers held them back. The fight continued from early morning until two o'clock in the afternoon. During all this time the Boers were continually advancing, but carefully picking their way. When the fight began a giant Boer, in the prime of strength and manhood, was seen carrying a small Boer flag; in a short time he fell to rise no more; then an old, white-haired veteran picked up the fallen banner and, waving it, urged his comrades on. With flowing hair and flashing eyes the old man rushed on, but suddenly a shell laid him low. Before the flag touched the ground, however, his grandson, a bare-footed, thirteen-year-old lad, fighting in his shirt-sleeves, leaped to the old man's side and snatching the flag from his nerveless hand raised it aloft and pushed on. A mighty shout arose from the Boers as they saw that gallant deed, and with renewed courage following the flag they rushed like a flood over the British trenches, and Spion Kop was won." General Burger led the attack on the other side of the hill, but Botha's party arrived at the summit first, and did most of the fighting. The Boers considered the feat second only to Majuba Hill; indeed, the larger numbers engaged made it an even more important victory in some respects. Botha's generalship appeared as conspicuously in this attack as in the Colenso defense; for it was not simply a wild and overwhelming rush of individual fighters, but a battle in which by Botha's tactics the enemy's trenches were flanked and an enfilading fire mowed the British down like grass. After this victory and the death of General Joubert, General Botha became the foremost man in the Boer army and was recognized as the coming man in the Boer state, and there was no dissenting voice in his choice as commander-in-chief.



COMMANDANT-GENERAL LOUIS BOTHA, GENERAL JOUBERT'S SUCCESSOR.

IV.—SOME OTHER NATIVE AND FOREIGN CAPTAINS.

Besides the Boer generals who have made great fame in the South African war,—Joubert, Cronje, and Botha,—several others have done remarkable work.

General Schalk-Burger's proper command is on the eastern or Portuguese and Swaziland frontier of the republic. He was President Krüger's political opponent in the last presidential election in the Transvaal, and made a stiff fight against the redoubtable "Oom Paul." He was born in Lydenburg in 1852, and was the grandson of a *Voortrekker* on whose head the British Government once placed a price of £300. Although a self-taught man, he has the reputation of being a deep thinker, and his oratory has often swayed the Raad. He was a field-cornet in the Boer War of Independence, and is at present a member of the Executive Council.



GENERAL SCHALK-BURGER.

General Burger, belonging like Joubert and Cronje to the older generation, has held important commands and administered them well, and Commandant Dewet, belonging like Botha to the younger generation, has distinguished himself by daring and successful enterprises. General Burger is described by those who know him as a sensible and sturdy officer of a fine Boer type. Commandant Dewet is regarded as second only to Botha among the younger men, and as destined to greater achievements if he lives and has fair opportunity. Some Boers think that the new men who have come to the front among the officers of the republican armies are better fitted for carrying on the war than were the older men. Certainly, with Joubert dead and Cronje a prisoner at St. Helena, Botha and Dewet and their young associates will have full opportunity to show what they can do. Dewet, like Botha, is of a good old Dutch family, and is said to have a genius for war and all the Boer cleverness in the peculiar tactics of their mountain warfare.

General Lucas Meyer was born in 1846 in the Free State, and is the chairman of the first Volksraad. He was in the War of Independence, and received a bullet through the shoulder in action. He has been looked on as the leader of the progressive party among the Boers.

There has been a good deal of controversy as to the comparative credit which should be given the Boer officers and those foreigners who held commissions in their armies for successes jointly achieved. The friends of the foreign officers have claimed a good deal more for them than the friends of the Boers have been willing to concede. English war correspondents and English military critics have in some cases leaned strongly in the same direction, claiming that the Boers owed much of their early success to the work of the foreign officers, and especially to those who were engineers and artillerists. It is certain, as General Joubert himself admitted, that these foreign officers were of great value. Some of them were mere soldiers of fortune, but others were men of fine character as well as courage and skill.

The most distinguished soldier among the foreigners was General Count Georges de Villebois-Mareuil, chief of staff of the Boer army, with the rank of lieutenant-general and commandant of the foreign legion, who died in battle near Boshof, Orange Free State, early in April. He was the most scientific military man on the Boer side, a strategist and tactician of authority in the French army, from which he retired in 1896 with the rank of colonel—out of pique, it was said, because he had been refused the command of the expedition to Madagascar, and was tired of what he regarded as unjust treatment from his superiors. He was only forty-eight when he retired, and his prospects were regarded as brilliant. He came of a noble family in Brittany, was graduated at the French military academy of Saint Cyr in 1868, and as a young lieutenant in the Franco-Prussian war won the Legion of Honor Cross and promotion to a captaincy by splendid bravery and a severe wound at the recapture of Blois. He was an active and ambitious young officer, who was fond of suggesting new plans and new ideas to the ministry of war, and who in the war office did valuable service in Algeria and Madagascar. He wrote extensively and admirably on military subjects, and had a wide reputation among military men.

His two chief ideas as a French officer were to make the French army strong enough to avenge France for her defeat by Germany, and to extend her colonial empire. He had no feeling against the English, but was rather fond of them; he went into the Transvaal service apparently simply for the sake of practicing his profession in an honorable cause, and for large rewards in honors and emoluments. However, it is certain, from

his last appeal to the French legion, that his sentiments were strongly with the Boers. He said: "There is here in front of the Vaal a people



GENERAL LUCAS MEYER.

whom it is desired to rob of its rights, its properties and its liberty in order to satisfy some capitalists by its downfall. The blood that runs in the veins of this people is in part French blood. France, therefore, owes to it some striking manifestation of help. You are the men whom a soldier's temperament, apart from all the great obligations of nationality, has gathered under this people's flag; and may that flag bring with it the best of fortune to us! You are the finished type of a troop that attacks and knows not retreat."

General de Villebois-Mareuil went secretly to the Transvaal, and it was not until after the first successes of the Boer forces that his presence there became known in Europe. Then the French newspapers, and afterwards military critics in both France and England, began to give him credit for all the Boers achieved. They called him "the brains of the Boer army," and said that he furnished General Joubert with both his strategy and his tactics. The whole plan of campaign for the beginning of the war was said to be his. He certainly had a great deal to do with it, and especially with the scientific lines of defensive fortifications which made so much of the Boer success possible. He described this system of defense in a series of communications to French military periodicals, in which he showed how easily the mountains and hills could be made almost impregnable. The Boer Government thanked him officially for his share in the success of the victory at Colenso, which was due largely to his fortifications.

It is a curious fact that the foreign legion has suffered much more proportionately than the Boers themselves. Besides losing General Villebois-Mareuil by death, two of the most brilliant and successful of the foreign officers, Major Albrecht and the German colonel Schiel, were lost by capture, and the percentage of losses among both officers and men has been very much higher among the foreigners than among the natives. Major Albrecht is a remarkably efficient artillery officer, and deserves credit for much of the good



THE COUNT GEORGES DE VILLEBOIS-MAREUIL.

work done by the artillery. He organized and trained the artillery forces of the Orange Free State. He, too, is credited by the foreign military critics with successes which the Boers attributed to their generals.

Colonel Blake, the most prominent American in the foreign legion, is John Y. Filmore Blake, who was graduated from West Point in the class of 1880, and served as a lieutenant of cavalry in our army until 1889, when he married an heiress of Grand Rapids, Mich., whom he met at Fort Leavenworth, and resigned to engage in the railroad business in Grand Rapids until he went to South Africa to live. He commands a corps of Irish and American rough riders, some five hundred in number, most of whom have had military experience. Colonel Blake is a fine cavalry soldier. One of his classmates said of him: "I never knew a better specimen of physical culture and grace. He was one inch more than six feet tall, magnificently proportioned, not carrying an ounce of superfluous flesh, and a natural-born athlete. His striking appearance, genial manners, and ready wit made him most companionable among men." General Joubert placed a high value on this Irish-American brigade, and remarked to an American gentleman who has seen him since the war began, that there were no braver soldiers in the Boer army than Colonel Blake's men.

The professional soldiers of the United States Army on duty in Washington have followed with the keenest interest the events of the war in South Africa. Every officer on duty at the War Department has utilized the War Department map of the seat of war prepared in the military information division of the Adjutant General's Office in studying the strategy and tactics of the two sides. General Nelson A. Miles, commanding the army, has watched the war with as much attention as any of his subordinates. He predicted before it began that it would be hard fought, and that the Boers would succeed at first, and would give a good account of themselves at all times. He admires the work of the Boer generals—strictly, of course, from a military point of view, and in common with most army officers, even some of those in hearty sympathy with the British cause, is inclined to credit the burgher leaders with the possession of real talent for military tactics of no small degree. In speaking of what they had done, General Miles said:

A parade performance by these rough-riding burghers would no doubt send a West Pointer into roars of laughter; but later on, when they had gotten into the real business of warfare, I suspect that he would be struck with admiration at the wonderful adaptation of their field tactics to their armament and the configuration of the ground. Their tactics have been described as intelligent opportunism, which, after all, was the keynote of Napoleon's success in war. In default of a scholastic military plan, they have a shrewd eye for the advantages of ground, position, and cover. Of strategy, as it is laid down in the text-books, they are supposed by military critics to know very little, since their method of warfare is the guerrilla, and they do not concern themselves with lines and squares; but a good deal of strategy is deception, and if the reports are true that the veteran Indian-fighter, Sir George Stewart White, commanding at Ladysmith, was induced by the Boers to make a frontal attack against an unoccupied position, discovering his mistake too late to prevent the capture on his flank of two battalions and a mountain battery of his force, then "Oom Paul's" generals must know a good substitute for strategy. It is true that the markmanship of the Boers is said not to be so good as it was at Bronkhorst Spruit, Laing's Nek, Ingogo, and Majuba Hill, owing to the fact that big game has disappeared from their farms, and consequently fewer opportunities of practice with the rifle are afforded, and the statistics of the Krugersdorp Jameson raid fight rather confirmed this contention; while, on the other hand, the marksmanship of the British soldier ought to be very much better than it was at Majuba; the Northampton regiment, which shot so poorly on that occasion, being now the champion riflemen of the army—a proof that straight shooting, like wisdom, is only to be learned in the bitter school of experience and misfortune.

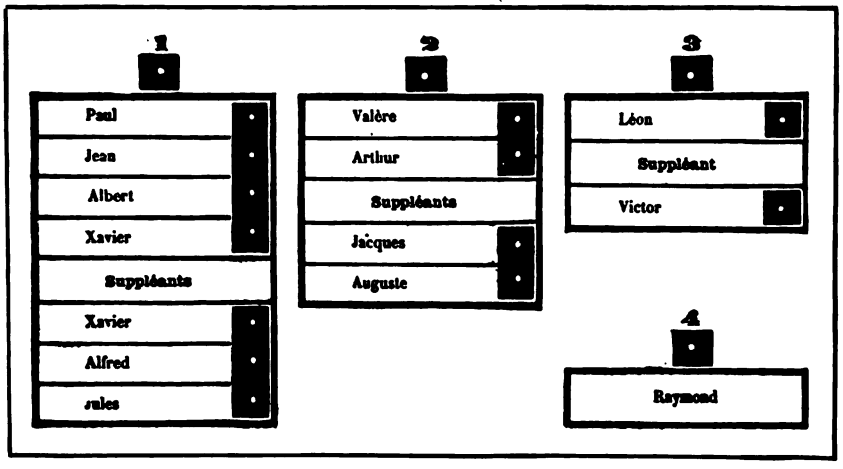
This opinion of General Miles sums up what is said by other army officers of less rank and less experience. General Miles, in his Indian campaigns and again in Puerto Rico, saw service in hills and mountains like those in which the English and the Boers have been fighting, and therefore knows personally what the conditions of their warfare are. All army officers dwell upon the remarkable way in which the Boer generals and their foreign assistants have utilized the natural opportunities for defensive fortifications and for so shifting their forces on interior lines as to match the much larger forces of the enemy.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION IN BELGIUM.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

ELECTORAL reform in Belgium has passed through three stages. First, the secret ballot, 1877. This is the "Australian" ballot arranged in party columns. Second, plural voting, 1893. University graduates and propertied persons are given three votes each. Others have but one vote. The plural voter when he enters the booth receives his three ballots, and these he marks and votes separately. Third, proportional representation, 1899. No change whatever is made in the secret ballot or the plural voting. Consequently the new law is not *ideally proportional*; it is proportional to the *votes*, not to the *voters*. The fourth and final stage—one man, one vote—is in the future.

The proportional-representation law just passed contains three novel features, different from the Swiss laws which, up to the present time, have marked the highest point of the reform. These are the One-Vote, Substitute Candidates, and the Rule for Distributing the Seats. The first and third are improvements; the second is questionable. They will be noted below:



ILLUSTRATIVE BALLOT FOR A DISTRICT ELECTING FIVE REPRESENTATIVES.

Four parties in the field.

The new law applies both to the Senate and the Chamber of Representatives, both elected by popular vote like an American State legislature. Instead, however, of one senator and one representative elected for single-membered districts as hitherto, the districts are to be enlarged, and three to eighteen representatives are to be elected on general tickets for corresponding districts. Thus, the City of Brussels is one district, and elects eighteen representatives at large. There are in all 152 representatives elected for 29 districts. In the same way there are 76 senators elected for 21 districts.

METHODS OF ELECTION.

1. Nominations are made by petition. At least one hundred signatures are required. Each group of petitioners may nominate as many candidates as the whole number to be elected—in this case five. It is expected that they will nominate only one or two more than they hope to elect. Substitute candidates are also nominated, if desired, to fill vacancies which may occur in the party representation through death, resignation, or dismissal of elected members.

2. Each vote counts one for the party. This differs from the Swiss method, where each voter has as many votes as there are candidates to be elected, and where he can distribute them as he pleases among different tickets, and may even, in one canton, cumulate them on individual candidates. The Belgian law restricts the voter to a single party. This greatly simplifies the election, and, as will appear below, does not restrict the liberty of the voter.

3. The voter indicates his one vote in either of two ways. He may stamp the white spot at the head of the ticket, or he may stamp the spot against the name of the candidate of his first choice. In either case the vote counts one for the party as a whole. So far the voter's task is exactly the same as under the old system. But he may also vote for a substitute. This substitute vote, however, has no effect except when a vacancy occurs. This is a new feature, and is unnecessary, because vacancies could

just as well be filled by the candidates next in order on the main ticket.

4. The election board ascertains, first, the number of representatives to which each party is entitled, and, second, the individual candidates elected on each ticket. This is the exact opposite of the ordinary election, where the elector's vote is counted only for the candidates, and parties are not recognized. The theory of proportional voting is based on the actual fact that the voter selects, first, the party that stands for his principles, and, second, the candidate who stands for that party.

5. The party vote is ascertained as follows, taking for example only party No. 1, above :

TICKET NO. 1.

Ballots marked at head of ticket		18,500
Ballots marked for particular candidates:		
Paul	300	
Jean	700	
Albert	4,000	
Xavier	500	5,500
Total party vote		24,000

The vote for all parties, ascertained in the same way, is as follows :

Party.	Vote.	Representatives elected.
No. 1	24,000	3
No. 2	11,000	1
No. 3	9,000	1
No. 4	3,000	0
	47,000	5

6. The above apportionment of representatives among the four parties is calculated in a way peculiar to the Belgian law. The theory is mathematically sound, but was considered in Switzerland as too complicated. However, it should be remembered that its complexity does not apply to the voters. The voters have nothing to do with the apportionment when they are casting their ballots. The computation is made solely by the returning board.

The first party gets one representative for each 8,000 votes, the second party gets one representative for 11,000 votes, the third party gets one for 9,000 votes, and the fourth gets none for 3,000 votes. This is as nearly proportional as five whole representatives can be distributed. If a larger number, say ten, or twenty, were elected, the proportion would be more exact, since the fractions would be smaller.

7. Having determined the party representation, the next step is to designate the successful candidates within the parties. Had Party No. 1 nominated only three, then all would have been elected. But the party nominated four, and therefore one must be excluded. The Belgian law selects the three whose individual votes stand highest, it being assumed that a voter who marks his ballot at the top votes for the candidates in the order of their inscription. Although the voter has the right to change their order by marking another name as his first choice, the practical result will usually be to elect the candidates in the order in which their names appear. This, by the way, was the plan outlined by the man who was really the father of proportional representation, the American, Thomas Gilpin, whose brochure, the first publication on the subject in any language, was printed in Philadelphia in 1844. This document has been reproduced in the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* for March, 1896. The Belgians, after various experiments in other parts of the world, have returned to this pioneer American essay on the subject.

It will be seen that throughout the election, the Belgian law, following Gilpin's plan, gives a frank recognition to political parties. Parties are considered essential to representative government. The voter is restricted to one party. He practically votes for candidates in the order laid down by the party management. But with proportional representation this is not an objection. If his own party has not nominated the candidate whom he wants, he can join with one hundred others of like mind and place that candidate in nomination. Furthermore, this independent candidate is not compelled to get a majority or plurality, as is the case where but one is to be elected and the choice is narrowed down to the two leading parties, nor does he run the risk of defeating his own party and turning the election over to the other leading party, but he is elected if he gets only one-fifth of the votes. The party from which he bolted loses only one of its representatives, instead of the entire ticket, and he takes the place of that one. With such facility for independent movements, it is expected that the party managers will closely consult the wishes of all their followers, and will name such candidates as will of their own weight bring strength to the ticket.

The effect of the new law upon the representation of parties in the Belgian Parliament will be definitely known only after the first election, which occurs in the current month. In the present parliament, elected in 1898, the Catholics have 112 representatives (in the lower house), the Socialists 28, and the Liberals 12. The Catholic representation is far in excess of the proportion of the Catholic vote in the country, while the Liberals have much less than their true proportion. This disproportion is the result of the majority or plurality system. With three

tickets in the field in each Parliamentary district, the Catholics are able to win in the country and the Socialists in certain cities, so that the Liberal party, which in 1893 had 60 votes, has been almost entirely shut out from representation. The new law was brought about by a coalition of Liberals and Socialists, joined by a number of Catholics. The Liberals and Socialists plainly could not of themselves have carried the law, because the Catholics have a clear majority, but the shrewder Catholics reasoned that the present method of majority election was forcing the two opposite parties to combine, but that proportional representation would encourage them to keep their organizations separate. A striking object lesson of this kind occurred at the spring municipal elections in 1899. The Liberals and Socialists for the first time joined forces, and carried by large majorities the municipal councils of Brussels, Anvers, Nivelles, and Gand, although hitherto the Catholics had been successful by clear majorities over all. The issue on which the opposition joined was that of the public schools, which were being attacked by the Catholics. With this object lesson the Catholics were strongly impressed, and it inclined them favorably to proportional representation. They still hope to have a majority of both houses, since they have a majority of the voters in the country at large, and they will certainly retain that majority, although diminished in number, unless the voters themselves change to other parties.

The Belgian reform, if introduced in New York City, would make some interesting changes. In 1897 Tammany Hall, with less than half of the votes, elected 90 per cent. of the councilmen. Tammany's representation is 26 out of a total of 29 members—a majority of 23. By the proportional method it would be 13—a minority of 3.

ELECTION OF COUNCILMEN—NEW YORK, 1897.

	Votes cast for Mayor.		Actual Representation.	Proportional Representation.
	Number.	Per Cent.		
Democrat	233,997	44	26	13
Citizens' Union	151,540	29	..	9
Republican	101,863	19	..	6
Citizens' Union and Republican	.....	..	3	..
Jeffersonian Democracy	21,693	4	..	1
Socialist	14,467	3	..	..
Scattering	2,999	1	..	..
Total	526,599	100	29	29

The preceding table shows the comparison in detail. The vote for mayor is taken as showing better than the vote for councilmen the relative strength of different parties.

The election of aldermen for Greater New York by the same methods of computation is equally interesting. Tammany elected 47 out of 60—a majority of 34. Proportionally, Tammany would have elected only 28—a minority of 4. The Citizens' Union would have elected 18 instead of 2; the Republicans 12 instead of 9; the Jeffersonian Democracy 2 instead of none.

The Borough Council of Manhattan and Bronx has 36 members. Tammany elected 31—a majority of 26. By proportional representation it would have been 17—a minority of 2. The showing is as follows:

ELECTION OF ALDERMEN FOR THE BOROUGHS OF MANHATTAN AND BRONX.

	Vote for Mayor.		Elected.	Proportional.
	Number.	Per Cent.		
Tammany	143,666	48	31	17
Citizens' Union	77,210	26	4	10
Republican	55,834	19	1	7
Jeffersonian Democrat	13,076	4	..	1
Socialist	9 796	3	..	1
Scattering	1,357	..	..	..
Total	300,939	100	36	36

In 1899 Manhattan Borough elected to the State Assembly 31 Democrats and 4 Republicans. Had the election been conducted according to the new method in Brussels, the representation would be 21 Democrats, 13 Republicans, and 1 Socialist, as follows:

STATE ASSEMBLYMEN, MANHATTAN BOROUGH, 1899.

	Total Assembly Vote.	Elected.	Proportional.
Democrat	146,087	31	21
Republican	88,283	4	13
Socialist	9,568	..	1
Labor	2,983	..	..
Prohibitionist	774	..	..
Total	247,695	35	35

Greater New York, in 1898, elected a solid delegation of Democrats to Congress. By the proportional method, according to the vote for governor, the Democrats would have elected 9, and the Republicans 7.

THE AUTHOR OF "LORNA DOONE."

RICHARD DODDRIDGE BLACKMORE IN HIS HOME.

BY R. W. SAWTELL.



THE LATE R. D. BLACKMORE.

I SPENT the year 1894 in Europe, chiefly in London and vicinity. Accepting the invitation of a merchant to visit him at his home, at Teddington, I chose the month of May, when the great variety of shrubs and trees, so beautiful everywhere in the south of England at that time, was delightful to the eye.

My friend lived near the railway station, and I was preparing for my return trip to London when he asked, "Did you ever read 'Lorna Doone'?"

"Yes," I replied; "who has not? That is an easier question."

"Well, then," he continued, "seeing that you are interested, come and see where the author lives," and pointed to a white-brick two-story dwelling, with slate roof, standing inside high brick garden-walls, hiding all but the upper story and roof.

"Indeed! Do you suppose he would give me an interview?" I asked.

"Not he. He has dealt with me for thirty-four years, and I have been on speaking terms with him all those years, but I have never been inside his garden-walls, and I know no one who has except his working-men and others on business. He is not a social man, and seems wedded to his garden in summer and his book-writing in winter. That is all I know about him; except that he keeps the most vicious dogs to protect his fruit, and I would advise you to avoid the risk."

"I have never been afraid of dogs," I replied; "and if you will give me a letter of introduction, I will risk the consequences of one rash act."

"I will do that, of course," he said; "but you must dictate the message." And, opening his desk, he seated himself, saying: "I am ready; proceed."

It read as follows:

TEDDINGTON, May 10, 1894.

R. D. BLACKMORE, ESQ.

Dear Sir: I have an American friend visiting me (a Canadian crank he calls himself), who has received so much pleasure from the reading of your books, especially "Lorna Doone," that he wants to thank you personally, if you will give him the opportunity. Kindly grant him the favor, and oblige

Yours truly,

CHARLES DEAYTON.

To introduce
MR. R. W. SAWTELL.

"Now let me inclose your card," he said.

"That would never do," I replied, "if he dislikes to be interviewed."

"You are right," he said, rising, and continued, "Now I will go and show you the right entrance; then say good-by."

We crossed the railway bridge, and entered a lane bricked up on each side with a wall ten or twelve feet high. Half-way through we stopped at an iron gate, where my friend pointed to the front door, saying:

"Ring the door-bell, but be watchful of the dogs. Don't open the gate till I am away. If you survive, write to me on your return, and come to us again soon. Good-by."

As soon as I opened the gate, a pack of noisy dogs surrounded me; but before I reached the door, they were licking my hands and jumping against me, to the detriment of my "Prince Albert" London-made coat. I heard other deep-tongued bloodhounds, which I was glad were chained securely.

In answer to my inquiry if Mr. Blackmore was in, the maid, dressed in the usual uniform of English housemaids, led me to the drawing-room, saying:

"I will give him your letter. Please be seated. I think he is in."

Instead of taking the seat she placed for me, I began the study of some beautiful water-color illustrations of his greatest work, hanging around the room. In less than two minutes I heard the door open, and on turning saw a tall, broad-shouldered, full-faced, farmer-like man standing holding the door, without coat or vest, necktie or collar, wristbands and collar unbuttoned.

He had my letter in his hand, and with a broad smile on his honest-looking countenance he moved toward me, and I met him in the center of the room, where we grasped each other's hands and looked straight into each other's eyes, while I thanked him as best I could for the pleasure derived from his books and the honor of the interview. I felt that I was in the house of a friend, who was neither a "recluse" nor a "misanthrope." He acknowledged his own gratification for a visit from an American, where some of his best friends lived.

"And now," he asked, "what more can I say?"

"Tell me something of your history," I replied.

"Well, sit down and I will. It will not take long, for there is not much to tell."

He drew up an easy-chair for me and another for himself, so close that he laid his hand on my knee to begin his story. When he discovered the unbuttoned wristband, he blushed like a girl, and said:

"You notice I was making my mid-week change of linen when I received your unique letter, and did not stop to finish my dress. Excuse me for a minute, please."

He soon returned with a thin alpaca coat on, but neither vest nor collar, and, resuming his seat, said:

"I was born at Longworth Rectory, Berkshire. The seventh day of June, 1825, launched this old dugout upon the world. My father was curate in charge, and he lost his young wife, my mother, before I was four months old; hence, I never knew the privilege of a mother's care and training. She was the daughter of the then vicar of Tewksbury, Rev. Robert Knight, and her mother was a granddaughter of that noted divine and author, Dr. Doddridge—whence my second name. I have the ivory-and-silver tobacco stopper given to that good man by his friend, Colonel Gardiner.

"A great part of my youth was spent near the boundary between Somerset and Devon. I enjoyed country life to the full, investigating the works of Nature and prying into hidden secrets, as well as the more visible and common.

"After obtaining the best education the neighborhood afforded, ending at Blundel's Academy at Tiverton, I was admitted at Exeter College, Oxford, where my father had once been a fellow. I completed my course there with honors, then entered the Middle Temple, London, and studied law, passing creditably, and practiced some time at the bar in London. But my once excellent health became impaired. My medical adviser said I would have to give up my profession, seek an outdoor employment, or die young. As I was unwilling to depart just then, I took his advice.

"Considering for some time what occupation to follow, I decided to become a gardener and horticulturist. Having studied botany and agricultural chemistry also, I felt that I was well equipped for this calling, which I was always fond of in youth, and the most likely to effect my cure.

"In pursuit of this object I wandered up the valley of the Thames in search of a suitable soil for pear-culture—for Covent Garden Market, which was not then well-supplied. Coming upon a vacant lot near the lion-entrance to Bushy Park, only twelve miles from my market, I found a sixteen-acre plot, which I learned could be purchased in fee-simple. I secured samples of the soil, and the analysis proved it to possess the requisite qualities in iron, etc. I decided to purchase it. And now," he continued, "I find you interested in my occupation. Come out and see what I have, and we can talk as we go along."

It was raining, as it usually did all that year, and I raised my umbrella over his head; but he said, "Keep yourself dry; never mind me. I am used to it; besides, I can change my garments, and you cannot."

Passing into the first green-house, filled with young grape-vines, just beginning to bear, he said: "I call this my American house, because I received fifty pounds from each of two American authors for writing an introduction to their books."

"That paid better than gardening, did it not?" I remarked.

"Yes, indeed," he replied. "For many years I raised large crops of fruit, and at profitable prices, at the Covent Garden Market; but the competition from all countries, even from California, and often the blight of insects, leave a deficit of £400 between receipts and expenditures. It costs me annually £500, and I often receive less than £100."

The next green-house we entered was 100 feet long, and 80 feet of it was fully occupied by one vine of the Black Hamburg variety, with a few remaining bunches of very large and well-ripened fruit. He cut a bunch for me, remarking:

"I call this vine 'John Ridd,' because of its great strength and large proportions. In a few years it will surpass the noted royal vine at Hampton Court, which is 110 feet long and 120 years old, while this is but 40; but it has never been so overworked as the Queen's, which, some years, has to sustain 2,500 bunches."

Speaking of John Ridd, I asked him if, in describing John and Lorna, he had living examples in his mind to help his imagination.

"Yes," he replied, "I had; but I think I trimmed John up a bit."

We went over his large garden, ending where he had planted nearly an acre of standard peach-trees, then well-laden for the first time. He said: "This is the only orchard I know of in England. I got the trees from Ellwanger & Barry, Rochester, New York, and I want you to come again in August to tell me how the quality compares with those grown in America."

I promised to do so if possible, and we parted like old friends of long standing, with a hearty hand-shake.

After returning from a trip through Normandy, the Seine Valley, and Paris, I spent three months in Wales, Devonshire, and my native county, Somersetshire. Having kept up a correspondence with Blackmore during this time, I visited him in September. On this occasion I entered his garden so quietly that the dogs were not disturbed. Hearing some hammering against a wall, I crept up silently and found Mr. Blackmore on a step-ladder, fastening up some loose branches of pear-trees spread along the wall. I spoke, and, recognizing my voice, he turned suddenly, dropped his hammer and nails, and sprang to the ground, taking my hand in both his, saying:

"I am glad to see you, and just in time for dinner, if you will take pot-luck with us;—there goes the bell;" and he put his strong arm around my shoulders to direct me.

I said, "I have this minute left my friend's dining-table, and have a dread of dyspepsia."

"You must come, however," he said, because I want to introduce you to my nieces, two of whom are my housekeepers, and the other is on a visit. And all are going to a band tournament this afternoon, and this is your only chance."

"And a chance I cannot afford to lose," I said; and in we went.

After an introduction, the head-housekeeper began to apologize; but I assured her that, while they ate, I would try and entertain them; I had already dined, but such "pot-luck" was a good average.

When an old-fashioned, deep apple pie, in which a coffee-cup was placed to keep up the crown, was brought on, Mr. Blackmore said:

"Now you must risk the dyspepsia, and try a taste of this, because it is made from a seedling of my own, and I want your opinion of its merits."

It was well worthy the praise I gave it. I told him that it resembled a noted apple in America, called the Eusopus Spitzenburg, one of our "best cookers" for pies and sauce. He seemed pleased, and when the great variety of fruits were brought on, I had to taste nearly all to tell him how they compared with our own. The continued rain had made it all watery and flavorless, and I told him so, saying that they lacked our Canadian sunny weather in the ripening process. This he readily admitted, saying that all his fine crop of standard peaches were lost on account of cracking open.

Before I left him on this occasion he exacted a promise from me to visit him later, and remarked that if I would send him a card, his housekeeper would have something better than "pot-luck" to offer me.

In October I sent a card, as prearranged, and found him waiting, having given up both pen and pruning-knife for the day. We went over the garden together, and he told me what would make delightful reading if I had dared to make notes or were blessed with a more retentive memory.

In reply to my suggestion that he got his literary abilities from his father, he said:

"That could never be, for I never heard that he had any to transmit; but," he continued, "if I have any myself, which I very much doubt, it must have been inherited from my dear mother."

Speaking of the high garden-walls, he said that they were for the double purpose of keeping thieves out and ripening tender fruit. The lane across the whole sixteen acres was made because there had been a public path across it so long he could not close it. He planted ten acres of pear-trees at the beginning; but on that occasion there must have been eighty bushels or more lying on the ground, unsalable on account of insects and a gale blowing them off the trees.

He had a fine collection of flowers, shrubs, and vines; and the house was mantled in choice vines and climbing roses.

The dinner for that day consisted of eight or ten courses in eatables, and almost as many in drinkables. We lingered two hours around the

table, and he was bright and talkative. His nieces seemed as overjoyed to hear him as I was.

I mentioned the fact that I had read "Lorna Doone" a second time, and enjoyed it better than the first, and he would probably think me an old fool.

"Yes," he replied; "but I know a bigger one, who told me he had read it sixteen times, and meant to read it again. I often wonder whatever people see in that old-fashioned stuff to take such an interest in. They seem never to care for any other of my books, some of which are much better and more interesting. 'Lorna Doone's' popularity was purely accidental. The first edition of 500 copies, in three-volume form, received but scant notice. Only 200 copies could be sold in England, the price being thirteen shillings and sixpence per copy. The other 300 were sent to Australia, and got rid of at one-third the price named. I gave my wife a full set, and have been offered ten guineas for it, but would not sell it at any price.

"The great run for it afterwards was due to accident. The junior member of my publishing firm read it a second time, and was so impressed with its peculiarities that he got the consent of the firm to issue a cheap edition in one volume.

"The Marquis of Lorne had recently married the Princess Louise, when a book reviewer unauthorizedly stated that the book was written about the forefathers of Lord Lorne; and then everybody read it, out of curiosity, and exhausted nearly a score of editions, and the demand has continued ever since, and it is now the only book I get anything for."

One of the nieces asked me if I had read any other of her uncle's books. I said: "Several, but none of them came up to 'Lorna.' He must have been inspired when he wrote it. I have read one this last week which has interested me almost as much, because I see around me the environments in which the plot was laid, and I think I know the hero and who was represented as the heroine."

Then, turning toward the author, I said:

"Now, my dear sir, I want you to be candid with me, and tell me if you still feel the influence of that first kiss upon your lips, given by the young lady known as 'Kitty,' whom you rescued from drowning in the overflow of the Thames River, nearly forty years ago?"

There was immediate silence around the table. The author lowered his head, and the nieces looked much frightened at the boldness of the question addressed to their usually austere uncle. But in a few seconds he comprehended my meaning, and, blushing like a girl in her teens, he raised his head and burst into a hearty laugh, in which we all joined, and I was satisfied that my conjecture was right; he was "Kit," and his dear wife "Kitty," represented in that fine story of courtship.

His wife had been dead three or four years, and he seemed to worship her memory. There were no children, and apparently he had only the nieces as near relatives.

He stated that, after the first burst of popularity of "Lorna Doone," he was invited to every public function among the great and learned, but declined them all, preferring the company of his wife and books to the applause of the public. In one of his letters to me, he acknowledged that he was an unsocial man, and neither visited nor encouraged visitors.

The only way I could account for his being drawn toward me was by recalling the admission in my letter that I was a "crank," which made him forget to finish dressing, coupled with the fact that I always afterward maintained a frank and outspoken manner. Then there were several things which strengthened our friendship. He was just seven weeks older than I. Both of us were fond of books and horticulture.

My last and farewell visit was made in January, 1895. Blackmore was then engaged on a poetical work (of which he sent me a copy in May). Some of the verses had been made twenty, thirty, or forty years, and were now revised and published for the first time.

In a letter to me he complains of the lack of taste in the illustrations of *Adam* and *Eve*, saying: "A poet-artist would have given his conceptions a more refined and delicate style."

I was informed that the book never became popular or sold readily.

Referring to the illustrations of an artistic edition of "Lorna Doone," which sold at a guinea a copy, he said:

"The water-colors you admired in my drawing room were the originals, presented to me by the artist. They are beautifully conceived. I would not sell them for one hundred guineas."

We spent the last two hours alone in his sitting-room; and when we finally separated, at his private entrance through a door in the high brick wall, near the railway station, we embraced, and, like two women, shed tears of sorrow.

Such was the "recluse," as I found him; but it was hard to make his neighbors believe that Blackmore had a heart for anything but himself, his fruit, and his books; and I never talked with one who knew him socially, or anything of his home-life and habits.

In our continued correspondence, we each expressed the hope of meeting again, but always

with the understanding that I would have to do the traveling.

In a letter dated January, 18, 1897, he said :

My pear-crop was ruined in the last half of September last year by gales, and I have therefore to keep my pen on the march. There is a long tale of mine appearing in *Blackwood* now. The power of walking is leaving me, and I can only walk a hundred yards a day, and have to suffer the penalty of that much.

In a letter dated August 20, 1897, he said :

Probably it will always be out of my power to understand why so many people have formed almost an attachment for one of my books,—"Lorna Doone,—while they care not to look at any of the others. However, so it is ; and it seems vain to hope for any other verdict. That book is to come out here in sixpenny form, and the publishers expect to sell 100,000 copies. [All were taken up in one week, I afterward learned.]

I have finished my last novel, and it is high time to stop. This one is to come out from the press of Dodd, Mead & Co., New York, when it has finished the course in *Blackwood*. . . . You seem to be enjoying a rambling life, but I live a lonely life—seldom going beyond my own gate now. . . . Half of my stingy crop lies on the ground. There is with us, this year, a wonderful plague of maggots ; they are so plentiful that they cannot find a pear apiece to live in, and are obliged to chum together.

There is much excitement here about Hall Caine's new story, "The Christian," and I dare say it will make a stir with you. I have not read it ; in fact, I seldom read a novel now.

In a letter received from him, in 1898, he told me much of his school-life and college-days.

He was called to the bar at the Middle Temple in 1852, and practiced there till his health failed.

In the same letter, he said :

My father was the best-living man I ever became acquainted with, and was as popular with the Dissenters as with the Churchmen ; and I esteem his memory all the more for his Christian liberality. I have no faith in the Christianity of any man so narrow-minded that he will not appear on the same platform with those who differ from him in the matter of interpretation of the Scriptures. I refer you to a chapter in my last book for my views and belief on this subject. I believe, also, that my father's large-hearted liberality prevented his advancement in the Church, however much he merited it.

Not having received a reply to my letter in the spring of 1898, I felt that there must be something wrong, and wrote him again in the fall, receiving the following reply :

TEDD., Dec. 21, 1898

MY DEAR FRIEND : Not you alone have failed to receive reply to kind and friendly letters, but almost every one who has ever written to me during the last twelve months—simply because I have not been able, through perpetual pain and sleepless nights, to attend to things as I should. And the drought has taken all hope of welfare out of those things which encourage me to move. I have lost two and a half stone in weight, and have been obliged to have all my clothes taken in ; being nine inches less in girth, and five inches around the chest. However, I am tired talking about myself—which I abhor above all things. It is a most odious habit, and one that grows very rapidly.

The general impression of those I talked to in England about Blackmore was that he was immensely rich in having two such prolific sources of income—literature and fruit ; but, from my conversation and correspondence with him, I do not think so.

He always complained of the expenses, with six men all the year round, and in busy seasons double the number, exceeding the proceeds of sales ; and largely so, late years, on account of competition, insects, and blight. He said to me, more than once, that but for his pen he would be a very poor man ; and even from that source his royalties had dwindled down to a small sum, and that chiefly from the sale of "Lorna Doone," and he could not hope to write anything more that would meet the demand of this materialistic and capricious age.

The other point I wish to mention is the frequent assertion that he was a "recluse," "almost a misanthrope." To this I can only say, that was not my experience ; for in all my long life, no stranger ever treated me with greater confidence and cordiality. The few passages I have quoted from his letters ought to prove that. He certainly shrank from publicity and what he called "hollow applause" ; but I cannot believe that he was naturally selfish.

Blackmore had the countenance of an honest, happy farmer, free from cunning or guile, and far removed from what is generally conceived of an imaginative writer of such a love-story as "Lorna Doone," which will ever hold a first rank in literature.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE BIGGEST STEAMSHIP IN THE WORLD.

IN the May *McClure's*, Mr. Earl Mayo gives some readable facts about the great steamship *Oceanic*, of the White Star Line, which is in service between England and New York, and which exceeds in length any other ship in the world.

"Ten thousand tons of steel beams and braces and plates, forming a framework one-seventh of a mile in length and carrying a mass of ponderous machinery of almost equal weight—that is the biggest of ocean steamships in rough analysis. It is easy to forget that she is a ship. When she is lying at a pier her vast form towers up like a great building, and her construction is more akin to that of a modern 'sky-scraper' than to that of any of the craft of earlier days. A skeleton of steel girders, rising tier above tier to the height of five stories, is the frame of the *Oceanic's* great body; and over this is a skin of steel plates. These plates vary from an inch to an inch and three-eighths in thickness; they weigh above two tons apiece; they were fastened together by the largest riveting-machine ever built; and they make the *Oceanic* the strongest as well as the largest ship of her kind.

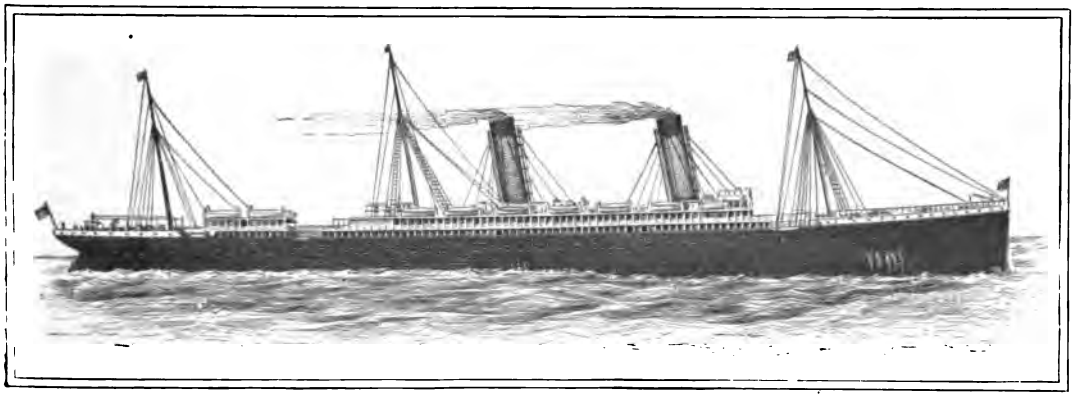
A CITY AFLOAT.

"She is an ocean city—nothing less—a modern, driving, twentieth-century city, teeming with all the occupations that man has devised for himself; an epitome of the two continents that she helps to unite. Her ordinary population is upward of two thousand persons. Set up on land, her steel timbers would provide the framework of dwellings for all of them. Her plates would surround the town with a solid wall five feet high and eight miles in length. Her bunkers would supply all the coal required by the community for two years. Her stores would stock all its shops. Her electric plant would light all its streets. Her engines would drive machinery sufficient to employ all the inhabitants. What she could do on land she does in more wonderful ways at sea, for there this city must be not only self-contained and self-supporting, but must, in addition, propel itself across 500 miles of ocean-waste every day, in storm or calm. To do this—to rise superior to all stress of wind or weather or ordinary misfortune—requires not only vast power, but a vast reserve power.

THE SHIP'S HEART AND LUNGS.

"In length the *Oceanic* surpasses any other vessel by more than fifty feet. A mere look at her, especially a walk along her decks, reveals in some measure her immensity. But to get a really adequate impression of her greatness you must descend to that region, unknown of passengers, which lies below decks, and see the ship's heart and lungs and muscles stirring her great body to life and action—watch the nice interplay of forces beside which human strength is too insignificant for comparison.

"To move a body so vast—with cargo aboard the total weight is upward of 25,000 tons—and to keep steel muscles as thick as a man's body up to their work, requires a deal of nutriment. One mouth is not enough to admit the 500 tons of coal which are the *Oceanic's* daily consumption. She has 96; and into these 96 mouths, or furnaces, a solid ton of the Welsh or Penn-



THE "OCEANIC."

sylvania hills disappears every three minutes. A ton and a half an hour must be burned beneath each of the large boilers to keep it up to its full energy—an energy that will suffice to turn 17 tons of water every hour. There are 15 boilers. The larger ones develop 2,000 horse-power each, and are of such huge dimensions that three men standing one on top of another could scarcely span the diameter of any one.

POWER OF THE ENGINES.

"Of like proportions are the giant's nostrils—the funnels through which are breathed out the smoke and gas that cannot be consumed. They rise straight away from the fire-bars a distance of 128 feet; and if they were laid on the ground, a double line of trolley-cars could be run through each, with room to spare. Then the two great engines (the ship's heart) beat with a steam-pressure of 192 pounds to the square inch—seven and a half tons bearing upon the space covered by a man's hand. Gleaming pistons of solid steel, a foot and a half thick, convey this power to giant crank-shafts more than two feet in diameter. As a pure display of power there is nothing in any other mechanism to compare with the operation of these engines. One does not comment upon it; he holds his tongue and looks. The motion is not rapid. The stroke is six feet, and the revolutions of the crank-shaft are 72 to the minute. It is the deliberation of a giant, who knows full well that nothing can stand against him. The impressiveness of the movement is heightened by the fact that we do not see it in its final application to the propulsion of the ship. We see it travel from the engines down the driving-bars. We see it take hold of the giant shafts and set them in motion. Then the shafts, thicker than a man's body, hollow, of the finest steel, disappear toward the stern of the ship. We know that they terminate in the propellers, that each revolution drives our 25,000 tons' weight over a distance of about thirty feet. But we know this because the chief engineer tells us so. All that we see are the great tubes of steel stretching away interminably, revolving ceaselessly."

The *Oceanic* is steered by means of two machines, as no wheel would be able to move her rudder; or, at any rate, all the seamen on board could not control it. The rudder weighs 53 tons. The two screws, of manganese bronze, weigh 30 tons each, and cost $36,000. The great shaft that moves each screw is constructed in nine sections, and each section weighs 24 tons. Great buckles of steel bent to fit over the shaft, with bolt-holes and bolts all at hand, are ready to repair a break.

RUNNING EXPENSES.

The *Oceanic* carries a crew of about 500 men, but only about 60 of these are sailors, most of the crew being occupied in attending to the wants of one sort or another of the 1,500 passengers. The engineer's department alone requires 200 men, chiefly to fire the furnaces. Mr. Mayo calculates the earning capacity of the *Oceanic* at $90,000 a round trip; but the expenses of running the great liner are so enormous that he thinks the net income is no more than an ordinary return on the investment of $4,500,000 which she represents.

THE PAPAL ELECTIONS.

IN *Frank Leslie's* for April, the Rt. Rev. Monsignor Seton describes the methods by which the successor to Pope Leo XIII. will be chosen. These methods were virtually established by a council called by Pope Gregory X. in 1274. The decree or "constitution" promulgated by this council contains fifteen paragraphs, called the "Fifteen Laws of the Conclave." They are summarized by Monsignor Seton as follows:

"On the death of the Pope the cardinals, having celebrated for nine days his obsequies in the city where he died, shall enter the conclave on the tenth day, whether absent colleagues have arrived or not, and be accompanied by a single attendant, whether lay or clerical, or at most, in case of evident necessity, by two attendants.

"The conclave shall be held in the palace last occupied by the Pope, and there the cardinals must live in common, occupying a single spacious hall not cut off by curtains or partitions, and so carefully closed on every side that no one can secretly pass in or out. One room, however, may be cut off for private purposes—*reservato libero ad secretam cameram aditu*; but no access shall be allowed to any cardinal, nor private conversation with nor visits to him, except from those who, by consent of all the other cardinals, may be summoned to consult on matters germane to the affair in hand; nor shall any one send letters or messages to their lordships or to any of their familiars, on pain of excommunication. A window or other opening shall be left in the hall of conclave, through which their meals are introduced; but it must be of such a size and shape that no human being can penetrate thereby. If, after three days from the opening of the conclave, no election has been made, the prelates appointed to attend to this shall allow each cardinal no more than one dish at dinner and supper during the next five days, after which only bread and water until they come to an agreement. The cardinals shall take nothing

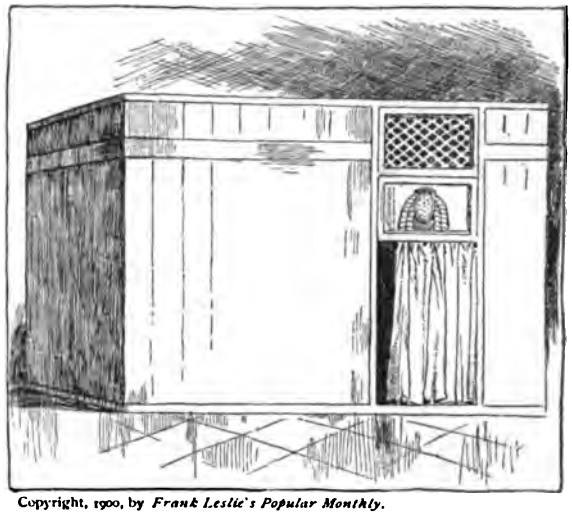
from the papal treasury during the vacancy of the See; but all its revenues are to be carefully collected and watched over by the proper officers. They shall treat of nothing but the election, unless some imminent danger to the temporalities of the Holy See may demand their attention; and, laying aside all private interests, let them devote themselves entirely to the common weal; but if any cardinal shall presume to attempt by bribes, compacts, or other arts to entice his brethren to his own side, he shall suffer excommunication: nor shall any manner of engagement, even if sworn to, be valid. If a cardinal draw off from the conclave, or should he retire from motives of health, the election must still proceed; yet if he recover he shall be readmitted. Cardinals arriving late or at any stage of the proceedings, as also those who may be under censures, shall be received. No one can give his vote outside of the conclave. Two-thirds of the votes of all the electors present are requisite to elect; and any one not radically disqualified is eligible to the Papacy."

Monsignor Seton explains that a woman, a manifest heretic, or an infidel—one who is not baptized—would be "radically disqualified."

THE MODIFIED RULES.

In a few points the severity of the constitution of Gregory X. has been relaxed and some slight modifications have been introduced, in accordance, as Monsignor Seton says, with the manners and customs of a more refined age.

"Thus Clement VI. (De Beaufort, 1342–1352), while recommending the greatest frugality at table during the seclusion of the conclave, removed the alimentary restrictions and left it to the cardinals themselves to select the kind, quality, and amount of their food, but forbade the prandial civilities of sending tidbits from one table to another. The same Pope allowed each cardinal to have his bed inclosed by curtains, and to have two attendants, or conclavists, in every case. The monastic simplicity of a common sleeping-room was done away with in the sixteenth century, when each cardinal was allowed the use of a separate cell, which Pius IV. commanded should be assigned by lot. When a cardinal's name and number have been drawn, his domestics upholster the cell with purple serge or cloth, if their master was created by the late Pope; but if by a former one, with green—a difference in color that was first observed in the conclave for the election of Leo X. A few articles of necessary furniture, such as a bed, table, kneeling-bench, and a couple of chairs, complete the interior arrangements. On the outside of his cell each cardinal affixes a small escutcheon



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CARDINAL'S CELL, WITH ESCUTCHEON OVER THE DOOR.

emblazoned with his arms, which serves as a substitute for that vulgar modern thing called a door-plate. While great care is still taken to hinder suspicious communications between the conclave and the outer world, it is no longer prohibited to visit a cardinal or member of his suite, although the colloquy must be held at some one of the entries, and whatever is spoken be heard by the prelates doing duty there."

"If a cardinal fall ill and choose to remain in conclave, provision is made to take his vote; but he may retire, if he wish, losing his vote, however, which cannot be given outside of the conclave or by proxy. If he recover he is obliged in conscience to return, because it is a duty of his office, and not a mere personal privilege, to take part in papal elections. All cardinals, unless specially deprived by the Pope before his death of the right of electing and of being elected, can vote and are eligible, even if under censures."

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN CANADA.

"A POLITICAL ONLOOKER" contributes to the *Canadian Magazine* for April a brief paper on "The Issues of the General Election." The threatened inroads of a people's or farmer's party are no longer dreaded by the managers of the two old parties of Canada, but neither the liberals nor the Conservatives represent just what they did four years ago:

"The Conservatives are not, as before, the champions of protection against a radical onslaught; nor are they the sole exponents of the imperial idea. The prestige long enjoyed as the only party of experience in affairs of state they must now share with their opponents. On

the other hand, the schism caused by the school question has, in large measure, healed. Sir Charles Tupper, both in vigor and adroitness, has not been found wanting, and has repaired the fallen fortunes of his party with undoubted skill. Suffering as they do, in and out of Parliament, for lack of fresh reinforcements of capable men, the Conservatives have been able to preserve a certain continuity of policy, and to avoid such serious mistakes as would compromise them hopelessly in the country. If a popular movement for a change of government should set in,



SIR CHARLES TUPPER.
(Leader of the Canadian Conservatives.)

the Conservatives have not, by any act of theirs since 1896, rendered themselves ineligible to take advantage of a turn in the tide."

The Liberals, on the other hand, are no longer fighting protection with their old-time energy. For the sake of continuance in power, they will readily promise to let the present duties stand. Still, the "Onlooker" believes that the tariff as an issue has not wholly disappeared. Nothing less than a threat of great tariff reductions, however, would solidify the protectionist interests in support of the Conservatives. The Liberals are not likely to make such a threat. The Liberals will probably not lose many votes from disappointed freetraders, nor will the Conservatives gain many from Liberal protectionists.

The obstacles to imperial commercial union, in the form of a British preferential *Zollverein* having been removed, it has been proposed that the Conservatives champion this cause; but the movement seems to lack essential elements of support.

"In the main, however, we shall find the determining issues of the campaign in imperialism, in racial jealousy, and in the tariff.

MODERN CANADIAN STATESMEN.

"The personal element counts for less than it did. The counterparts of George Brown, Sir John Macdonald, and Joseph Howe, the arbiters rather than the creatures of the political conditions they lived under, are not to be found to-day. There is still popular leadership; but it could not bear the strain which George Brown risked when he entered the Coalition, or Sir John Macdonald when he refused to pardon Riel. Despite the lugubrious reflections of those who attach undue weight to the past, it is questionable if Canadian politics contained abler men than we find now. Sir Wilfrid Laurier is surrounded by several associates of exceptional ability. Sir Charles Tupper could, if summoned, form a ministry at least as strong as those of his predecessors."

IMPERIALISM.

"A more conceivable extension of the imperial movement in Canada is not trade, but defense. The dispatch of forces to join the British army at the Cape is rapidly forcing this issue to the front. Such a policy would be hailed with enthusiasm in England; an effect not to be despised, even for the baser motive of commercial benefit. Both parties here would not ordinarily be slow in seizing such an opportunity. The Conservatives would respond more unitedly, perhaps; but the Liberals possess the advantage of being able to act."

The attitude of the French-Canadian element in the Liberal party toward Great Britain's wars seems to this writer to "call for diplomatic handling." Whether a Liberal government can unreservedly commit itself to any plan of imperial defense, and still retain its hold on its constituency, is problematic.

In the coming campaign the anti-capitalist agitation—"a reflex of the Bryan oratory in the United States"—is likely to have more or less effect. The reciprocity question will also be discussed.

"A name to conjure with, obscuring issues and drawing men by the force of sheer attraction, is not readily discernible on either side."

CUBAN INDEPENDENCE.

IN *L'Humanité Nouvelle* for March, a well-considered article, "The United States and Cuba," by Albert Ruz, discusses the relations of Cuba and the United States, with a view to throwing light on the probable future status of the island. Mr. Ruz, who writes as a Cuban wholly in sympathy with the patriots who struggled to free their country from Spanish dominion, says:

"The sociologist, the economist, the statesman, cannot remain indifferent to the future of the Pearl of the Antilles, which is at the same time the Key of the Gulf of Mexico. Public opinion in France is fully preoccupied in regard to it. Unfortunately, most French writers who have treated of this subject have drawn their information from Spanish sources; . . . so errors, more or less grave, have been spread abroad—notably this belief, almost general, that the Cubans have gained nothing by American intervention, and have made only a change of masters. And yet just there is a point where doubt is inadmissible. Cuba will or will not be an independent nation, having or not having its own personality; but however that may turn out, one thing is to day absolutely certain—the Cuban people will be a free people. As the idea of an omnipotent central power fits the temperament and political habits of Spain, so this idea is out of the conceptions of Americans, who would sin rather by a contrary excess. . . .

"It is the future of Cuba that interests public opinion. It is asked whether Americans will keep their word, which they have solemnly pledged to give to the island independence. In truth, most people answer this question in the negative, and the imperialist fever which has taken possession of Mr. McKinley's government would seem to justify this opinion if Mr. McKinley himself in his recent message had not made declarations in a sense absolutely opposed. But it is the peculiarity of documents of this sort that they lend themselves to different interpretations; each can find there the confirmation of his personal ideas."

AMERICAN POLICY FROM JEFFERSON DOWN.

Mr. Ruz thinks that more light on the future of Cuba will be got by reviewing the history of American policy as to the island and by noting the economic ties that bind it to the United States than by studying Mr. McKinley's messages. And yet he does not question the sincerity of Mr. McKinley's official declarations.

In a skillful and interesting manner Mr. Ruz traces the American policy from the time of Jefferson in 1802 down to the present occupation. He shows that, with some interruptions, we have persistently regarded Cuba as a pendant of the American continent. In discussing Cuban affairs with Spain, France, or England, we have been accustomed to assert on our part material interests in Cuba that gave us the right to intervene in its relations with European powers. There seems to be in Mr. Ruz's mind, though not distinctly stated, the inference that it is not likely the United States will abandon her historical policy and give to Cuba complete independence. But he abstains from making a prediction on this point. The tendencies springing from the situation, however, he believes set towards the absorption of Cuba by the United States.

"Without speaking of the instruction which is derived from our recapitulation of the Cuban policy of the United States, we think that powerful causes push Cuba into the latter's arms. These causes are the geographical situation, the political and social conditions of the great Antille, and above all her economic interests.

INDIVIDUAL LIBERTY BEFORE NATIONAL INDEPENDENCE.

"The Cubans misled by the self-love which characterizes the Spanish race, and intoxicated by the joy of being freed from their old oppressors, seem not to make account of this truth [that the Cuban problem does not date from recent years.] They wish to make by themselves the happiness of their own country; a task of which they believe themselves fully capable. An illusion surely respectable, but an illusion all the same. It is vain to strive against the laws of heredity and sociology. Systematically shut out from political life by Spain, how could they to-day or to-morrow have the aptitudes which can be acquired only by the long enjoyment of liberty? . . . Logically it is to be feared that the Cubans, if handed over to themselves, would be more unfortunate than their brothers of South America. . . .

"Nothing is more seducing than certain words—nothing more delusive. The peoples called Latins are especially liable to be caught by them. [National] independence is certainly a respectable ideal, but in comparison with material advantages it is little more than nothing. Especially for Cuba. The Pearl of the Antilles has immense natural wealth almost unexploited, but to develop this wealth there is need—need in all the force of the term—of two factors, which can come only from outside: capital and laborers. Immigration and money are the essential conditions of Cuba's prosperity, and they will flow there only when they find sufficient guaranties of order and security. To the eyes

council of ministers. In 1894, however, a minister for the colonies was created by legislative enactment, and in 1896 the department as it now exists was organized by decree. One sees that the recognition, by the mother-country, of the importance of her colonies came late.

The French Government, whether monarchical or republican, is a centralized government. The threads that regulate colonial administration center at Paris. M. Duchêne says: "The inspectors of the colonies are not the sole functionaries that depend strictly on the central power, and have a direct regard for the execution of its will. It is necessary to mention besides, independently of the military personnel and the commissariat and the sanitary corps of the colonies, whose powers are all special, the governors, paymasters, colonial administrators, the secretaries-general of the colonies, the chiefs and sub-chiefs of the bureau of the secretariats-general, the magistrates, the special personnel of the punitive administration, etc." That, certainly, is long-distance government.

THE COLONIAL PERSONNEL.

But how is this army of officials and their subordinates fitted for their work? Until lately no provision at all seems to have been made for securing fitness. M. Duchêne's admission, that the colonial personnel had fallen into discredit, cannot excite surprise. To meet in some degree the requirements of the situation, the colonial school at Paris was created in 1889. Its organization has been shaped by successive decrees in 1889, 1891, and 1896. The purpose of the school is to supply with instruction, and subject to examinations, pupils who want to fit themselves for employment in the colonial government service, especially in Indo-China and Africa. The places open to the pupils after receiving their certificates seem to be clerkships and positions of that grade. The higher places, there can hardly be any doubt, still remain as prizes for factional service and official pull. The expenses of the school are apportioned among the colonies benefited by its establishment.

M. Duchêne's account of the French colonial system is limited to sketching its history and describing its existing form. He makes no comparisons between the French system and other systems. His own opinion as to its suitableness is not disclosed. The prevalent opinion in this country has been that, while French colonists have usually shown far greater capacity than English colonists for adapting themselves to the native races among whom they have settled, the governmental system of France in dealing with the colonists themselves has been less successful than the English system.

THE NEW PROSPERITY.

IN the May *McClure's*, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker gives, in a very intelligent and ingenious way, a great number of facts and figures concerning the greater amount of business and the greater amount of wealth in the country this year. Between 1897 and 1900, European banks of issue gained $4,000,000 in gold, going from $1,591,000,000 to $1,595,000,000. In the same period the United States showed a gain from $693,000,000 to $1,016,000,000. The savings-banks statistics show that whereas the average individual deposit in 1894 was $369, in 1899 it was $419. It is interesting to note, from Mr. Baker's figures, how quickly the unusual prosperity of the country is reflected in the charitable gifts of the wealthy people of the land. For instance, in 1898, Americans gave $23,984,900; in 1899 the total charities amounted to $79,749,956. As might be expected, the use of luxuries increased among Americans at a tremendously rapid rate along with the advance of the good times. A curious instance of this is seen in Mr. Baker's investigation of the piano trade. He found that in the nine States of the Northwest more pianos were sold in the six months of 1899 than during the entire previous six years. In the diamond trade he shows that 1897 brought $2,000,000 worth of diamonds into the country; 1898, $7,000,000; and the year 1899 no less than $12,175,550. The general prosperity extends to some unexpected phenomena. For instance, owing to the larger business between the small buyers and the retail stores, the American people were using $11,000,000 more of dimes, quarters, and half-dollars in September, 1899, than they had been using in September, 1897. The postal business is not behind in its rapid extension. For the year ending June 30, 1899, 7,000,000 more money-orders were issued than in the year 1895, the increased amount coming to $55,000,000, and the average amount per order had been increased from $7.00 to $7.40.

"More curious still, reports from various States show that crime everywhere decreased. Take, for instance, the showing in the single State of Illinois. For the year ending September 30, 1895, during the hard times, 927 convicts were sent to the State penitentiary. In the year ending September 30, 1899, the number was only 506, or hardly more than half. The decrease unquestionably is due to lessened idleness. The army of the unemployed is no longer an army and no longer unemployed; and there is, in consequence, less drunkenness and less tendency to crime. Prosperity also brings with it a feeling of hope, and it is now easier to earn a living than steal it."

PROFESSOR ELY'S CLASSIFICATION OF MONOPOLIES.

IN an article on "The Nature and Significance of Monopolies and Trusts," appearing in the *International Journal of Ethics* for April, Prof. Richard T. Ely sets forth a scheme of classification of monopolies which he has also developed in his new book on "Monopolies and Trusts" (reviewed by Professor Commons in our April number).

Professor Ely's grouping of classes and subclasses is as follows:

(*a*) Social monopolies.
  I. General-welfare monopolies.
    1. Patents.
    2. Copyrights.
    3. Public-consumption monopolies.
    4. Trade-marks.
    5. Fiscal monopolies.
  II. Special-privilege monopolies.
    1. Those based on public favoritism.
    2. Those based on private favoritism.

(*b*) Natural monopolies.
  I. Those arising from a limited supply of raw material.
  II. Those arising from properties inherent in the business.
  III. Those arising from secrecy.

Professor Ely's purpose in this classification is to show, by the analysis which it presents, the wide sweep of monopoly in modern industrial society. His explanation of some of the subclasses is important:

"Public-consumption monopolies are monopolies designed to regulate consumption beneficially; either to promote some desirable consumption or to restrict and confine within limits deleterious and injurious consumption. The alcohol monopoly of Switzerland and the South Carolina dispensary system afford illustrations. Fiscal monopolies are monopolies which are created primarily in the interest of the public treasury. The tobacco monopoly of France affords the best illustration. Monopolies based on public favoritism are monopolies which are due primarily to the action of public authority exerted in the interest of favorites. The old Tudor monopolies, against which protest was made so frequently in our early constitutions, afford abundant illustrations. Hume gives a vivid description of them in the reign of Elizabeth in his History of England. Private-favoritism monopolies are businesses not naturally monopolistic which have become monopolies by virtue of an alliance with another monopoly—especially a natural monopoly, whereby they partake of the properties of the latter. Here special reference is made to the favoritism of railways, which has been so potent a cause of monopoly in the United States. This is well known probably to most of you; and, so far as the sceptical are concerned, I would in this place simply refer to the reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

"Those monopolies arising from properties inherent in the business are those ordinarily designated as natural monopolies, although I make



PROF. RICHARD T. ELY.

them simply one sub-class under the general term. They are railways, telephones, gas-works, etc."

Professor Ely thinks that the value of all monopolized businesses in the United States "more probably exceeds a sixth of the entire valuation of property in the United States than falls short of this proportion."

"THE MAN WITH THE HOE."

DOES the type described in Mr. Markham's poem fairly represent the American farmer? There seems to be a pretty general consensus of opinion that it does not. Mr. Markham himself, writing in *Success* for March, says:

"While my verses have as their basis the old-world toiler in the soil, they are intended to apply, in a larger sense, to all who are forced to the excessive physical labor that quenches the fire in the mind and freezes the sentiment in the heart. There are many thousands of such workers in this country. They may be found in the sweat-shops, the factories, even in the offices, and on the farms, but less on the farms than in the cities. A rich man whom the world calls successful may be, in the broad sense of the term, as I conceive it, a man with the hoe. He may have been, since the beginning of his ca-

upon as insufficient; hence that rapidity of movement which was one of the principal causes of all their successes. Rarely paid by the government which, unable to solve its financial difficulties, fairly ignored their claims, they never asked for luxuries. Nearly all of them were practiced in the use of firearms; and one might see them entering the recruiting-offices with the rifle on their shoulders and the revolver at the belt—weapons which they never laid aside, and without which they would not have considered themselves safe.

THE SOUTHERN RIFLEMEN.

"The Federals were to them invaders who had always been painted in the blackest colors, and who, on coming to free the negroes, intended to make them the equals of the common whites, and consequently to humble them.

"These soldiers were better practiced in the use of the rifle than those of the North, and better adapted to such service. They proved this during the sieges, in those slow operations where the two armies, after having both fallen back into their respective intrenchments, reconnoitered each other in turn, and drew their lines closer by degrees without daring to charge each other openly. Posted behind breastworks, or in the rifle-pit, they would watch the Federal works with the cool vigilance of the hunter who has passed many days motionless by the side of some deserted lake, watching for the stag who is sure to come to quench his thirst at sunset. It only required for a Federal soldier to raise his hat on the point of a bayonet to have it riddled with numberless balls.

"It was the man in the rough coat with the lock of his rifle tied on with string who won victories, not the neatly uniformed, pampered soldier."

A CRITICISM OF M. DE BLOCH.

MR. HUDSON MAXIM, the military inventor, contributes to the *Home Magazine* for April a paper on "The Warfare of the Future," in which he takes issue with M. Jean de Bloch, whose views have recently attracted so much attention in connection with the British-Boer war.

Taking, for example, the reasoning in the first chapter of M. de Bloch's book on "The Future of War," by which the conclusion is reached that every modern bullet will find its victim, Mr. Maxim remarks:

"If this be M. Bloch's estimation of the effectiveness of the modern rifle-bullet, it is no wonder that his humanity is touched when he contemplates their dire deadliness. I once heard a patent-medicine vender claim for his pills that they would search out and hit any ailment with which a patient might be afflicted. If M. Bloch is correct, then his bullets must be possessed of a similar intelligence.

"In the Crimean war, only one man was killed for every 700 bullets fired by the English, and one in every 500 fired by the French, while the Russians fired more than 900 for every man killed.

"The vital area presented by a man to rifle-fire is only about 20 per cent. of the total area exposed, so that eighty bullets out of every hundred which find a victim hit some non-vital part.

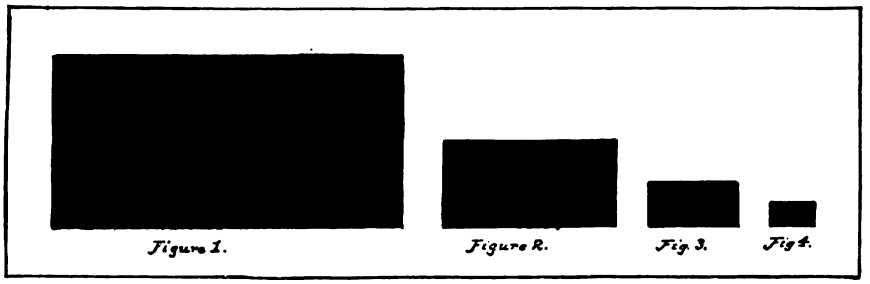
"Official figures show that a very small percentage of the wounded die. According to recent statistics, more than 85 per cent. of soldiers wounded in modern warfare recover, and about a third of the deaths from wounds occur before relief reaches the wounded on the field.

WHY AMMUNITION IS WASTED.

"With due allowance for the greater accuracy and flatness of trajectory of the modern bullet, the increased range at which armies will fight, and the greater number of bullets which will be fired by machine-guns for clearing bush and to worry and discover an enemy, will still make the misses as much in excess of the hits as formerly. It is hard to see how M. Bloch could arrive at the conclusion that on the battle-field of the future there will be as many hits as bullets fired. If armies were to fight in close order, shoulder to shoulder, and on open, level ground, and the range were sufficiently short, then M. Bloch's prediction might hold true; but, unfortunately for his reasoning, the line of battle will be chosen on the brows of hills, among rocky ledges, and under the cover of forests, and rifle-pits and trenches will always be dug when no natural protection is offered. All fighting will be done in skirmishing order, in American Indian fashion—a style made such good use of by the Continentals under Washington. General Braddock had occasion to appreciate the effectiveness of this method of fighting."

Mr. Maxim reasons that "the greater the improvement in the efficiency of weapons the farther apart will armies fight, and the more under cover, and in such positions that tons of ammunition may be wasted without inflicting any considerable loss of life. In ancient times, when armies fought with swords, spears, and battle-axes, the attack was made in the open and usually on level ground. Sometimes half the numbers engaged were killed.

"Why was it that such large numbers were



Courtesy of the *Home Magazine.*

COMPARATIVE AREAS OF ANCIENT AND MODERN BATTLE-FIELDS.

(Showing why, in spite of the improved efficiency in weapons, there are fewer casualties per 1,000 men engaged. The figures represent battle-fields of—(1) to-day; (2) Civil War times; (3) Napoleonic wars; and (4) ancient times before firearms.

slain, and with such primitive weapons? It was for the very reason that the weapons were primitive, and required the combatants to come to close quarters, and to fight practically hand to hand. To be defeated then was to be annihilated. There were no means for covering retreat. When the battle began to turn, the enemy was already at the heels of the vanquished, and in a position to cut them down without mercy, while yet frenzied in the fury of the fight."

A FRENCH VIEW OF CECIL RHODES.

IN the *Revue de Paris* for March, there is a striking picture of Mr. Cecil Rhodes from the pen of M. Viallate. It is needless to follow the writer in his account of Mr. Rhodes's earlier years—his career at Oxford, and his going out to South Africa in search of health. The romance of poor Barney Barnato, the ex-clown who came to Kimberley in 1872 with fifty pounds in his pocket, is well brought out by the French writer. How Rhodes, with the aid of Rothschild, forced Barnato into an alliance with him is explained; and from that alliance sprang the De Beers Consolidated, the greatest diamond mining company in the world. M. Viallate shows how extremely partial had been the fusion of the old Dutch colonists and the English at the Cape. Like the Boers of the Transvaal, the country Dutchmen of the Cape were, and still are, pastoralists and stock-breeders rather than cultivators of the soil; and they endeavored, as far as possible, to preserve their isolation and their language, which had degenerated into a sort of *patois* called the *taal.* Unfortunately M. Viallate's charge that the English authorities did not know how to conciliate these subjects is too true. Long before Mr. Rhodes entered colonial politics a large portion of these Dutchmen had trekked north. From the moment of his entrance into the Cape Parliament, Mr. Rhodes constituted himself an apostle of expansion, in striking contrast to what had been the previous policy of the Colonial Office. He perceived that the State which possessed Bechuanaland and Matabeleland would be the master of South Africa; in other words, that the key of the whole situation lay in the interior. And thus, early in his career, the French writer brings out Rhodes's hostility to the Dutch republics, which he sought to surround on every side by British colonies.

MR. RHODES AND SOUTH AFRICAN FEDERATION.

At first Mr. Rhodes desired to gain his object by means of the Cape Colony; but the Bechuanaland expedition of Sir Charles Warren opened his eyes to the fact that the Cape Dutch regarded the northern territories as the legitimate hinterland of the Free State and the Transvaal. Thenceforward Mr. Rhodes had to seek his support from the Colonial Office and its representative in Cape Town, the high commissioner. M. Viallate traces the rise of the Afrikander party at the Cape and Mr. Rhodes's alliance with it, which resulted in what might be called the coalition ministry of 1890, of which he was prime minister, and in which several portfolios were held by Afrikanders. The making of this alliance was a master-stroke on the part of Mr. Rhodes, for then for the first time he could speak in the name of the whole of Cape Colony. In 1891 the Afrikander Bond held its Congress at Kimberley, by way of compliment to the prime minister, who explained in a remarkable speech his noble dream of South African federation—"counsels," says M. Viallate, "which were full of prudence and wisdom; but unfortunately Mr. Rhodes himself too quickly forgot to regulate his conduct by them."

The real struggle with the Transvaal began in 1890. Mr. Krüger, we are told, was necessarily opposed to the idea of South African federation under British protection. He wished to give the Transvaal an outlet to the sea, in order to escape being suffocated by the surrounding English colonies; and M. Viallate frankly declares that he hoped to make the Transvaal the nucleus of a South Africa united under the Afrikander flag. M. Viallate states very impartially the story of the Jameson raid, and the committee of inquiry

which followed; while he regards the recent revelations of the *Indépendance Belge* as confirming the theory of Mr. Chamberlain's complicity in the plot. Whether Mr. Rhodes played any part in negotiations which preceded the outbreak of war, M. Viallate does not know, but he shows clearly that Mr. Rhodes expected a rapid success for the British arms. Generally speaking, M. Viallate exhibits a remarkable knowledge, not only of events in South Africa, but also of the causes of them—so often the stumbling-blocks of the intelligent foreigner. He does justice to Mr. Rhodes's tenacity of purpose, the real nobility of many of his ideas, and the masterful personality of the whole man; but he points out that to carry through the delicate work of creating a nation it is necessary to have other qualities than those of a clever financier, and it is a mistake to underrate the importance of the moral element in human affairs.

THE WAR A BLOW TO GERMANY.

THE moral of the South African war in its effect upon European relations is pointed out by Mr. H. W. Wilson in the *National Review*, in an interesting article, entitled "A Blow to Germany." As its title indicates, the object of Mr. Wilson's paper is to show that the calculations of the German military authorities have been set astray owing to recent developments. The French army, it is generally admitted, is much inferior to that of Germany, and the project of a German attack has for years been regarded with apprehension by instructed Frenchmen. But such an attack, providing the neutrality of Belgium and Switzerland were not violated, could only be accomplished by breaking through the great line of French fortresses, which arose on the frontier as the sequel of the war of 1870. It was on their artillery the Germans relied to effect this. Hence their disappointment.

For the best lesson of the present war is that artillery fire is far less effective than was expected. At Belmont, at Enslin, at Modder River, at Colenso, the British artillery was quite unable to shake the defense, and the successes gained were the result of an infantry advance which found the Boers quite unshaken. And the classical example was Paardeberg, where 5,000 Boers were cooped up in a narrow river-bed, and after being subjected to an unprecedented bombardment for several days, were found to have lost 200 men.

COULD FRANCE BE SUCCESSFULLY INVADED?

For offensive purposes, therefore, the German army has become depreciated in the eyes of its leaders by the artillery factor alone. But the extreme difficulty of frontal attacks, which M. Bloch predicted, and which has been so fully proven, is another blow to Germans who believed in the possibility of an invasion of France. A third factor against aggressive war is the ease with which long lines may be held by small forces. At Magersfontein the Boers held twenty miles of front with some ten thousand men, or five hundred men a mile—about ten times less than the recognized proportion. Since the frontier between France and Germany is no more than one hundred and sixty miles long, the French could man the whole frontier with two thousand men per mile by concentrating three hundred thousand men, which could be done in forty-eight hours; and such a line of defense could hold the Germans in check until they had lost the advantage of their quicker mobilization.

"Still, the net result is to relieve France of that nightmare of invasion from which she has suffered for the last thirty years. Germany's striking power on the west is very much diminished, if, indeed, it does not vanish altogether, and she will have to turn her main efforts against Russia. I am assuming that Italy will not necessarily be found on the German side, as this, in view of the slowly developing hostility between England and Germany, and in view of the fear of German designs in the Mediterranean and Adriatic which the younger Italian statesmen feel, is at least possible. That would free France from all danger in the southeast."

GERMANY AS A NAVAL POWER.

THE *Fortnightly* for April contains an article by Dr. Karl Blind on "Germany as a Naval Power," in which he traces the growth of the German navy for the last fifty years. The enthusiasm recently awakened in Germany by the idea of a great navy is no new phenomenon, but dates back as far as 1843, when Freiligrath foresaw the black-red-gold banner waving from the masts of a German fleet.

THE MAKERS OF THE GERMAN NAVY.

France, Russia, America, and at last England, have been the makers of the German fleet. The outbreak of the Transvaal war, coming upon the heels of the Peace Conference, has frightened all Europe; and "all nations, great and small,—and the small ones not least among them,—have become much alarmed at the increasing uncertainty concerning the peace of the world. 'Whose turn will it be next?' is the general question. Amid this condition of disquiet, the Emperor William's declaration was uttered, that 'there is a bitter need for a strong German fleet.'

A corresponding proposal was introduced in the Reichstag, after having received the virtual assent of the Federal Council, composed of the delegates of the various governments of the princely states and free towns.

"And, as if the more effectively to promote this demand, there followed the seizure, the unnecessarily long detention, and the very harsh treatment, of German mail-steamers, and other vessels, which were afterward proved to have stated their bill of lading quite correctly. No contraband of war whatever was found on board of those ships. These procedures gave rise to feelings easy to understand. Let Englishmen think of what they would have felt in a similar case. Certainly, the high-handed way in which those seizures and detentions were carried out must be pronounced a most unwise action from the point of view of the preservation of that international amity which is so highly desirable between Germany and this country. Surely nothing worse could befall the progress of mankind than a hostile conflict between two kindred nations. All sensible Germans ardently desire the continued maintenance of good relations which have lasted through history, between the original Teutonic stock and the descendants of those who made Britain into an England."

HOW THE PUBLIC THINKS.

Passing from this summary of the causes of the German navy scare, Dr. Blind discusses the state of public opinion on the subject in Germany, and the distribution of support and opposition in the Reichstag. The main development of the last few months has been to bring a great many opponents of German navy expansion, and good friends of England, to look at the matter very much from the Emperor's point of view. At present the navy budget of Germany is the smallest among the great powers.

"In 1899, France had (in marks) a budget of 235,000,000; the United States of America, 198,000,000 (in consequence of the war with Spain); Russia, 186,000,000; the German Empire, 133,000,000 marks. The taxation, per head, for maritime purposes, was correspondingly the smallest in Germany. A statement of Count Bülow, the minister for foreign affairs, is to the effect that, owing to the extension of the building of new vessels over a space of sixteen years, the taxation, per head, would not be increased, so far as can be seen. As to to the whole plan, to give it in a few words, it is, according to Prince Hohenlohe, the imperial chancellor, to double the number of battleships and of the large cruisers, and to do away altogether with the coasting squadron."

THE NEED FOR A NAVY.

It is reckoned that the German population in twenty years hence will number from seventy to seventy five millions.

"That population, the advocates of the navy bill say, has to be fed, and to be secured against a hostile interruption of its industrial export and its necessary import. During the last forty years its trade has risen, since 1860, from two and a half milliards of marks to eight and a half in 1897. It is now assumed to have reached ten milliards. The tonnage of its ships has, during the last ten years, augmented fifteen times. Though the increase of trade with countries or colonies over sea may certainly be attained without a navy; yet in times of danger that trade would be at the mercy of a strong foreign naval power, if it were not itself correspondingly protected by a force at its back."

Dr. Blind thinks that if a *plébiscite* could be taken, there would probably be a good majority in favor of the navy bill.

A GERMAN VIEW OF INTERNATIONAL POLICIES.

IN the *Deutsche Revue* for March M. von Brandt writes on "World Politics and Peace Politics," discussing especially the attitude of Germany in relation to England.

According to this writer, the speech of Count von Bülow in the German Reichstag in reference to the seizure of German ships by British cruisers may, in its quiet dignity and moderation, be considered as a perfect expression of the German peace politics. That it was not altogether viewed as such in England is due in part to the present war excitement, but more especially to the fact that for centuries the English have regarded themselves as the rulers of the sea, and have resented all continental interference in maritime jurisdiction. The English press was therefore disagreeably surprised to see that a continental power presumed not only to have an opinion of its own in the matter, but even to hint at the necessity of mutual explanations and adjustments. This feeling has called forth the many letters appearing in the English papers, now predicting the downfall of English supremacy, now showing the untenability of the German position.

The nineteenth century has been a century of congresses, each of which has marked a stage in the advance of civilization and has testified to the ever-increasing desire for peace among the nations. Count von Bülow's intimations as to the necessity for a mutual readjustment of maritime laws are another witness to the tendency toward

peaceful arbitration in settling questions of international policy.

EMPEROR WILLIAM AS PEACEMAKER.

When Emperor William II. ascended the throne, about twelve years ago, grave apprehensions were felt as to the uses to which he would put his power. The history of these years has proved, says Herr von Brandt, that the foremost army in the world has only served to maintain peace and to encourage an unprecedented industrial and commercial development. Temptations to show the mailed hand have not been lacking, as witness the Turco-Grecian War and the Cretan question; the persistent efforts to drag not only the German Government and policy, but also its crowned head personally, down into the mire of the Dreyfus case; the slanders of the yellow press in England and in the United States; the affairs in Samoa; and even the sputterings of a part of the German press. Not only skill and tact, but especially a true love of peace, were required to steer around these cliffs that threatened the German policy. In every case the leader has withstood the temptation to appeal to "the last resort of kings," and the results—be they the concessions for the Bagdad railroad, or the acquisition of the two chief islands of the Samoan Archipelago, or the renewed friendly relations with the United States, or the question at issue with England—have been such that prince and people can look back to them with satisfaction.

VALUE OF THE GERMAN ARMY

But in addition to the peace policy of the government, Herr von Brandt shows that another circumstance has materially helped to preserve the peace—the splendidly equipped German army holding in check the neighbors east and west—a proof that money was never better spent than that on increasing and strengthening the army whose task it is to protect the home frontiers. The disasters of the British in South Africa have proved how terrible the cost is if that branch of the public service is neglected, and that no individual sacrifices can atone for that neglect of government. It is inspiring to see the heroism of English officers and soldiers in the field; to see volunteers hasten not only from England and Scotland, but also from all the colonies; to see rich and poor alike contribute freely to the various war funds. The collections of the lord mayor of London yielded in two months and a half more than $3,200,000, those of the *Daily Telegraph* $550,000, and other private collections at least an additional $2,500,000, and still English charity and English purses do not seem exhausted. But all that cannot wipe out sins of omission and make up for what has been so long neglected.

GERMANY'S NEED OF A STRONG NAVY.

Herr von Brandt feels that the lessons of the past year should not be lost on Germany. By land she is fully prepared for anything that may happen, conscious that her splendid army is not only a keen-edged sword in war, but also the best guarantee for the continuance of peace. But what she possesses on land she lacks on the sea. One need pay no attention to the boasts and threats of the English jingo press. Still, it must be remembered that even in the case of other powers than England the doctrine of the "continuous voyage" and the indefinite increase of contraband of war may seriously damage the trade and commerce of neutrals. A war between France and England or between England and Russia would, as matters now stand, subject German ports to a blockade, if not *de jure*, then at least *de facto*, and possibly paralyze also the whole trade of the Dutch and Belgian ports. The only way to prevent this is to increase the German fleet to such an extent that the belligerent parties would think twice before incurring Germany's hostility by injuring its commercial interests. The creation of a strong navy, therefore, instead of being a measure of aggression would only serve to maintain the balance of power. If since 1872 the peace of Central Europe has not been disturbed, this is due not only to the pronounced peaceable character of German politics, but also to the equipment of the German army, which has protected, along with the peace of Germany, also that of Europe. A well-equipped fleet would be a still further guarantee of peace, widening the sphere of Germany's influence and making it felt on the sea as it now is on land. In this case again the old saw will be verified, that he who would have peace must be prepared for war.

THE SULTAN AND HIS PRISONERS.

THE *Revue des Revues* for April 1 contains a blood-and-terror article full of almost incredible barbarities inflicted by the Sultan upon the Armenians. It would almost seem as if the best wits of Turkey employed all their ingenuity in devising fresh tortures for this wretched people. The article is specially addressed to President Loubet, whose wife has recently accepted a decoration from the Sultan. This action is a bitter humiliation to French royalists.

The functionaries of this plausible person, the Sultan, have outvied even the Spanish inquisitors in the wantonness of their cruelty and the variety of the exquisite tortures they have in-

vented. In all the large towns the prisons are full to overflowing with prisoners of all ages and conditions—men of eighty and children of tender years, arrested on any and every kind of frivolous pretext. If the Turkish authorities would only kill them outright it would not be so terrible to contemplate; but for months or years these prisoners may linger on, tortured with hunger, thirst, hot irons, and nameless agonies of the vilest kind. At night it is no uncommon thing for the chief jailer to have them brought before him and to enjoin upon them to embrace Islamism, those who refuse being scourged and otherwise tortured. Under torture also some prisoners have been forced to sign a declaration denouncing as revolutionary the Armenian merchants of their town. In another town the Armenian quarter is invaded every night, ostensibly in search of fugitives. If nothing suspicious is found, the police confiscate all money and valuables upon which they can lay their hands. A hundred Armenians are imprisoned daily as hostages. In one town it is asserted, on good authority, that the Turks have been instructed not to pay their debts to the oppressed race.

SYSTEMATIZED ATROCITIES.

To give an idea of the triviality of the charges upon which Armenians are arrested, the case of two young men may be cited, who, returning from a long stay in Constantinople, were arrested merely for the crime of possessing a revolver. Not being legally able to punish them, the government was forced to have recourse to cowardice. A piece of wood, sharpened like the blade of a sword, was, therefore, placed furtively on the chair of one of the victims, who did not discover in time what had been done, and died after a few days of agony. His companion was given an employment which would expose him to the germs of typhoid, with the desired result—that he contracted the fever in a malignant form, and also died after a few days.

Fourteen well-known Armenians of the same town (Bitlis) are also imprisoned for having refused to sign a petition expressing gratitude for the peace and prosperity reigning in the province.

In Cilicia the same atrocities. In some places even the churches have been closed, the clergy being all under arrest, languishing for years in dismal dungeons. The schools are in a similar plight, the teachers being also in prison. No priest may visit the dying in these prisons, and the dead are cast into unhallowed graves.

Nor is it only within the prison-walls that indescribable tortures are committed. In one village a young Armenian was roasted alive in an oven, while another was blinded through boiling water being poured on his eyes; and all this because the Armenians are of the Christian faith, and possess a country of their own.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S IDEAL OF A NEWSPAPER.

APROPOS of the recent discussion in this country occasioned by the Rev. Mr. Sheldon's attempt to edit a daily newspaper on religious lines at Topeka, Kan., the views of Mr. A. E. Fletcher, the London journalist, on the ideal newspaper, given in the *Young Man* for April, are interesting and to the point.

CAPITALISTIC CONTROL.

"The curse of the press," he says, "is that it is controlled by capitalists in the interest of capitalism. It was not always so. In the first half of the century the great London daily papers—there were none published outside London until after 1850—were controlled by capitalists, it is true, but not exclusively in the interests of capitalism. They were published for the most part for propagandist purposes; they were the organs of great parties and of great ideas, and they were conducted by thoroughly able, honest, and earnest men. Neither editors nor proprietors had then begun to play up for baronetcies or knighthoods.

JOURNALISM AS LITERATURE.

"One of the chief aims of an ideal newspaper would be to remove the reproach that journalism is not literature. It ought to be literature. There was a time when the mass of the English people read nothing but the Bible; when, therefore, they were well read in great literature. That was England's heroic age—the age of her greatest prophets, poets, saints, and martyrs. The mass of the English people now, I am afraid, read nothing but newspapers, and I hardly think the ousting of the Bible by the press has helped to ennoble national character. If the newspaper is to be the Englishman's Bible of the future, let us take care that it models its style on that of the sacred books from which all our best writers, poets, and orators have caught their inspiration. You can only have great literature in great language—the strong and simple language of great men. The language of journalism compares, I think, badly with that of our best writers.

THE IDEAL.

"My idea of a great paper is that it should be given up solely to the great interests of humanity, to literature, to politics, to religion and economics, to art and science, to the drama and music, to education and labor. Such a paper

would have very little room either for sport or finance. Many daily papers devoted wholly to these sordid interests already exist; and if it pays thus to specialize sport and finance, it would surely pay to specialize subjects appealing to the higher instincts, the wider knowledge, and nobler sympathies of men. The ideal paper would not, of course, ignore altogether healthy pastimes or honest trading; but it would have nothing to do with either turf or stock-exchange gambling, or with the transactions of usurers, quacks, and humbugs, except to denounce them. Such a paper need not depend upon advertisements, which are profitable only within certain limits of circulation. Beyond those limits they do not pay for paper and ink. The ten-page daily of large circulation would make more money if it left out all its advertisements and printed, say, only six pages.

"An ideal paper should be made to pay its way on its sale; and, as it would not be run for profit, to pay its way would be enough. It would not be the proprietor's chief ambition to give a pennyworth of paper and ink. It would be characterized by symmetry rather than by bulk. If its articles, criticisms, and reviews were brightly written by the brightest authorities on their respective subjects; if it gave the best accounts of passing events, and won the confidence of the public by unswerving honesty and accuracy, it would, I am sure, be successful.

"Now that the Church is in danger of losing its influence, and Parliament is threatened with decay, we should take care that the press, which is here to stay, should be rescued from the control of mere profit-mongers, and kept alive as an informing, inspiring, and guiding force, helping men and nations onward in the direction of the realization of ideals that alone make life worth living."

IS CAPITAL PUNISHMENT JUSTIFIED?

THE inaugural address of Dr. E. B. McGilvary as Sage Professor of Moral Philosophy at Cornell University, on the subject of "Society and the Individual," is published in the *Philosophical Review* for March. In the course of this address Professor McGilvary discusses the general question of punishment and its justification in human society. Considering the problem from the culprit's point of view, as well as from that of the community, Professor McGilvary defines punishment as "the calm, cool, relentless expression in outer act of the fuller completer social self against the narrower passionate self which in the act of offense tries to assert its independence. No man feels that he is really punished except when he accepts the punishment as just what he himself in his saner mood would do to his insurrectionary self. If the retaliation is not approved by the offender he calls it affront, indignity, outrage—anything but punishment.

WHY SHOULD THE MURDERER'S BLOOD BE SHED?

"In the extreme case of capital punishment, it seems to be too much of a heartless paradox to say that the execution is for the criminal's own good or in order to make him good. But I think that without the flippancy which expresses itself in the proverb, 'only dead Indians are good Indians,' we can truly and seriously maintain that we kill some persons to make them good. This end, however, is not to be realized after their death, but before it. Apart from any outlook upon a possible future life—a consideration which is not pertinent here—the coming of the murderer to himself in the prospect of the gallows; his recognition of the enormity of his offense, not against an external society, but against the interests of his better self, which, if he had only seen it, included the life and welfare of his victim; the sad but manly avowal that he has put himself by his act into such a position that the only way to save himself, to redeem himself, to reëstablish the harmony he has so rudely marred—not a harmony outside himself, but his own harmony in his adjustment to a social environment that enters into the very constitution of his personality—all this result, I say, and nothing short of this result, will justify the shedding of a murderer's blood. The preservation of the external order may necessitate the execution, but necessitation and justification are two very different things. Into this difference, however, we cannot go at present.

"Experience seems to teach us that with man constituted as he now is—and we are not speaking of what Mr. Spencer calls 'the straight man,' 'an ideal social being,' for we know none such, and could not recognize him if we did—experience seems to show that the only way in which the murderer can be brought to himself is by the instrumentality of the death penalty.

"But while all this is true, it is also true that the callousness of a certain class of persons toward the criminal is inhumane. From the time that the sentence of death is passed, some men seem to regard the convict not as a person to be brought to recognize the meaning of his deed and of his execution, but as a dangerous animal kept for slaughter. It is just such an attitude that has led by reaction to the hysterically tender-hearted treatment of the criminal. Both extremes should be avoided."

WOMAN AS INVENTOR.

DR. A. DE NEUVILLE writes, in the *Revue des Revues*, on "The Inventive Genius of Women." He begins by remarking that those ideas which have been patented by women are more original than any of those conceived by men. He deals chiefly with the inventions of American and French women. The United States Patent Office had a special department for women's inventions in the Atlanta Exhibition. Women as patentees were almost unknown in America before 1860, while since that time their number has increased to several hundreds. The first patent taken out in this century was for a machine for weaving straw mixed with silk or thread, the second for a corset, and the third for a particular kind of cream of tartar and a powder for cake-making. Recent women's patents have mostly related to articles of furniture, typewriters, weaving-machines, children's playthings, games, musical instruments, household utensils, gardening tools, or agricultural implements. One woman invented a hammock built for two, perhaps to serve the same end as the bicycle built for two. Another altruistically patented a mudguard for men's trousers. The best-paying patents are those for household filters and children's playthings and puzzles; but one woman has earned a small fortune merely through a glove-button hook, and another through a stay-busk. All the inventresses are not successful, any more than all their brothers are. But the proportion, be it noted, of those who profit by their patents is about the same in the two sexes. The most successful women inventors have begun with small patents, and gradually worked up to important ones.

THE FRENCH WOMAN'S INVENTIVE FACULTY.

As a patentee the French woman does not seem so successful as the American. The number of French inventresses, however, has rapidly increased, till (though the movement is much more recent than in America) it now rivals the number of American inventresses. In 1899, from May 1 till August 31 alone, there were seventy patents taken out by women. The nature of these differs, however, very strikingly from the nature of those taken out by the American women. In time, if left to him, man might very well have done the American women's work; but it is hardly conceivable that he should ever have turned his masculine mind to the invention of a comb through which all sorts of delicate scents and essences can be conveyed to the roots of the hair and the head perfumed, or even an aromatic toothpick; nor is it likely that he would have shown his gratitude for the "mudguards" for his trousers by exercising his ingenuity upon the attainment of the ideal in women's bicycling or hunting costumes.

Many American patents have been taken out by women at the head of large firms—patents obviously owing their origin to some foreman or workman's brain. Dr. de Neuville considers that in matters where taste is of the first importance, requiring "the supreme delicacy of sentiment, the exquisite sense of the beautiful, which is the exclusive privilege of the Parisian woman," the French women will ever be queens. "Such," he says, "are the true inventresses; but they are too clever to have their inventions patented."

RUSKIN AND TURNER.

IN many senses the most interesting article relating to Ruskin in this month's periodicals is that by Mrs. Fawkes, in the *Nineteenth Century*. It describes Ruskin's connection with Farnley—"the place where the best work of a great genius (Turner) has been loved and appreciated, and where it is treasured up like a monument in a shrine."

"Ruskin's first visit to Farnley," writes Mrs. Fawkes, "was about the year 1851. All that is known about the visit is a matter of tradition; but I remember my uncle telling me that Mr. and Mrs. Ruskin stayed there for a month at least, and that every night he used to take one of the water-colors up to his bedroom to look at it the first thing in the morning; and there are many notes about the Turner drawings in Modern Painters."

The next communication between Mr. Ruskin and Farnley was in 1881, when Mrs. Fawkes desired to place a portrait of Ruskin in the room at Farnley said to have been occupied by Turner. In that room Mrs. Fawkes had already placed all the portraits of Turner she could find. Her letter to Ruskin asking for a photograph brought an interesting reply, in which the following passage occurs:

"Your letter has given me more pleasure than anything that has chanced to me for many a day—relating to the old times and lost hopes of my life, or at least laid-down hopes; for I can sometimes lift them again, and recover the trust that some day yet, Turner may be known by English people for what he was."

A print of the water-color sketch made by George Richmond was presented by the artist himself, and it still hangs in the Turner room at Farnley.

Ruskin's last visit to Farnley was in December, 1884. In reference to it, Mrs. Fawkes says:

"The first words he said when he entered the room were that he had a great favor to ask—

which was that we would not ask him to go into the drawing-room, the room where the oil-pictures by Turner hang, for that he should not be able to bear it. As far as we know he did not go into the room, for of course we did not propose it; but he was down very early one morning before any one was about, and it is possible that when quite alone he went into that room, where Dort hangs like the sun personified, but we never knew whether he did or not, nor did he give us any idea why he did not wish to go into that room, only we felt sure it was for reasons connected with his previous visit to Farnley, when he did not go there alone. I regretted that he did not see the oil-pictures, for there was a tradition that he preferred the Pilot Boat to Dort, and I should have liked to hear his reasons."

MR. BIRRELL ON THE POET COWPER.

THE fact that William Cowper died on April 25, 1800, gives rise to many centenary estimates of the poet in the English magazines for April. The *Leisure Hour* has been so fortunate as to secure the pen of Mr. Augustine Birrell for this purpose. Mr. Birrell points out that from the first Cowper's patent piety secured him a vogue among religious people. The writer then indulges in this aside:

"There are and always have been no inconsiderable number of quiet God-fearing folk in the land who, when they take up a book, as they occasionally do, are not prepared to lay down their religion, and who cannot bring themselves, even when they are reading Shakespeare, altogether to forget that Sir John Falstaff and Sir Toby Belch had, or by a necessary presumption of literature must be taken to have had, immortal souls, and the thought saddens them. I am not defending these people, only asserting their existence."

This religious valuation had, however, its risks. The poetry was in danger of being appreciated, not for its merit, but for its message:

"We see this process very plainly in patriotic poetry. If lines of precisely equal literary merit with the Absent-Minded Beggar had been composed in exaltation of the forces raised by the Boers, they would have been denounced in a patriotic press as poor stuff, unworthy even of the bad cause they espoused. There is nothing blameworthy in this. It is inevitable."

A POET IN ECLIPSE.

But with the advent of Scott and Byron and Wordsworth and the rest, Cowper was "doomed to hibernate for a few decades." Cowper was also a "prince of prose," however, and his fame as a letter-writer restored his literary position as "a genuine, truthful, and interesting poet." Mr. Birrell says:

"Cowper's natural equipment for a poetical career consisted of a delicate and playful humor, a taste exquisitely refined and at the same time strangely shrewd, and a scholarly gift of versification. He was a shy gentleman with a pretty wit and a quick eye for the humors of society. He came of a strong Whiggish stock, and understood the British Constitution a great deal better than Lord Salisbury seems to do. In the works of no other of our poets are to be found manlier opinions; and in none a loftier patriotism—combined, though it was in this case, with a passionate desire to see justice done to all mankind."

Mr. Birrell defends Cowper's faith from the charge of melancholia:

"Men who hate dogmatic religion have tried to make us believe that Cowper's misery was due to his religion; but, so far from that being the case, to any impartial person who reads Cowper's letters it is plain that, though the poet's insanity colored his religion, and created the delusion that he individually was condemned to live outside the promises of God, it was just because he believed so firmly in the love of God for the rest of the world that he was able to preserve so long and so marvelously the delightful natural affectionateness of his disposition. Cowper's religion, shrouded and distorted as his madness made it, was his best friend, for it kept his humanity alive."

THE NORTH AMERICAN JUMPING MICE.

IN the *American Naturalist* for March, Dr. J. A. Allen, of the American Museum of Natural History, New York City, writes about the jumping mice which are native to the northern and middle parts of North America, ranging from North Carolina, Missouri, New Mexico, and Central California, northward to Labrador, Great Slave Lake, and the Yukon River.

"They are a little larger than the common house-mouse, with very long hind legs and a very long tail. They are yellowish brown above and white below, the color of the dorsal and ventral areas being sharply separated by a broad lateral line of bright yellowish orange. They generally prefer moist meadows, marshy thickets, and the edge of woodland; but some species frequent deep forests, near streams. They are thus necessarily local in distribution, and not generally abundant, and being apparently nocturnal in habits are not often met with. They also pass the severer parts of the winter in hibernation. Opinion seems to be divided in reference to whether they constitute a distinct family type, or merely form a well-marked

subfamily of the Old-World Dipodidæ, or Jerboas, with which they were formerly associated generically by early writers, and of which they may be considered the American representatives."

These jumping mice were first generically separated from the Jerboas by the late Elliott Coues, the distinguished Washington naturalist, in 1875. Dr. Coues gave them the name Zapus, which he considered to represent also a distinct family, Zapodidæ. So greatly do the members of this family resemble one another in size and color that Dr. Coues at first recognized only a single species. A second was made known by Miller in 1891, and a third by Allen, two years later; during the following six years some twenty additional species and subspecies were added. Mr. Edward A. Preble, of the United States Biological Survey, has recently made a revision of the group; he recognizes three subgenera, twelve species, and nine additional subspecies.

HOW ANIMALS ENDURE COLD AND DROUGHT.

THE February number of the *Biologisches Centralblatt*, published in Leipsic, contains an article by Dr. L. Laloy on "*Die Scheintod und die Wiederbelebung als Anpassung an die Kälte oder an die Trockenheit*," in which he describes some of the wonderful ways in which members of the plant and animal kingdoms overcome the difficulties of maintaining life in spite of the vicissitudes of extreme cold in winter or drought in summer. Organisms whose natural habitat is shallow ponds or rivulets are subject to great stress of circumstances when these places dry up, as they often do if rains are not frequent. As a protection against this some forms have acquired the power of suspending their life activities for lengths of time that rival the reported sleep of the Indian fakirs, who are said to be able to go into a comatose condition in one generation and wake up in the next.

THE QUIESCENT STATE.

As the drought approaches these organisms undergo a gradual drying, mobile forms lose their power of motion, and they shrink up into a mass apparently without life, and remain in this condition until the return of wet weather or until the wind blows them into another pond, where they resume their former activities.

There is the same protection against death by freezing. The same individual may go into the quiescent state and revive again, or on reviving it may break up into a number of spores, which develop into new individuals. This characteristic of one-celled animals served as the basis for Weissmann's famous assertion that the protozoa are eternal, for as each one ultimately breaks up to form a number of new individuals, and there is no dead body remaining, no death can have occurred, and according to his theory the habit of dying was acquired by more highly organized animals, in which all of the individual did not take direct part in the formation of its descendants.

The organisms that have acquired this adaptation have no other protection against dryness or changes of temperature, and on account of the uncertain conditions under which they live, the power of suspended animation is of the greatest importance for the preservation of the species. There are all degrees in the development of this power of becoming quiescent and afterward reviving, and there is often a difference in animals of the same species. Organisms accustomed to much moisture do not resist extreme dryness as well as those accustomed to a dry habitat. Forms that will revive after gradual drying die if dried suddenly, while, on the other hand, if we heat animals that have dried at a low temperature, they still retain their power to revive in the water if the temperature has not been too high or the tissues have not been chemically changed. The process must not be considered as a mere drying up which results directly from atmospheric conditions, but as something in the nature of the organism that causes it to undergo certain changes when it receives the stimulus of dryness or of cold, just as something in the nature of the leaf makes it turn red when frost comes, although no amount of freezing would make a dead leaf redden.

THE WINTER REST OF PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

Adaptations to these conditions are also found among the more highly organized plants and animals, the most interesting, perhaps, among the insects. Here, as among plants, there are annual forms whose species are perpetuated through the winter only by means of eggs, and other perennial insects that pass the winter, either in the form of larvæ or as adult insects, in a more or less deep sleep.

There are numerous examples to show that the phenomena of winter rest are very general in the two organic series, and that there are all stages between the ones that are active throughout the year and those that spend the winter in a condition resembling death.

Many reptiles, batrachians, and fish have a winter sleep. Perhaps the most remarkable adaptation is that of the lung fishes of Egypt, Africa, and Australia, which are supplied with both lungs and gills and consequently are prepared for almost any emergency. They breathe by

their gills during the wet season, and when the streams dry up they roll themselves in the mud and breathe with their lungs until the season changes. There is a similar amphibian form in the plant kingdom called *Polygonum amphibium.*

It must be remembered that the physical and chemical processes upon which life depends are never wholly interrupted. In all life processes there is during the day a period of relative rest called sleep. In plants the process of assimilation, among other things, stops at this time, and in animals many functions are stopped, but a series of activities, such as breathing, etc., continues. In addition there is the annual discontinuance of growth in the plant kingdom. In the tropics growth on the whole is usually uninterrupted, but in cold climates vegetation is at a standstill through the winter, while the new growth of buds and leaves in spring may be considered as the reviving of the individual.

Life depends on the molecular activity of protoplasm, and, as in all life processes, these activities may be retarded and chemical changes diminished without being entirely suspended.

The necessity for protection against cold and dryness are the two fundamental causes of this false death. The writer suggests that the reason some organisms can revive after apparent death, while others cannot, is that in the reviving forms a sufficient amount of water is held tenaciously by the protoplasm to enable it to live actively again, but the other forms are easily deprived of the aqueous constituent of their protoplasm and death results.

INSIDE THE BOER LINES.

IN the course of a very readable article, in the May *Harper's*, under the above title Mr. E. E. Easton describes the scenes in the Transvaal, and especially at Pretoria, after the declaration of war, and gives an illuminating glimpse of President Krüger. Mr. Easton interviewed Dr. F. W. Reitz, the secretary of state of the Transvaal, in his office.

DR. REITZ, THE TRANSVAAL SECRETARY OF STATE.

"The office was as complete in its appointments as modern inventions—typewriters, desk-telephones, messenger-bells, broad mahogany tables, paintings, comfortable chairs, maps and books—can make one. Secretary Reitz's face is in many respects similar to that of ex-President Harrison in America. His grandfather was an officer in the Dutch navy, and took part in the battle between the Dutch and the English fleets at Dogger-Bank during the latter part of the last century. Dr. Reitz was born in Cape Colony, where his father was a farmer and represented his district in the Colonial Parliament. He graduated from the South African College at Cape Town, and afterwards spent four years in England studying law." Mr. Easton was much impressed with the evidence of Dr. Reitz's diplomatic ability, and evidently considers that Mr. Chamberlain has no mean opponent. Mr. Easton gives this dramatic picture of what was doubtless no unusual scene in the Transvaal. The young man referred to was Mr. Grobler, under secretary for foreign affairs.

AN EXAMPLE OF THE WAR SPIRIT.

"After a courteous greeting, Dr. Reitz sat down in his big leather office-chair and began to pour humorous questions into me as to my experiences in getting into the 'Boer' capital, and my impressions of the times and the people.

"While we were talking, I could see through an open door into an anteroom, where a tall, rugged-looking young man was pacing the floor with his hands clinched. Finally he came into the state secretary's room, and after excusing the interruption, drew up a chair near the secretary, and began talking earnestly in a low voice. The older man shook his head firmly to the energetic arguments.

"'The President does not see it in a proper light,' the younger man insisted, raising his voice to a louder pitch. 'If you will tell him that there is nothing pressing in the department now, he will consent.'

"'But I agree with the President that we cannot afford to lose you now. If you go, I will be about the only one left in the whole building,' said the secretary; and then he mentioned a long list of names to confirm his argument.

"'But don't you see that I am of no earthly use to-day?' the younger man insisted. 'I can't eat. It will be a decisive fight to determine if we can operate on the offensive for some time, or whether the whole war is to be dragged out on the defensive. The President has given Smuts permission to go, and there is no reason why I should stay. I will promise to be back as soon as this rub is over and clean up the work on my desk.' He was flushed, and got up and paced the floor, totally oblivious of the presence of a third party.

"The old secretary's face was a study of mingled emotions. There was deep silence for several seconds, during which a clock under a painting which hung on the wall, showing the Boers 'Fighting at Doornkop' during the Jameson raid, ticked solemnly.

"'All right, Piet, go. God help us! The old President may be angry at first, but I will explain it to him. He was young once and can understand it.'"

KRÜGER IN WAR COUNCIL.

I was looking at the cable message, which was dated the same night on which President Krüger had issued his ultimatum, when a large door on the opposite side of the room opened, and a clerk informed the secretary that he was wanted in the executive council room. While he was collecting a number of papers on his desk I could hear the conversation of men in the adjoining room. Suddenly there was a deep roar —almost like that of a lion—and at the same time a bang on a table that made the windows rattle. And the voice—it was that of a man—continued its deep bellowing, and again there was a thundering bang on the table.

"'The old President has met with some obstacle in his plans,' said the secretary of state, smiling at my look of surprise at the sound of such a human voice, and he disappeared with an arm-load of papers.

"While he was gone I looked about the room, and there were several rows of official reports of the United States Government on the shelves. There were some on agriculture, some on mining, some on commerce, and a number of volumes issued by the State Department.

"When the secretary returned, he was chuckling to himself:

"'General Cronje wants to assault Mafeking,' he said. 'He has wired that he can take the town in a hand-to-hand fight, but the old President won't listen to it. He says that the place is not worth the lives of fifty burghers, and has just issued an order that Cronje is to continue the siege and simply see to it that Colonel Baden-Powell and his troops do not escape. The Council was divided; some thought that Cronje should be permitted to storm the place. The President has just ordered that one of the big siege-guns shall be sent to Cronje.'

"Presently the big door opened and a couple of tall, serious-looking men came out, talking together. It was just about four o'clock. 'The old President will be leaving now,' Dr. Reitz said to me; 'would you like to see him before he goes?' We started into an adjoining room. I had just reached the door when Dr. Reitz was stopped by one of the men who had come out, and they began discussing something.

"For full two minutes I stood there looking at the man whom the historians of the world may some day class as among the few men whose names signify decades of history that have changed the political trend of the world. Although that may not be true, he was the man whose name was attracting more attention throughout the whole world at the time than that of any other individual. He was sitting in a big chair at the corner of the table. I could only see his back and profile; his massive shoulders were stooped, and his head was bent forward on his breast. He was wearing a pair of blue goggles with close-fitting screens to protect his eyes from dust. His iron-gray hair was combed directly back from his forehead over his head to his collar. On the big table on which the President's hand was resting was a map of South Africa on a large scale, with every detail of the topography of the country noted. The light from one of the tall windows was reflected in the polished surface of the huge map. Numerous tiny flags were stuck about the map with black-headed pins. These flags were of different sizes, apparently to denote the comparative number of troops at a given point. The clerk was detailing some information to the old President, who was listening intently, his features contracted, giving a wonderful expression of the man's determination, and the deep, rough lines that furrowed his face brought out in striking prominence his massive features. Once seen, his face could never be forgotten. I have never seen any other like it in pictures or among living men. That face is a prototype of 'Oom Paul' Krüger's character. From what I saw, and from what I have heard from men who have known him nearly all his life, there is no counterpart of his character in the world. One might consume many chapters of a large volume in attempting to analyze that face and the man, and when finished it would be full of striking contrasts, of descriptions of deep springs of originality, of marvelous characteristics, all supported by interesting anecdotes to explain peculiarities; but one would have to write a conclusion admitting that an analytical portrait of the man could only be written years after he has been buried, and South Africa's political history subsequent to the present struggle gives one a basis from which to judge the qualities of Paul Krüger's character.

"He suddenly raised his head, spat fiercely into a big cuspidor, and issued an order in a voice which seemed literally to rumble from his massive chest, seized his silk hat and cane, and started for the door opening out into the corridor. A number of men in the other part of the room called out 'good-night' to him in what were undeniably tones of affection. I followed him out through the corridor. Six troopers marched either side of him with drawn sabers, and as the burghers who happened to be in the rotunda said 'good-night,' he tipped his hat to them individually, and hastened into his carriage with remarkable agility for a man of his years and career."

A PLEA FOR TREES AND PARKS IN CITIES.

IN the *Forum* for May, Mr. Louis Windmüller makes a convincing argument for city parks and shade-trees. He shows that in the area south of Fortieth Street, in New York City, where 1,100,000 of the city's population are housed, 13,750 people share one acre of park ground. Mr. Windmüller proposes to convert long strips of river front on each side of the northern portion of the city into public pleasure-grounds.

NEW YORK'S LACK OF TREES.

Regarding the absence of trees from the residential streets of New York, Mr. Windmüller says:

"Rich men who live here only during the winter appear to take very little interest in their fellow-citizens who are compelled to remain in town all summer. In some instances, indeed, the absence of trees in front of houses situated upon our park and river fronts seems to suggest a fear on the part of the owner that foliage might obscure architecture, apparently oblivious of the fact that the beauty of a dwelling is frequently enhanced thereby. As it is, few of our side-streets are embellished with vegetation; and even along the Boulevard—an avenue highly favored by nature—the trees are neglected. This is true also of Seventh Avenue above Central Park, St. Nicholas Avenue, and of all other thoroughfares not placed 'under' the jurisdiction of the Park Commissioners—a body which should be authorized to exercise control over every avenue upon which the preservation of the trees is desirable. Except in front of St. Luke's Hospital, Morningside Drive, which is the glory of Upper New York, is to-day barren of trees on its western side; while on the historic King's Bridge Road the few trees still remaining are sadly neglected. What must we think of a corporation that recently spent the enormous sum of $7,000,000 on the construction of the Harlem Speedway, without exercising sufficient foresight to provide that fine avenue with a row of shade-trees for the protection of riders and drivers and their horses?

CONDITIONS ELSEWHERE.

"How different are the conditions in other American cities! Boston has its Commonwealth Avenue and other fine parkways, which connect the old town with the suburbs. Buffalo boasts its Delaware Avenue, the ideal of an American boulevard, lined with comfortable homes, each surrounded by its garden. The residential portion of Euclid Avenue in Cleveland is equally beautiful, and even the founders of Chicago have shown their appreciation of verdure. When I visited that city, Michigan Avenue was lined with cottages surrounded by gardens, and presented a distinctively rural aspect. These cottages have now been superseded by substantial residences, hotels, and club-houses; and the avenue, which, forty years ago, was hardly open beyond Twelfth Street, the present site of the Illinois Central Railroad Depot, has been extended for miles. Yet such is its attractiveness to-day that it is everywhere referred to as a model of elegant municipal construction.

"But why go as far as Chicago? Have not our friends across the bridge their Ocean Parkway and other shady driveways? In the Borough of Brooklyn a person that injures a tree is brought to justice; in Manhattan, arboreal laws are not enforced. The maltreatment of a dog is punishable; while the destruction of the silver maple, which may live and shelter our progeny for five hundred years, is not regarded as a serious offense. The forestry laws of Germany prohibit a person from felling a tree on his own premises without the consent of the authorities. Indeed, so stringent are these laws that when permission is granted to take a tree from the Black Forest, the owner is required to plant two in its place."

IMPRESSIONS OF BUENOS AYRES.

PRINCE BALDASSARRE ODESCALCHI, Italian senator, continues, in *Nuova Antologia* for March 1, his "Journey in Argentina." The prince's writing, which is simple and unpretentious, leaves the impression that he is a fair-minded man, who travels in an amiable mood, desirous of pleasing and of being pleased. But he does not lay aside his critical judgment; he uses, however, a good deal of reserve in expressing it. Of course he was much impressed by the recent magnificence of Buenos Ayres—a strained, overdone, and often misplaced magnificence, the reader suspects, like that found in some great cities farther north.

THE SECOND LATIN CITY OF THE WORLD.

Buenos Ayres, the great Argentine metropolis, is on the right bank of the river Plata, which flows with such a boundless expanse of water that it is impossible to see the other bank. For a long time after the first Spanish colonists founded it (in 1535 and again in 1580), Buenos Ayres remained a small village. At the beginning of the nineteenth century it counted hardly 17,000 souls. But from that time its population increased very rapidly; in fact, fifty years afterwards it advanced to 200,000 inhabitants, and nine years later to 260,000. To-day its population, including the suburbs in its excise district,

amounts to about 800,000 inhabitants. The Argentines call it, with pride, the second Latin city; because, next to Paris, it has the largest population of this race.

BUILDINGS AND STREETS.

Buenos Ayres is spread over a vast area. Most of the houses, as in all South American cities, are of one story. The city is divided by wide, straight streets, which intersect as on a checkerboard. It is the new part of the city that has high buildings (not sky-scrapers) and "sumptuous palaces." Here Paris is the model for everything. Even the names of the public squares and avenues carry French suggestions; as, the "Avenue of the Twenty-fifth of May," Argentina's Independence Day.



STREET SCENE IN BUENOS AYRES.

Probably it is the cheapness of native horses that makes Buenos Ayres cling to horse railroads, which cross everywhere, and "in every sense. The conductors scatter the crowds by the sound of a cornet; not with a single note, as in Europe, but by a little *fanfara*. As these tram-lines belong to different companies, every company, in order to distinguish its own line from the others, makes its conductors execute its own different *fanfara*."

THE SEMI-CENTENNIAL OF HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

MR. HENRY MILLS ALDEN gives in the May *Harper's* a sketch of the fifty years' life of that magazine over which he has presided for more than a generation with such dignity and good sense, such rare sympathy and literary insight, that no one will be inclined to dispute his place as the dean of magazine editors.

Mr. Alden calls to mind, by way of opening his history, that there is no man living who can remember the first beginnings of the house of Harper. "Only those who have reached threescore and ten years could have read at its issue the first book published by James and John Harper,—the eldest two of the four brothers; and these two had been printers many years before they became publishers, and before St. George's had become Franklin Square. James, the first to take up the trade, passed through a regular apprenticeship, and before he undertook business on his own account was considered the most efficient pressman in New York."

HOW THE MAGAZINE MADE ITS WAY.

Harper's Magazine was begun in the middle of 1850, and after six months' trial of its chances with the public the magazine had a monthly circulation of more than 50,000 copies. At that time there was an average in each number of only about eight pictures, aside from fashion plates, for the art of illustration was in its infancy, and there were few artists in the field. Nor were there any great number of brilliant names on the roll of possible contributors. In New England Longfellow and Whittier had made their beginnings, Lowell was still only dimly recognized, Emerson was just being recognized, and Hawthorne was in seclusion. Cooper, Irving, and Bryant were the great names in the Middle States; while in the South, Timrod, Simms, Paul Hamilton Hayne, and John Esten Cooke were eminent. There were *Graham's* and the *Knickerbocker* as competing magazines, and *Putnam's* and the *Atlantic* were soon to enter the field.

Mr. Alden says that, unlike all other existing magazines, in 1850 *Harper's Magazine* had no definite plans determining and limiting its scope.

At first the Harpers published most largely English contributions in the magazine, because the best literature was to be found in the European periodicals.

The very first writer for *Harper's* distinguished for the use of his pencil was "Porte Crayon," the pen name of Mr. D. H. Strother, a Southerner who gave remarkably quaint descriptions of life in the mountains of Virginia, illustrated by himself. The magazine contained stories of Russian and Siberian travel, tales of mountain life in and beyond the Rockies, Jacob Abbott's articles on industrial wonders, Benson J. Lossing's chapters of American history, and J. S. C. Abbott's "Life of Napoleon Bonaparte," and of course fiction. Mr. Alden's first connection with the Harpers was in 1863, when he was engaged as writer in collaboration with Alfred H. Guernsey, afterwards editor of the magazine.

In the winter of that year Mr. Alden was asked to take the office management of *Harper's Weekly*, although he had no experience in editorial work. Mr. Fletcher Harper was the real conductor of

the journal; as Mr. Alden quaintly remarks, "It was said he carried it in his hat." "I selected stories for it and wrote the articles accompanying the pictures. In such training as I acquired in editorial management Mr. Harper was my teacher. He knew where to be bold and where to be cautious. I also assisted Mr. Guernsey on the *Magazine*.

THE HOUSE OF HARPER FORTY YEARS AGO.

"For nearly six years after my connection with the establishment the beautiful association of the four Harper brothers remained unbroken. They were not, but well they might have been, the model of Dickens' Cheeryble Brothers. They were known among themselves and their intimates by sobriquets whose origin was referred



Courtesy of Harper & Brothers.

HENRY MILLS ALDEN.

(Editor of *Harper's Magazine*.)

back to a time far antedating my acquaintance with them. James, who did the social honors of the house to visitors (himself defining his special business, in answer to an anxious inquirer, as that of 'attending to the bores'), and whose cheerful face was known to every employee of the establishment, was for obvious reasons known as 'the Mayor'; John, who managed the finances, was 'the Colonel'; Joseph Wesley, who was more immediately connected with the book-publishing department, conducting the correspondence with authors, was 'the Captain'; Fletcher, the youngest of the brothers, and a master in journalism, was 'the Major.' The lines of distinction above indicated in the various functions of business were not strictly drawn; there was always a fraternal blending and convergence of them. To 'the Colonel,' as long as he lived, the title-page of every book published by the house was submitted for his approval or revision. How indelible in my memory are the faces of these four men and their frankly disclosed characters! After the sudden death of the eldest by accident in 1869, the others soon followed, like the links of a broken chain—first, Joseph Wesley, in 1870; then John, in 1875; and last of all Fletcher, in 1877.

THE PERIOD OF MR. ALDEN'S EDITORSHIP.

"I undertook the editorial management of the magazine in 1869. Up to that time there had been no material change in its general conduct, and it had not been challenged to measure its strength against any serious competitor in its own field. It had been steadily advancing after its own type in the excellence of its literary contents and of its illustrations. As a popular magazine it could not properly attempt literary preeminence on the *Blackwood* plan—that would contradict its own peculiar genius and limit its usefulness. It continued to publish serially the best novels that were produced from year to year, but it could not have published Emerson's essays or Lowell's critical papers. It could and did welcome the best short stories of its time, from those of its earlier years by W. D. O'Connor, J. D. Whelpley, Fitz-James O'Brien, and Fitz-Hugh Ludlow, to the later efforts of Elizabeth Stuart Phelps and Harriet Prescott Spofford, just as it hospitably entertained poems by Aldrich and Howells, and popular articles of journalistic value by James Parton and Edwin P. Whipple.

"The Harper establishment has been from the beginning a great workshop. The atmosphere of the place did not suggest any special æsthetic refinement. There was a corps of engravers who worked on a salary, meeting all requirements for the illustration of the books and periodicals of the house. Often in the engravings for the *Weekly*, and sometimes in those for the *Magazine*, different engravers would work on different portions of the same block. But the utmost possible attention was given to securing the most excellent workmanship."

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN *Harper's Magazine* for May, we have selected the article by its editor entitled "Fifty Years of Harper's Magazine," and that by E. E. Easton, "Inside the Boer Lines," to review at greater length in another department. Captain A. T. Mahan contributes a third and concluding chapter of his work entitled "The Problem of Asia." He says that in the Pacific the interests of the United States, though not identical with those of Germany and of Great Britain, are very similar. He thinks that while the three nations will be competitors, there is no reason at all why they should be antagonists. "For this reason our sympathies should go to the others in whatsoever, by facilitating their influence, tends to the furtherance of the common policy." In Mr. Kipling's contribution, which he calls "From a Winter Note-book," he has instilled a great deal of poetry through his descriptions of the climate and the seasons in his Vermont home. The notes are illustrated with marvelous beauty by the photographs of Mr. A. R. Dugmore, who visited Brattleboro, and remained there to see the things that are described in Kipling's article, and pictured them with his camera. Mr. Henry Strachey has a discerning study of "The Art of E. A. Abbey," and the balance of the magazine is occupied with fiction and verse, among which is specially noticeable Mr. Howells' "Father and Mother: a Mystery," in the style of Maeterlinck.

THE CENTURY.

THE May *Century* opens with Mr. Ernest Seton-Thompson's concluding article on the animals of "The National Zoo at Washington." Mr. Thompson gives in the course of this study his own opinion in the discussion as to the origin of the dog. Scientists have narrowed down the dog's ancestor to either the wolf or the jackal. Mr. Thompson gives his opinion that it is the jackal, with perhaps a strain of wolf blood infused, in some countries. He points out that when the dogs are in such circumstances as to show their reversion to their ancestral traits, all of these traits point to the jackal. "All the largest breeds of dogs show signs of over-development, such as faulty teeth, superfluous toes, frail constitutions, etc. All dogs that have any white about them have at least a few white hairs in the tip of the tail, and when allowed to mongrelize freely,—that is, to revert,—the dog always becomes a small, yellowish animal, with brown bees over his eyes, a white tail-tip, and a height at the shoulder of about twenty inches; that is, it resumes the jackal type."

MR. CARNEGIE ON TRUSTS.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie, writing on "Popular Illusions About Trusts," denies that there is any danger of the huge combinations of capital stamping out competition. The people aim their enmity of trusts at the fancied monopolies which they lead to. Mr. Carnegie admits that the manufacturer of a patented article can maintain a monopoly; but he says that there are only two conditions, other than patents, which render it possible to maintain a monopoly. These are when the parties absolutely control the raw material out of which the article is produced, or control territory into which rivals can enter only with extreme difficulty. These are the circumstances which have brought into existence the tremendous and unique organization known as the Standard Oil Company. Mr. Carnegie points out that it might fairly be assumed that it will be impossible for any future organizer to find conditions such as favored Mr. John D. Rockefeller in his gigantic work.

AN ALL-AMERICAN ROUTE TO THE KLONDIKE.

Mr. Edward Gillette, chief engineer of the exploring expedition sent out by the War Department to the Klondike, gives a brief sketch of the proposed all-American route to the Klondike region. This route is by water to Valdez, in Prince William Sound, thence along the Copper River, across the Tanana River to Eagle, almost on the boundary-line between Canada and Alaska, and about half way between Circle and Dawson City. Mr. Gillette thinks that if Alaska amounts to much in the future as a permanent gold-producer, this route by way of Prince William Sound and across the country to the Yukon River will probably command the larger part of the traffic, and will furnish supplies at the minimum price. Moreover, the United States will not have to make concessions on her coast-line for the privilege of opening up Central Alaska through a foreign country.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the May *Scribner's*, Mr. H. J. Whigham takes advantage of the intermediate stage in the South African war which came when Buller and Methuen were waiting for Lord Roberts to come to their assistance. to review the work done by the British troops, and especially the supply departments of the British army, in the light of the many criticisms made by the London papers. Mr. Whigham thinks it entirely erroneous to conclude from the Boer war that the efficiency of foot soldiers is a thing of the past. While he sees the necessity of mounted infantry in Africa, he finds nothing to support the views of those military critics who consider the infantrymen fifty years behind the time. Nor do Mr. Whigham's observations bear out the often-heard statement that the Boer artillery is better than the British. The Boers had some siege guns heavier than any guns that the British had, but on the other hand the British have not as yet had to use any siege guns, and probably will not have to until they get before Pretoria. He thinks the twelve and fifteen pounder field-guns of the British army very effective weapons; and he sees no particular advantage in the longer range of the Boer guns, inasmuch as the British artillerymen always push up to within 1,200 yards of the enemy's trenches if possible. Mr. Whigham's most trenchant criticisms of British methods in South Africa are concerned with the slow progress in marching made by Methuen and Buller. He anticipates a revolution in this respect to come with Lord Kitchener's reorganization of the transport.

CRIPPLE CREEK GOLD.

Mr. Francis Lynde, writing on the Cripple Creek gold region, estimates that there is an actual investment of about $25,000,000 in this wonderful region, the capitaliza-

tion being nearer $200,000,000, and that the return from this amounts to $82,000 a day, or $2,500,000 a month. The stock companies running mines in the Cripple Creek district generally start to work as soon as a sufficient amount of stock is sold to provide a working fund. This is probably only one-tenth of the chartered capitalization. In such cases the sale of treasury or company stock is usually discontinued after the working fund is provided, and the sales recorded from day to day are merely transfers from hand to hand of the original issue of shares. Thus in a mine capitalized for $5,000,000, the actual sum invested may probably be less than $500,000. Yet in many cases the mine pays 10 per cent. per month on the inflated capitalization.

NEW YORK RAPID TRANSIT.

Mr. William Barclay Parsons, the chief engineer of the Rapid Transit Commission of New York City, contributes a valuable article on "Rapid Transit in New York," in which he explains in detail what the new tunnel will be and do. When the underground rapid transit system is finally completed, Mr. Parsons thinks its effect will be revolutionary, and that a new era in urban transportation will be begun. The new subway will not be in any sense the final achievement of the Rapid Transit Commission. Betterments, additions, extensions, and even parallel lines will be added in the future. The gauge is to be standard, so that a physical connection can be made at the Grand Central Station, permitting the suburban trains of three railways now terminating there to continue eventually to Brooklyn.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

IN the May *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. John R. Spears gives a useful word to the novice in sea-travel, in his talk on the proper accompaniments of a voyage to Europe. He thinks the paramount consideration in the choice of ships is one's taste as to cooking and food. "You are sure to be seasick, but also equally sure to recover before the end of even a six days' voyage." Then the question will be whether you like German, French, English, or American cooking and service. Mr. Spears says that old travelers who have got the thing down to a fine point even select a particular ship on their favorite line, and will travel by no other if they can help it. He repeats the advice heard from every experienced traveler to take the very least amount of baggage that one can get along with. The European railways only allow free transfer for fifty pounds, and the cost for extra weight is enormous. It is very necessary to take warm clothing for the voyage, as the chances are always in favor of cold and stormy weather on the Atlantic. In former years a steamer-chair was essential to the comfort of the cabin passenger, and voyagers bought them at a cost of from $2.50 to $5.00. But now the well-equipped steamers all carry chairs to rent at 50 cents for the voyage.

AMERICAN ARTISTS IN PARIS.

Mr. Vance Thompson tells of the American artists now in Paris and their work, and especially Miss Elizabeth C. Nourse. A photograph of Miss Nourse's strong and beautiful face is reproduced in the magazine. Mr. Thompson says that no American woman stands so high in Paris to-day in art circles as Miss Nourse. Indeed, she is considered the one woman painter of our country. Miss Nourse was one of the body of rebellious artists, including Meissonier and Dagnan-Bouveret, that broke away from the salon and founded the new salon of the Champ-de-Mars. Mr. Thomas Hardy contributes a short story to the *Cosmopolitan*, and Mr. Edgar Saltus writes on famous pirates and sea-captains in his article "Kings of the Highways and the High Seas."

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

FROM the May *McClure's* we have selected Mr. Earl Mayo's account of the steamship *Oceanic*, and Mr. Ray Stannard Baker's statistical essay on "The New Prosperity," to review among the "Leading Articles of the Month." There is an exceptionally good account of "General Lawton's Work in the Philippines," by Prof. Dean C. Worcester, member of the United States Philippines Commission, 1898-99. The article is illustrated with some charming pictures of General Lawton and of his children. In showing the character of General Lawton's work, Professor Worcester says that, after the victory at Bacoor, the chief magistrate of the city of Imus came to him to announce the voluntary surrender of the town, and invite the Americans to garrison it, which was done.

CONDITIONS IN THE PHILIPPINES.

"General Lawton's attention was immediately turned to bettering the condition of the inhabitants who remained in the captured cities. They had been plundered of their belongings by their own troops, and were in a pitiable condition from lack of food. At Lawton's request, they were supplied with meat and rice from Manila, until again able to provide for themselves. As a result of this kind and humane course, those who had fled soon began to return to their homes.

"At this time I made a tour of inspection through Parañaque, Las Piñas, Bacoor, and Imus, with a view to ascertaining the feeling of the natives toward us and their needs in general. I found everywhere the heartiest appreciation of the kindly treatment which they had received, and a willingness to coöperate with us against what they were learning to consider a common enemy; but without organization they were helpless to act, and there was a universal and strong desire for the establishment of some form of municipal government."

THE COMING ECLIPSE OF THE SUN.

The famous astronomer, Prof. Simon Newcomb, of Johns Hopkins University, tells of "The Coming Total Eclipse of the Sun," what astronomers hope to learn from this eclipse, and what they have learned from previous eclipses. There will be a total eclipse of the sun on the 28th of May for observers along a certain line in the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, Georgia, and the Carolinas.

"To see it to the best advantage, one should be in an elevated position commanding the largest possible view of the surrounding country, especially in the direction from which the shadow of the moon is to come. The first indication of anything unusual is to be seen, not on the earth or in the air, but on the disk of the sun. At the predicted moment, a little notch will be seen to form somewhere on the western edge of the sun's outline. It increases minute by minute, gradually eating away as it were the visible sun. No wonder that imperfectly civilized people, when they saw the great luminary thus diminishing in size, fancied that a dragon was devouring its substance."

THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

THE May *Ladies' Home Journal* contains a brief *résumé* by the popular statistician, Mr. George B. Waldron, on "The Marvels We Have Wrought in One Hundred Years." Among the score of wonders attributable to the American people, Mr. Waldron selects the building of the railroad, begun by the Baltimore and Ohio in 1830; the first steamboat—Robert Fulton's, in 1807; Morse's invention of the telegraph in 1844; the introduction of kerosene and gas and matches; cooking-stoves, machine-spun cloth, cast-iron plows, and Chicago. There was no Western city a hundred years ago. The Americans have made themselves in this century the richest nation on the globe, the nation spending $550,000,000 a year, outside of war expenses and purchases of territory. We have increased our post-offices from 903 a hundred years ago to 75,000 to-day. We have made it possible to go from New York to Philadelphia in two hours, whereas in 1800 the swiftest stage took two days. Even in 1847 it took Dr. Atkinson eight months to go from New England to Oregon; to-day one can go in four days. Mr. Waldron may well ask: "What will the people of a hundred years hence think of how we lived in 1900?"

THE AMERICAN GIRL OF TO-DAY.

A writer in the *Home Journal*, on "What the American Girl Has Lost," the writer signing herself "An American Mother," says that the modern girl has lost the strength of repose, and that in her headlong, brawling life she has lost force, and that because of this incessant struggle to keep up in social engagements the New Girl has lost her health, notwithstanding the enormous advantages over her grandmother in physical training. "An American Mother" does not mince things, but boldly says that our New Girl lives in the blaze of vulgar publicity; she cannot go to a friend's house, or ask another girl to visit her in her home, without publishing the fact in the newspapers. This writer does not approve of the books read by girls to-day, which familiarize them with a class of prurient subjects formerly left to the knowledge of men. Along with these misfortunes the American girl has lost the art of making a home. The home incidents are now purchased ready-made, and the frenzied young housekeeper tries servants of every nationality in her home until in despair she gives up home and seeks refuge in a hotel. This pessimistic writer is not so pessimistic in her conclusions, for she thinks that the girl of the present will not be the lasting type of American woman. "The women of Queen Elizabeth's day were more coarse and bold in their thought and language than are our New Girls, yet those women have been succeeded by the most modest flowering of English womanhood. There is a protected class of girls in every rank of life brought up according to the old, fine, true traditions. They perhaps will convince us all presently that these traditions, though old, are fine and true."

AT WHAT AGE SHOULD MEN MARRY?

The Editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal* inveighs against early marriages, especially against the marriages of very young men. He puts it flatly that no man under twenty-five years of age is in any sense competent to take unto himself a wife. It is a far lesser evil, he thinks, for a girl to marry under twenty than for a man to marry before he is twenty-five.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

THE May *Munsey's* opens with an excellent article by Arthur Henry, on "The New Spirit of Education." Mr. Henry describes the new primary education at the John McLaren School, the Horace Greeley School, the Walter Scott School, the Normal Training-School, the Brown School in Chicago, and in other institutions in Washington and Chicago, which have dismissed the Gradgrind theory for the modern method based on the kindergarten system. The illustrations in the article show manual-training classes, young girls learning to cook, small children in the fields gathering flowers and studying botany at first hand, youngsters of eight or nine taking a practical lesson in marketing, and children slightly older in their sewing-classes, and classes in other studies under the new system by which children examine stuffed and live birds and animals, by which the teacher points out from the object itself what she desires to have her young pupils learn. The Washington schools have been pioneers in this new education. Classes of the public-school children there may be seen wandering in the woods and fields, going through the Smithsonian, the park, into the Capitol to see Congress in session, visiting factories, the market, and the zoölogical garden. The new spirit of primary education places great emphasis on physical training and manual training. It has abolished corporal punishment, and in many schools examinations have been done away with, too, while in others they are relied on to a very much smaller extent. In many schools there is no such thing as waiting from year to year for promotion to higher classes; the students are sent ahead to a higher grade at any time that they are prepared.

SOUTH AFRICAN POSSIBILITIES.

Col. H. G. Prout writes on "The Future of South Africa," and reviews the racial, political, and economic conditions now molding South Africa's future, with a forecast of the country's probable development. Colonel Prout writes from the point of view possessed by an English imperialist of the day, in that he considers the war an absolute necessity in the march of civilization and in the displacement of the lower civilization by a higher. He assumes that it is certain the two states will never exist after the war as independent nations. He expects to see the states made into colonies, electing their legislatures, but with the heads of the government and the commanders of the troops appointed by the crown. He thinks possibly the Transvaal, however, will be made for the present a crown colony. Colonel Prout is not one of those who looks for a quick development of the vast land between the Cape and the Zambesi. He says there is little of the whole area that can comfortably support a dense population. "Coal is not very abundant, timber is scarce and poor, the water-powers are not important or reliable, immense areas are quite unsuited to agriculture, and still other immense areas are infested with malarial fevers of a grave form."

NEW MILITARY DEVICES.

In an article on "Modern Engines of War," Lieut. C. de W. Wilcox, of the United States Army, tells of the newest devices of mechanical and electrical skill that aid the military commander to-day in his field operations. The most important military devices owed to modern science, judged by practical results of the last two wars, are smokeless powder, the field-telephone, the electric search-light, the military bicycle, Maxim

guns on tricycle carriages with a cyclist detachment in charge, steam trenching-plows, armored railway trains, military traction engines for bringing army supplies, the heliograph, and of course the new and more deadly styles of field artillery and small arms. All of these elaborate devices have, however, judged by the results, operated to save life rather than to destroy it, since the engagements are at so much greater distance that the more deadly firearms are more than counterbalanced, and the sum total of casualties in the future will be less than in past wars.

THE NEW ENGLAND MAGAZINE.

IN the *New England Magazine* for May, Mr. Emerson O. Stevens prints a very full account of "The National Soldiers' Home." Last year the United States Government in the various branches of the "National Home for Disabled Volunteers" took care of an army of 26,705 men, clothed them, fed them, and sheltered them. A single branch of the National Soldiers' Home amounts to a city of some 6,000 inhabitants, with miles of shady streets, with a post-office, theater, club, hotel, court of justice, bank, libraries, reading-rooms, cemetery, stores, water-works, fire department, churches, and hospitals of its own. Each citizen of the community receives free his board, clothes, and lodging, together with care when sick. More than five-sixths receive in addition allowances of from $6 to $72 a month, paid in gold. The only work that must be done is to make their beds and to pare potatoes once in nine weeks. There are seven branches altogether: the Eastern branch, at Togus, Me.; the Central, at Dayton, Ohio; the Northwestern, near Milwaukee; the Southern, near Hampton, Va.; the Western, at Leavenworth, Kan.; the Pacific, at Santa Monica; and the Marion, at Marion, Ind. These seven branches in the aggregate occupy between four and five thousand acres of ground, and the land and buildings together have cost over $5,000,000. The Government spends about $3,000,000 annually in maintaining them. Mr. George Willis Cooke, in his very thorough account of "Unitarianism in America," shows that the Unitarian body is more notable for its men and women than for its institutions or for its sectarian achievements. Its spirit has distinctly fostered individuality and tended to produce intellectual and spiritual independence. Unitarianism is not growing rapidly, but it is growing as rapidly, or more so, than ever before in the history of the body.

THE SMALL HOSPITAL.

Mr. George W. Shinn describes "The Founding of Small Hospitals" in the United States, such as the pioneer Newton Hospital, Newton, Mass., begun some twenty years ago. Now there are great numbers of hospitals in spite of the objections that were persistently urged against them by both the rich and the poor: the rich on the ground that they did not need them, and would rather be taken care of in sickness in their own homes, and the poor because they considered the hospital as a place where people were sent to die. Then, too, at first it was thought that to have a hospital one must have very large and costly buildings and a staff of resident physicians. But America within the past thirty years has come to adopt the cottage-hospital system of England, which has finally become very popular. Under this system small buildings are fitted up with from five or ten to twenty-five beds.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN the May *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. George F. Parker contributes the second part of his essay on "The Consular Service of the United States." He makes extended recommendations for a complete change in our service, embracing the entire scheme of reclassification and reorganization, and the filling of the new grades with efficient men of middle age, without civil-service examinations; the limit of tenure of office to one year, and then promoted officials to remain six years; the payment of salaries running from $10,000 a year for consul-generals of the first class, down to $3,000; the installation of an assistant secretary, who should devote his time and talents to the consular service; the revision of official fees, and the immediate appointment of a commission to report upon existing conditions as a preliminary educative measure. Prof. Hugo Münsterberg, the psychologist, in an essay on "School Reform," gives his own experience as a German schoolboy, and assures his readers that his parents succeeded in making him and his companions respect their school without the need of mothers' clubs and committees and discussions in the abstract about what children need. His home atmosphere, he says, was filled with belief in the duties of school-life, and the children felt that the home and the school were working in alliance. Mr. Eliot Gregory writes under the title "A Nation in a Hurry." He thinks that considering how extravagant Americans are in most ways, it is curious that they should be so economical of time. He calls the attempt to do a lot in a little time "a curious curse which has fallen upon our people." He says the real joy of an up-to-date business man is when he can do two things at once. The passengers in a parlor-car cannot wait until the train stops to get out. Rapidity in business transactions is appreciated more than correctness of detail.

"A broker to-day will take greater credit for having received and executed an order for Chicago, and returned an answer within six minutes, than for any amount of careful work. The order may have been ill executed and the details mixed, but celerity is the point dwelt upon.

"The young man who expects to succeed in business must be a hustler, have a snapshot style in conversation, patronize rapid-transit vehicles, understand shorthand, and eat at 'Breathless Breakfasts.' ('Quick Lunch' is, I believe, the correct title.) Having been taken, recently, to one of these establishments to absorb buckwheat cakes (and very good they were), I studied the ways of our modern time-saving young man."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE opening article in the *North American* for April is a contribution, from M. Zola's pen, on the subject of war. M. Zola describes the present crisis as "war's death-cry"—"war killing war"—the result of extravagant preparations made by nations in the very hope that they may never again have to fight.

PUERTO RICO AND THE PHILIPPINES.

In an article on "The United States and Puerto Rico," Senator Foraker presses the analogy between Puerto Rico's status and that of the Philippines in respect to the Constitution of the United States. He deems it fortunate, on this account, that the questions that have arisen in connection with the Puerto Rican

tariff have been debated in Congress with such thoroughness, as sooner or later the same issues must be faced in the Philippines.

SHOULD WE SYMPATHIZE WITH REPUBLICS?

Mr. Thomas G. Shearman writes on "Mistaken Sympathy with Republics," having reference, of course, to the republics in South Africa now at war with England, but including in the scope of his argument all other existing republics in the world, and drawing illustrations from such widely separated governments as Venezuela and France. Mr. Shearman sums up his paper in the concluding statement that "there is not a republic on earth, except Switzerland and our own United States, in which there is even an approximation to the honesty of administration found in at least six European monarchies; nor anything like the combination of governmental honesty, judicial impartiality, equality of rights, personal liberty, and liberality toward Americans, which can be found in those monarchies and in all of the British colonies."

THE BRITISH WORKMAN AND THE WAR.

Mr. F. Maddison, M. P., explains why British workmen condemn the South African war. Aside from the general opposition to militarism, the workmen of England, while not pro-Boer in their sympathies, are unable to credit the alleged grievances of the Uitlanders. They believe that the gold-mines of the Transvaal were the source of all the trouble.

REASON AND RELIGIOUS BELIEF.

An article by the late St. George Mivart reviews his contention with the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church on the inspiration of the Scriptures and the doctrine of the infallibility of the Church; Prof. Frank Sargent Hoffman voices the demand of the hour for a scientific method in theology; and the Rev. Minot J. Savage, D.D., writes on the coming faith—the successor of the "orthodoxy" of to-day.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Assistant Commissioner-General Woodward gives a brief forecast of the Paris Exposition; Mrs. Joseph Chamberlain—an American woman, by the way—describes the work of the Colonial Nursing Association in the British colonies; Mr. George Moore outlines certain characteristics of English fiction; Mr. Robert P. Porter writes tersely on the recent rapid development of our trade with the countries of Europe; Gen. Count du Barail, formerly French Minister of War, makes an able defense of the Boers; Senator Mason, of Illinois, writes on the prevention of food adulteration by Federal law; and Prof. Charles Waldstein contributes a study of Ruskin.

THE FORUM.

ASSISTANT SECRETARY VANDERLIP, of the Treasury Department, contributes to the April *Forum* a study of the new financial bill—"the final act in the controversy over a double standard which has lasted during almost the whole history of our Government." Mr. Vanderlip, while enthusiastic over the passage of this measure, believing that thereby a solid foundation has been laid, is by no means confident the currency question is fully settled. Much remains to be done, in his opinion, to secure bank-note issues that will respond, in volume, to the commercial needs of the day.

RUSSIA'S DESIGNS IN PERSIA.

The Hon. Truxton Beale, formerly our minister to Persia, discusses Russian policy in that country. From his personal observation Mr. Beale states that, while the Russians' rule in Persia is in the main beneficial and humane, their commercial policy there is neither liberal nor enlightened. The official obstructions to trade are greater to-day, he says, than they were in England before the breakdown of the mercantile system.

THE HAY-PAUNCEFOTE TREATY.

Mr. James G. Whiteley, after analyzing both the Hay-Pauncefote and the Clayton-Bulwer treaties, argues that the former treaty is in accordance with the Monroe Doctrine; that it removes an old source of dispute; that it provides an international guarantee for the commerce of the world, and that it perpetuates the historic policy of the United States.

IMMEDIATE NAVAL NEEDS.

Capt. William Henry Jaques, U. S. N., sums up the pressing needs of our navy in the following table:

Object.	Time to Complete.	Cost.
Nicaragua Canal	5 years	$85,000,000
Waterway from lakes to ocean	4 years	50,000,000
Coaling-stations	Immediate	500,000
Torpedo-craft	2 years	13,000,000
Armament for auxiliary steamers	2 years	2,500,000
Reserve ammunition	1 year	5,000,000
10 subsidized steamers of the "Majestic" class	2 years	20,000,000
6 docks	1 year	6,000,000
2 training-ships	1 year	900,000
100,000 rifles (small arms)	1 year	2,000,000
10,000 seamen	Immediate	2,500,000
War College and Naval Intelligence Bureau	Immediate	500,000
Naval Reserve	Immediate	1,000,000

THE QUARANTINE OF TUBERCULOSIS.

Dr. William P. Munn specifies the following conditions as essential to a successful quarantine of any disease:

"First: The disease must always be readily identified early in the infective period.

"Second: The period of proposed isolation or quarantine must be reasonably definite and short, so that the individual or the community may properly provide for maintenance during that period.

"Third: To make the measure practicable, the number of persons to be isolated must be small when compared to the rest of the population."

Admitting these postulates, we can hardly question the validity of Dr. Munn's contention that a tuberculosis quarantine is at present impracticable in California or Colorado.

THE MINISTERIAL DEAD-LINE.

In a bright paper on "The Paradoxical Profession," Henry J. Barrymore (said to be the pen-name of a well-known writer) describes that unhappy period in the clergyman's life when a man "can neither stay in the ministry nor get out of it." The ministerial calling, according to this writer, is a mere butterfly existence. "A man has not served his apprenticeship in it until he has reached thirty or thirty-five, and his clerical life is snuffed out at forty-five or fifty." The churches want young preachers. This is one of the paradoxes.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The Hon. Albert J. Hopkins writes a defense of the Puerto Rican bill; Prof. W J McGee discusses "The Superstructure of Science"; Maj. T. W. Symons, of Governor Roosevelt's canal commission, treats of "Canals from the Great Lakes to the Sea"; the Hon. S. J. Barrows comments on "Some Things We May Learn from Europe"; M. Gaster tells "The Truth About Zionism"; the Rev. H. A. Stimson describes "The Need for Advanced Commercial Education"; and Prof. Brander Matthews writes on "Literature as a Profession."

THE ARENA.

THE programme of the April *Arena* is attractive and varied. There are two papers on American expansion, one by Senator Money on the constitutional questions involved, and one by J. M. Scanland on "American Development through Assimilation." The Hon. John E. Redmond, M.P., the Irish Nationalist leader, writes on the reunion of the Irish party. Mr. A. L. Mearkle discusses "The Passing of the Mormon." Papers on criminal sociology are contributed by Mr. E. W. MacDaniel and Mr. Amos Steckel.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF PROPERTY.

Dr. C. J. France, of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., writes on "Property: Its Psychology and Sociology." His statement of the modern view of property is interesting: "Property is of a threefold nature: (1) Property resulting from labor; (2) property resulting from intellect or mind, which is not strictly labor; (3) property resulting from neither mind nor labor. Property resulting from labor belongs by right to the laborer; that from brains to the man possessing or employing the same; that resulting from neither should be held by all in common." In this writer's opinion individual ownership has been the one great incentive to activity; the desire for private property has been the one great element in progress; property is the one great power, and in it are reflected the hopes and joys as well as the fears of mankind.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN *Gunton's* for April, Mr. Prescott F. Hall sets forth the present status of immigration restriction, advocating the immediate passage of the educational-test bill. Mr. Julius Moritzen, who last month described for the readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS the Pittsburg steel situation, reviews the great lockout in Denmark during the summer of 1899, in which more than 50,000 workers were shut out, and nearly every industry in the country was to a greater or less extent involved.

SWEATSHOPS IN NEW YORK.

The effects of the New York sweatshop law are described by Mr. Henry White, secretary of the United Garment-Workers of America. Mr. White says: "Deplorable as the conditions of labor are in the congested quarters of New York, the transition from the tenement to the factory building and the getting away from the place where the family is employed and where the working-day and child-labor cannot be regulated marks a great advance. Many tenements have been converted into factory buildings; and, although the latter are hardly worthy of the name, the change is wholesome and encouraging, and could be greatly accelerated by the factory inspectors. The improvement in the construction of houses and the greater activity of the health department have also contributed toward this result. If by example the value of factory legislation could be made apparent to the ordinary citizen, the State would surely respond by providing the inspectors with facilities commensurate with its importance."

THE CONSERVATIVE REVIEW.

THE opening article in the *Conservative Review* for March is a discussion of the Philippine question from the strictly legal point of view by the Hon. Felix Brannigan, whose paper is essentially an answer to the question, "What is the civil and political status of the native inhabitants of the Philippines and the other islands recently acquired by our Government from Spain, and of citizens of the United States there residing or engaged in trade?" Mr. Brannigan takes the ground that all such persons "have all the civil rights, privileges, and liabilities of citizens of the United States, irrespective of their race, color, or previous condition. They cannot be regarded as any 'white man's burden,' because they are not the 'subjects' of an imperial ruler; on the contrary, they form a part of the people of the United States, whose rights as such every man is bound to respect. Therefore all the discussions in the public press respecting a mode of government for these islands as 'dependencies' and the inauguration of 'imperialism' and 'colonial rule' are mere idle fancy and disquisitions upon the impossible—upon what is constitutionally impossible."

An interesting paper is contributed by Christabel Forsythe Fiske on "The Tales of Terror," including such novels as Horace Walpole's "The Castle of Otranto," stories of Anne Radcliffe, Charles Brockden Brown, and Regina Maria Roche, and many other representative works of fiction.

The Hon. John Goode contributes an account of the Virginia secession convention of 1861, of which he is one of the few surviving members. Paymaster-General Alfred E. Bates writes on "The Army—Its Staff and Its Supply Departments." The Rev. Charles Warren Currier writes from the Roman Catholic point of view on "The Church in Cuba," and Dr. James Curtis Ballagh, of the Johns Hopkins University, describes "The Social Condition of the Ante-Bellum Negro."

There are also literary papers on "Life and Literature in the Time of Arthur," by William H. Babcock and on James Barron Hope by Janey Hope Marr.

In our April number we quoted from the paper on "The Relations of Norway and Sweden," by Leonhard Stejneger.

THE NEW WORLD.

AN appreciative paper on the late Dr. James Martineau is contributed to the March number of the *New World* by the Rev. A. W. Jackson. Prof. Frank C. Porter, of the Yale Divinity School, writes on "The Ideals of Seminaries and the Needs of the Churches," his thesis being that the theological seminary should teach principles, not practice. In proportion as it becomes more truly scientific it will become more practical.

Mr. Gerald Stanley Lee, writing on "The Sex-Conscious School in Fiction," asks why "so many of us should spend so many more of our mortal hours on the

fictitious passions of paper people than we ever think of spending on our own, and why we should sigh for loves that never existed, or mourn for the death of lovers that never were born, all in the name of a passion that almost no one has."

The Rev. John White Chadwick writes on "John Donne, Poet and Preacher;" Mr. J. Warschauer on the Pauline theology; Prof. Henry S. Nash on "The Decline of the Stars;" the Rev. Francis Tiffany on "William Morris, Craftsman and Socialist;" and Miss Emilie Grace Briggs contributes a scholarly paper on "The Date of the Epistle of St. Paul to the Galatians."

SOME POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC REVIEWS.

THE YALE REVIEW.

THE current number of the *Yale Review* (February) opens with some vigorous editorial comment on the subject of our trade relations with Puerto Rico. Even admitting that the Republican party a generation ago went too far in trying to establish equality and universal suffrage in the South, the editor can see no reason why the reaction should carry it to the other extreme, or why it should no longer take any risks in the cause of liberty and self-government. "It would be a strange transformation for that party, preëminently in our history the party of human liberty, now to come forward under the standard of subjection for weaker peoples. In the event of such a change, this honored name would become a mere empty title like that of the Holy Roman Empire in the days of Voltaire. Our historians may safely vindicate the sincerity of the Tories, but is it not ominous when our politicians advocate their principles?"

A thoughtful paper on the "Influence of the Trust in the Development of Undertaking Genius" is contributed to this number by Prof. Sidney Sherwood, of the Johns Hopkins University. In Professor Sherwood's view it is the enlargement of the market that makes a higher type of trade organization a necessity. The trust is the American solution of this problem. The wider the market, the more economies can be effected by organization. It is upon this superiority in the capacity for organization that the future economic supremacy of America must probably rest. Protection is not the cause of trusts; it is at the most only an incidental aid to their early formation. Professor Sherwood believes that the destruction of the trusts would be "the death-blow to our hopes for industrial leadership in the international struggle for future mastery. They are the most effective agencies yet devised for preventing the wastes of competitive production."

The first in the series of papers by Mr. Clive Day on the "Experience of the Dutch with Tropical Labor" is devoted to the so-called culture system, the plan of which was as follows: "Instead of paying to the government a certain proportion of their crops, the natives were to put at its disposal a certain proportion of their land and labor-time. The revenue would then consist not in rice, which was almost universally cultivated and which was of comparatively little value to the government, but in export products grown under the direction of government contractors on the land set free by the remission of the former tax. According to the estimate, the natives would give up only one-fifth of their land and one-fifth of their time in place of two-fifths of their main crop. The government promised to bear the loss from failure of crops if this was not directly due to the fault of the cultivators, and moreover promised to pay the natives a certain price for such amounts as they furnished." While there was a net profit each year to the home government, it seems that the culture system failed in the long run and that the government actually lost on many crops for a number of years. Mr. Day states, further, that the greatest success of the system—namely, the coffee-culture—was profitable, not because of good management, but because of the change in the price of coffee in the world's markets.

Dr. Max West reviews recent Supreme Court decisions relating to the fourteenth amendment; Mr. William H. Allen writes on "Rural Sanitation in England;" and "Recent Works on Russian Economic Conditions" are reviewed by Mr. Vladimir Gr. Simkhovitch.

THE POLITICAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY.

In the March number of the *Political Science Quarterly* (Columbia University), Mr. Holland Thompson describes life in a Southern mill town. His study includes conditions in factory dwellings, the rural origin of the operatives, the motives for the migration from farm to mill, their church relations, their schools, their eating and drinking, their amusements, the case of the factory girl, and the employment of children in the mills.

Prof. Richmond Mayo-Smith contributes a paper on "Price Movements and Individual Welfare." Without asserting that a period of falling prices is desirable, he maintains that, on the whole, it is not so disastrous as has often been supposed. He declares that it imperils profit, rent, and interest, but to a less degree wages. He concludes, with Soetbeer, that "a continued and considerable fall in prices of commodities generally bears hard on men of business and on invested capital, and not on the workmen." The period of a decline in prices, he thinks, has a tendency to bring about a better distribution of wealth.

Prof. Emory R. Johnson writes on "The Principles of Governmental Regulation of Railways;" Mr. John A. Fairlie on "State Administration in New York;" Prof. W. W. Willoughby on "The Value of Political Philosophy;" and Mr. B. T. DeWitt on the question, "Are Our Legal-Tender Laws Ex Post Facto?"

ANNALS OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY.

In the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science for March, Mr. Robert H. Whitten, of the New York State Library, contributes an interesting *résumé* of "Political and Municipal Legislation in 1899."

Mr. James T. Young, of the University of Pennsylvania, having made a careful study of the administration of city schools, concludes that the school system of the city should be directed by a single official, advised by a single board, with limited powers, of not more than six men. The head of the department and the board should be chosen by the mayor. The powers of administration requiring technical or detailed knowledge and training should be transferred to professional officials. These powers should include the appointment of teachers, determination of text-books, apparatus, and the letting of contracts, appointment of janitors, etc. To keep the executive head informed at all times there should be a corps of trained supervisors or assistants

to the superintendent for the purpose of reporting upon the progress of instruction. Dr. L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania, discusses "The Financial Relation of the Department of Education to the City Government," giving exhibits of the educational finances of several of the larger American cities.

A careful survey by Mr. George H. Haynes of the methods by which representation of American communities in their State legislatures is secured seems to show that the legislatures differ widely in size and *personnel* and in the basis upon which they are elected. Although the Constitution sets forth the ideal of equal representation, there is no agreement as to what constitutes equality of representation.

Prof. Richard T. Ely's paper on "A Decade of Economic Theory" is a valuable sketch of the work of the past ten years by American economists. The opening article of the number is by Henry Jones Ford on the subject of "Political Evolution and Civil-Service Reform."

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF ECONOMICS.

The most important paper in the current (February) number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard University) is the first of a series of articles contributed by Prof. F. W. Taussig on "The Iron Industry in the United States."

Another paper of much concrete interest is that on "The New York Canals" by John A. Fairlie, who reviews the whole history of the canals from De Witt Clinton's day to our own, and makes an instructive presentation of the financial side of the canal problem in the Empire State. From his statement it appears that "the original construction of the Erie and Champlain canals cost $9,000,000, a sum equal to 3 per cent. of the assessed valuation of the State at the time the work was undertaken. By 1845 the total expenditure for canal construction and enlargement was $30,000,000, equal to 5 per cent. of the assessed valuation at that time. When the enlargement of the Erie Canal was completed in 1862 the total cost of construction and enlargement was $56,000,000, equal to 4 per cent. of the valuation of 1860. The State canal debt in 1860 was $27,000,000, the largest amount outstanding at one time; but in the decade 1840–50 the debt was much larger in proportion to valuation, reaching the highest percentage, 3.8 per cent., in 1844. The estimates for the improvements now recommended aggregate $62,000,000, which is 1.3 per cent. of the present valuation of the State." The entire amount of the improvements, assessed upon the canal counties, would not involve a large increase in the charge on them, since these counties contain 80 per cent. of the population of the State and 90 per cent. of the total valuation.

Prof. John Cummings writes on "Ethnic Factors and the Movement of Population," and Mr. Thorstein Veblen contributes his third paper on "The Preconceptions of Economic Science."

THE JOURNAL OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

The opening article in the March number of the *Journal of Political Economy* (University of Chicago) is an account of the Belgian General Savings and Old-Age Pension Bank, by Mr. William F. Willoughby. Mr. R. S. Padan writes on "Prices and Index Numbers," criticising the various methods applied by statisticians in dealing with the law of averages as applied to prices of commodities. Mr. George G. Tunell reviews the testimony given by Prof. Henry C. Adams before the joint congressional commission on postal affairs, relative to the question of "fair pay" for the transportation of mail. Mr. W. Colgrove Betts describes the work of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum. Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin pays a deserved tribute to the memory of Prof. Charles F. Dunbar, of the department of political economy in Harvard University, who died in his seventieth year, on January 29 last.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY.

In the March number of the *American Journal of Sociology*, one of the publications of the University of Chicago, Dr. Georg Simmel contributes an article on the philosophy of value. Mr. Antonio Llano discusses the Malthusian doctrine of population and wages. Although disclaiming the title of defender of Malthus, this writer frankly acknowledges his indebtedness to that philosopher, and in many points seems to accept his conclusions. Frances A. Kellor contributes the second of her series of papers on "Psychological and Environmental Study of Women Criminals." Prof. Edward Alsworth Ross writes on "Social Control;" Mr. Albion W. Small on "The Scope of Sociology," and Prof. John R. Commons on "A Sociological View of Sovereignty."

MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS.

The last number of *Municipal Affairs* (December, 1899) is chiefly devoted to various phases of municipal art. An introductory paper on this subject is contributed by Mr. Edwin H. Blashfield. Mr. George Kriehn contributes a paper on "The City Beautiful." A scheme for the erection of monuments in New York City is furnished by Mr. H. K. Bush-Brown, while the suggestions of the National Sculpture Society are embodied in an illustrated paper of some length. Mr. John De Witt Warner directs our attention to the bridge element of New York City architecture. The recent work of civic improvement in Edinburgh is described by Mr. Charles Mulford Robinson. Mr. James P. Haney offers practical suggestions as to the decoration of schools and school-rooms. Miss Beatrix Jones writes on city parks; Cornelius B. Mitchell on trees in city streets. Mr. Henry L. Parkhurst makes a plea for stained glass. There are also papers on public art in St. Louis, the Baltimore municipal art conference, municipal æsthetics from a legal standpoint, notes of progress in municipal improvement, and extensive bibliographical notes.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for April contains some good articles on British army reorganization; a noteworthy article by Mr. H. W. Wilson, on the "Deficiencies of Our Fleet"; and a very interesting sketch of the French army by Mr. Paul Bettelheim.

A DINNER-TABLE AUTOCRAT.

Mr. Herbert Paul has a paper on John Selden and his "Table Talk," in which he sums up Selden's character as follows:

"He was indeed a typical Church of England man, as far removed from Geneva as from Rome. He did not shrink from the free handling of sacred subjects, and there was an element of brutality in some of his sledge-hammer attacks on current superstition. But if he had been the scoffing sceptic that some in fear of his learning

dubbed him, so saintly a man as Sir Matthew Hale could not have called him a resolved, serious Christian. Coleridge complained of the lack of poetry in Selden, and this complaint is just. He was too much under the influence of reason, he had little or no imagination, and he underrated the force of sentiment, religious or otherwise. The ridiculous aspect of things struck him so forcibly that it sometimes blinded him to their graver significance. Every man has his limitations, and these were his. But those who know best what good talk is will be the readiest to admire the incomparable excellence of Selden's."

THE SCARCITY OF COAL IN ENGLAND.

Mr. Bennett H. Brough writes on "The Scarcity of Coal," which, he says, has nothing whatever to do with the demand for the South African transports, the chief causes being activity in the European iron and steel industries, and an increased Continental demand owing to strikes. England's output of coal is relatively decreasing at an alarming extent. In 1840 it was 75 per cent. of the world's supply; at present it is only 30 per cent Mr. Brough says:

"The production of coal in the British colonies and dependencies increases year by year, and there is no doubt that the colonies possess ample resources to meet all the demands for coal. Whatever may be the future of the coal resources of the mother-country, the extent of the colonial coalfields tends to support Lord Kelvin's view, that mankind is more likely to suffer in time from lack of oxygen than from lack of coal."

THE CASE OF DR. MIVART.

Mr. R. S. Dell, a "Liberal Catholic," has an article on "The Case of Dr. Mivart." He says there is no cause for wonder that a scientific man should be scandalized by the "Neo-Scholastics."

"No reasonable man will undertake scientific investigation if he is bound to arrive at conclusions already made for him by other people possibly ignorant of the subject; nor can we attach importance to the scientific work of a Jesuit, for instance, however well-informed he may be, if we know that he has a proposition of Liberatore in his pocket to which he is bound to fit the facts. The result of this system of substituting *a priori* assumptions for the investigation of facts is admirably illustrated as regards the domain of history, even by Fr. Richard Clarke's article. His assertion that the doctrine of the Church has never undergone and never can undergo modification (taken in its ordinary and natural sense) will not stand the test of facts. Any unprejudiced person that studied the history of dogma would come to an opposite conclusion. It is simply untrue, if we descend to details and their recognition, that 'what [the doctrine of the Church] was in the beginning, such it is now, and such it will ever be, while the world lasts;' and his assertions that our Lord taught His Apostles the doctrines of papal infallibility and the absolute sinlessness of Mary are sheer inventions, unsupported by a tittle of evidence. That such statements can be made by any Catholic fifty-five years after the publication of the 'Essay on Development,' shows that there are some among us who learn nothing and forget nothing."

CARMEN SYLVA'S POETRY.

"Carmen Sylva" as poet in English translation is represented both in the *North American* for March and in the current *Nineteenth Century*. The following are the concluding verses of her poem on "Westminster Abbey," excellently translated by Mr. Arthur Waugh:

"My heart, my heart is the Abbey high,
The Abbey wide, with its hidden nooks!
Where nothing can perish, where nothing can die;
Where Fame is inscribed in God's Doomsday Books!
Where the marble's warning is cold and gray.
For the souls that sleep are awake for aye!

"I cling to the pillars where once I bled,
For these are the pillars that bear my life;
They shiver for thought of the grief that is dead.
For they know where my heart broke down in the strife.
But the graves of the past open still to the strong,
And my dead shall live—in my burning song!"

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

IN the *Contemporary Review* for April, the Rev. J. M. Bacon has an article on "Fogs and their Teaching," in which he mentions some of the peculiarities of fogs, such as their relative impenetrability by electric light. The cost in gas alone of a single day's fog in London is not less than £7,000 or £8,000—35,000,000 cubic feet in excess being consumed in a single day. The only virtue which fogs seem to possess is to reduce the intensity of the cold at night. An analysis of the deposit left after a fog at Chelsea showed about forty per cent. of mineral matter to thirty-six per cent. of carbon, together with five per cent. of sulphurous and one and a half per cent. of hydrochloric acid. Town fogs are very dry, and sometimes contain no more than fifty per cent. of moisture.

WHIG IMPERIALISM.

Mr. Bolton King has an article on "Whig Imperialism," in which he has no difficulty in showing that the modern idea of a free Empire owed nothing to the Tories for its development. They had posed as the champions of imperial authority, and of the claims of Parliament to override the customs and liberties of the colonies. Very different was the imperialism of the Whigs who, during the War of Independence, stood stanchly by the Whigs of America, and "when war broke out, had no squeamishness about opposing the government. They were dealing with a thing that was wrong, and they thought it a plain duty to fight it; and they fought it with doubled energy, as the wild war-passion surged higher in the country, and the colonies became more and more hopelessly alienated. The first Liberal Imperialist thundered out to the Lords his defense of the Whigs and freemen of America, whom you call rebels, and scathed the mad Tory policy in words that still ring in our ears. In that miserable time, when they saw the Empire being shattered and were powerless to save it, Burke and Hartley and Pownall, and at a later date Fox and the younger Pitt, squandered their unanswerable arguments on the unlistening majority of country squires and King's friends and policemen in the Commons. Admiral Keppel and some of his officers refused to serve against the Americans; Chatham withdrew his eldest son from the army rather than let him take part in the war."

THE TEMPERANCE QUESTION.

Mr. Noel Buxton, writing on "Public Houses," discusses the Gothenburg System at some length. He thinks that the benefits to be obtained from a trial of the Scandinavian System makes it well worth a venture

At the best, valuable experience would have been gained, while at the worst, little disturbance would have taken place.

M. BLOCH ON THE WAR.

The number opens with an article by M. Jean de Bloch, in which he sets out the lessons of the Transvaal war. M. Bloch's opinion has already been so fully stated in preceding numbers of this REVIEW that it is not necessary to give any long notice of his article. The article, nevertheless, is a most interesting one, and sets forth with great skill his theory of the advantage of the defensive in modern warfare. It was this advantage which prevented the Boers from pressing their invasion home, in spite of their initial numerical superiority; and it was the same advantage which rendered abortive England's immense superiority in the middle stages of the campaign.

WHO WILL SUCCEED THE POPE?

Dr. Sigmund Münz discusses, with an immense amount of knowledge, the question as to who will be elected Pope when Leo XIII. is dead. Immediately on the death of a pope, and before the conclave meets, the cardinals, with the Camerlengo at their head, glance through the dead pontiff's testament. But it does not by any means follow that his nominee will be elected. Sometimes the new pope has been altogether out of sympathy with his predecessor; and sometimes he has not even been in possession of the purple when the testament was made.

The future pope, however, says Dr. Münz, will almost certainly be elected from the present cardinalate. Leo XIII. is ninety years of age, and secret understandings have certainly been come to among groups of the cardinals as to his successor. But who he will be nobody can say. For the members of the conclave represent various interests other than their own, and sometimes serve as the spokesmen of whole classes, and even of states. In the Sacred College the political differences of Europe find a lively echo, and there are papal candidates and electors who support respectively the Dual and Triple Alliances. Dr. Münz does not think that either of these extreme parties will triumph at the next election; but an agreement will probably be come to which will not be offensive to any one power. Indeed, he concludes his paper by saying that possibly this papal election may end, as some recent presidential elections in France, in a man of comparative insignificance being the successful candidate.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. E. Saint Genix continues his revelations on "Monastic Orders up to Date," and the Rev. W. W. Peyton begins a paper on "The Crucifixion as an Evolutionary Force." Count de Soissons writes on "Modern German Lyric Poetry."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

IN the *Fortnightly* for April there is an article by Karl Blind on the German navy, from which we quote elsewhere.

IBSEN'S NEW PLAY.

"When We Dead Awaken" is the subject of a critical review by Mr. James Joyce, who sums up as follows:

"On the whole, When We Dead Awaken may rank with the greatest of the author's work—if, indeed, it be not the greatest. It is described as the last of the series, which began with A Doll's House—a grand epilogue to its ten predecessors. Than these dramas, excellent alike in dramaturgic skill, characterization, and supreme interest, the long roll of drama, ancient or modern, has few things better to show."

THE STATUS OF BRITISH NAVAL ENGINEERS.

"With But After" is the somewhat whimsical title of an article in which Mr. Rollo Appleyard deals with the changes proposed in the status and titles of the engineers of the Royal navy. Formerly the engineer-in-chief of the Royal navy held merely the relative rank of captain. He is now to rank with rear-admiral, and chief engineers with lieutenants of eight years' seniority. These changes, and the others proposed by the admiralty, Mr. Appleyard says, are absurdly insufficient. The essence of the present inferior position of naval engineers is that they are treated as non-combatant officers, and in position, pay, and authority they are denied their rights. The consequence is that, even in peace time, there is no ship in the Royal navy that carries more than its bare complement of engineer officers and stokers. The engineers themselves propose that a corps of royal naval engineers should be formed, to be classed as a military branch of the navy, and having executive powers similar to those of combatant officers.

AN AGRICULTURAL CENSUS.

Mr. W. E. Bear pleads for a more accurate and scientific agricultural census. He thinks that the American system is far ahead of the British.

"It is not much to ask that in the next census the classes owning, occupying, or working on the land should be comprehensively and distinctively enumerated. The task of procuring such a return would be trifling in comparison with what was done in the same direction in the last census of the United States, and that is to be greatly extended and improved upon in the next one. The results of the agricultural portion of the census of 1890 in that country filled three immense volumes, containing together 2,478 pages, besides numerous maps and statistical diagrams. A mere list of the subjects upon which statistical information is given in these volumes would occupy several pages of this Review."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. W. E. Garrett Fisher has a pleasant article on the history and traditions of the Comédie Française, lately burned down. Fiona Macleod concludes her article on Iona. The interminable controversy on Catholic Continuity is continued by Mr. Wilfrid Ward, the title of whose article, "Unchanging Dogma but Changeful Man," contains the gist of his contentions.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

IN the *Westminster Review* for April Mr. Walter Lloyd reviews the correspondence recently published in France between Auguste Comte and John Stuart Mill; the most interesting part of which is the controversy as to the alleged inferiority of women, in which Mill scored the famous point that women must be equal to men in reason, since men admit in women a conscience ordinarily more scrupulous than theirs; and what is conscience if not the submission of the passions to the reason? The correspondence was finally brought to a close by a controversy of a very different character:

"Comte being placed in financial difficulties through the loss of one of his posts at the Polytechnic School, Mill generously obtained for him a donation of 3,000 francs, subscribed by Grote, Molesworth, and Raikes-Currie. Comte took it into his head that this gift, which was meant as a temporary assistance, was to be an annuity, and considered himself deeply aggrieved when Mill explained to him the true state of the case. Comte persisted, and Mill wrote a letter which seems almost unduly severe; but it was rendered necessary by the persistence—a persistence founded upon a misunderstanding—with which Comte urged his claim. After this the correspondence relaxed and finally ceased altogether."

THE RENASCENCE OF JANE AUSTEN.

Miss Janet Harper contributes a paper under this heading. She thinks that Jane Austen is the best antidote to the feverish tendencies of the day:

"Probably the best time to read one of Jane Austen's novels is just after one has graduated, or is inflated with university honors, or is puffed up with having had some fugitive verses accepted by a high-class magazine, or has surfeited himself with *fin-de-siècle* stories till literary dyspepsia has set in. These things generally occur before one is very old; but there is another good time also, which is even less limited by years—namely, after one has somehow had an overdose of ethics; for Miss Austen never pointed a moral or set herself to teach. Like all true geniuses, she knew, consciously or unconsciously, that art works for all whom it can teach, and that it delivers its own message to us. She does not assure us that the apparently most commonplace of human beings will be found interesting in some point if we only take the trouble to find it out, but nevertheless through her art we learn it, and greater things, the power of love and the beauty of self-sacrifice. Of her teaching 'the rest is silence.'"

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. H. Hudson writes on "Shakespeare's Ghosts," Mr. Andrew de Ternant has an article on the late Duc d'Aumale and Chantilly, Mr. Herbert Whiskin contributes a couple of pages of approval of co-education, and Miss Julia Hawksley writes on "The Influence of the Woman's Club."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

IN the *National Review* for April there are several articles which deal with the South African War and its military issues. We have dealt elsewhere with Mr. H. W. Wilson's application of the lessons of the war to Franco-German relations.

THE ETHICS OF EDITING.

Such is the title of a short paper by Mr. H. W. Massingham, who implies, though he does not say so, that editing requires and knows no ethics at all. The modern newspaper, so far from being an instructor or enlightener, merely reflects the opinions of the social medium in which it exists, and for this reason the editor-proprietor, who has no one to fall out with about opinions, is the most logical development. Mr. Massingham takes the present war as an instance. He says:

"Most Englishmen think that the present war in South Africa was necessary and just. But let me suppose that a cause of war arose in this country to which those adjectives did not apply. Let me further suppose that the opposing nation could be accused, as the Boers can fairly be accused, of having in the past deeply wounded the national pride. Having this ground of passion on which to work, does any one believe that the mass of our newspapers either could, or would, occupy themselves with the difficult, unpleasant, and unprofitable task of holding back an impulsive people, when their circulation, and therefore their advertising strength, depended on their stimulating the unwise and imprudent, but natural and often uncontrollable, impulse of revenge, and when their editors knew that their rivals would jump in to take the trade opportunity which they were neglecting? Instances to the contrary occur, but not often to the advantage of the newspaper which takes an unpopular line, and generally I say that if restraining forces are needed in the state, they cannot come through our journals. The conductors of these enterprises are chosen for qualities opposite to those which make for deliberateness and independence of judgment, and the commercial interests of their proprietors are injured by the application of the habits of mind I have named. Mr. Stead used to speak of editors as if they were latter-day Apostles, and their chairs the true modern pulpits. Far be it from me to deny that the modern pulpit is very like the press, and the press the pulpit. But it is certain that, unless both these institutions are prepared to give men the mental food they like, it will go ill with them."

INACCURATE HISTORY.

Lieut.-Col. Maxse, who was himself a participant in the Soudanese campaign, takes Mr. Winston Churchill seriously to task for a whole series of mistakes and misrepresentations contained in his "River War." He says that the "River War" is misleading as history and inaccurate in detail, and certainly the number of corrections which Colonel Maxse makes seems to justify him.

THE RUSSIAN PRESS.

"Scythicus" writes on the Russian press with considerable knowledge. His article is prefaced by a facsimile page "blocked out" by the Russian censor, with whose vagaries his article also deals. In Finland the censure has become so strict that a species of mutual insurance company has been formed to indemnify proprietors and editors against losses from suspension. The most widely circulating of Russian newspapers is the *Svict*, which sells some 100,000 copies daily, while the most authoritative and best known abroad, the *Novoe Vremya*, has a circulation but half as great.

CORNHILL.

CORNHILL is full, as usual, of excellent reading. The first place is given to a weird and melancholy poem by Thomas Hardy, on "The Souls of the Slain." The poet depicts himself standing on the Bill of Portland as the souls of the soldiers slain in South Africa pass homeward. The inquiries of these strange visitants elicit the fact that the "glory" the soldier dies for is generally least present to the mind of his bereaved relatives. The shades exclaim:

"Alas! then, it seems that our glory
Weighs less in their thought
Than our small homely acts,
And the long-ago commonplace facts
Of our lives—held by us as scarce part of our story
And rated as nought?"

A much more glorious chapter in the history of empire than any of the blood-stained annals of war is suggested by Mr. H. Sharp's vivid and thorough picture of the fight with famine in India—the "barren and dry land"—as he lived through it in an out-of-the-way corner of the continent.

Lady Grove writes in a sprightly, serious vein on fads or unpopular enthusiasms. Mr. Beach Thomas discusses the relation of athletics to health, and concludes that the wisest course is not to avoid all exertion or to restrict severe exercise to the athletic period, but to cultivate gymnastics.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

WE have noticed elsewhere M. Desjardins' remarkable article on the points of international law which have arisen out of the war.

A FRENCH VIEW OF CEYLON.

M. Leclercq contributes to the first March number an interesting paper on Ceylon under the British colonial administration. He shows what interesting traces remain in the island of the old Portuguese and Dutch colonists, notably the old Roman-Dutch law, which is still applicable in the Ceylon courts of justice. Traces of the Portuguese are chiefly religious, for the Catholic faith originally preached by the Franciscans has spread to the smallest villages, while the stern doctrines of the Dutch Reformed Church seem to have practically disappeared. The native tongue, too, has been enriched by Portuguese much more than by Dutch influences, although the Dutch occupation was quite as long as that of Portugal. As regards the English in the island, M. Leclercq considers that if they went away to-morrow they would leave behind them few recollections and few regrets; for they have made little impression on the people, and are known merely as active people, buyers of land, cultivators, and stern judges; and it is expected apparently in Ceylon that one fine day they will pack up their trunks and disappear.

JAPAN.

M. Bellessort continues his travel papers on Japan. The origin of the Japanese is as mysterious as their language; the difficulty they experienced in naming their ancestors for a long time persuaded them that they were descended from the gods. This impression has not yet been removed, and the history primers which are used in the schools still mention the Goddess of the Sun as the first Japanese Empress. Modern science has not decided yet whether the Japanese came from Mongolia through Corea, or from the Malay Peninsula through Formosa. One ingenious hypothesis traces these worshipers of Kami to Cham, the son of Noah. In their most ancient customs may be traced astonishing relics of the Mosaic law; and the Basques, curiously enough, have a perfect comprehension of no fewer than sixty words belonging to the Japanese tongue. M. Bellessort quotes, in conclusion, a curious expression of opinion made to him by a Japanese gentleman of distinction, who pointed to the Emperor's palace, and said to him sadly: "Japan will be tranquil as long as that dwelling keeps its mysterious occupant; but I fear for my country the morrow of his death. Our people are not easy to govern if the governing power remains anonymous and impersonal; and, above all things, I dread anything that may give us some day a too intelligent Emperor."

In the second March number M. André Lebon writes a paper on the Marchand mission, Fashoda, and the Mélines cabinet.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE *Nouvelle Revue* for February contains a number of short and readable papers. In neither number, if Mme. Juliette Adam's papers on foreign politics be excepted, is there any article directly dealing with the South African War.

DEAR COAL.

In the first February number M. Barrau describes the crisis in the coal-trade, which crisis—according to the investigations lately made by him—is quite as acute on the Continent as it is in England. This is true of Belgium, where ordinary coal is now retailed to the consumer at a price 43 per cent. higher than was the case three years ago. This state of things is partly attributed to the South African War, partly to the works connected with the French exhibition, and last, not least, to the present continental craze for automobilism. The writer of this article, which is well worth consideration by those interested directly or indirectly in the coal industry, points out that of all European countries Russia alone has hitherto neglected to tap her extraordinary mineral treasures.

GERMAN CANALS.

In the same number M. Diény discusses at length the German canal system. No country in the world, says the French writer, seems more suitable for an elaborate scheme of the kind; and even in the seventeenth century canals played a considerable part in north Germany. Just as France was abandoning the construction of certain great waterways—for the railroads soon began carrying all before them—the German Government woke up to the importance of a good canal system which should link together the various rivers which play so great a part in German trade. From 1873 to 1891 the canal traffic increased 300 per cent., and at the present moment the Prussian Government is anxiously attempting to carry through a project—the *Mittellandkanal*—which will, it is hoped, act as a great waterway between the east and the west.

SUBMARINE CABLES.

Once more we have in a French review a strong representation, made this time by M. Jadot, as to the inferiority of France in the matter of cable communication. M. Jadot is able to say that the attention which has been called to the situation has resulted in an awakening of opinion which is likely to have important results. The British monopoly of cable communication is, of course, denounced. The writer points out the extreme importance for France of having independent cable communication, not only with the far East, where, he says, French interests are becoming every day of greater importance, but also with the French African colonies. These cables might be international in character, or the French Government might take over the whole burden; while a third solution—which has much

to be said for it from his point of view—would be that the work should be undertaken by a number of French private companies with a government guarantee

EUROPE AND THE TRANSVAAL.

M. Mévil's article in the first March number on the part which Continental Europe has played in the South African War is mainly interesting as proving very clearly how passionately a section—and it need hardly be said by far the greater section—not only of French intellectual sympathy, but an even stronger feeling as regards Germany, Holland, and Russia, has gone out to the Transvaal. "In Paris, in Brussels, in Amsterdam, in Vienna, and in St. Petersburg, committees were early formed in aid of the Boers, and among the subscribers (what is rarely the case on the Continent) representatives of every class were eager to help with time and money." The writer lately made a tour through the various capitals quoted, and he was struck by the fact that the anti-British feeling existed quite as much in the upper and governing caste of each country as among the populace; not only in Holland—where the absence of pro-Boer sympathies would be indeed monstrous, but in Belgium the same feeling obtains; Austria, again, which has no direct interest in the matter, has shown consistently what M. Mévil styles a strong sentimental sympathy for the smaller and weaker nation; as for Russia, a French writer naturally sees in the feeling there displayed hatred to "the traditional enemy."

REVUE DE PARIS.

IT is a curious thing that the *Revue de Paris* for February contains no article bearing directly upon the situation in South Africa.

IF THE PLAGUE SHOULD COME.

M. Duclaux contributes to the first February number a paper on the measures of protection to be taken against the plague. M. Duclaux wrote a similar article in the *Revue de Paris* three years ago, and it is a significant sign of the progress which medicine has made in the interval that he is able to add so much material of value to his warnings. The appearance of the plague at Oporto has undoubtedly frightened nervous people both in France and in England, and M. Duclaux notes as one of the great dangers of the visitation that it so easily inspires panic. At the same time it must be remembered that the malady disappears before the advance of civilization, and where it breaks out in a civilized state it is an importation and not a native growth. Dr. Brouardel has done much to strengthen the defense of Europe against the plague. Dr. Haffkine has suggested another preventive—vaccination in which no serum of an immune animal is used, but cultures of the plague bacilli killed by the action of heat. The immunity conferred by this method takes about ten to fifteen days to develop, but when it is developed it is more durable; unfortunately it is preceded by a short illness which is sometimes painful. It obviously has the advantage of cheapness and economy, for the cultures can be obtained in any quantity, whereas the serum is rather expensive. The measures which have been taken in Paris at the Pasteur Institute appear to be very complete. Many horses have been obtained and an adequate staff is being trained; but, as M. Duclaux well says, all the resources of science are hopeless in the presence of a popular panic.

THE SUCCESSFUL GERMAN.

M. Berard deals with the effect which the example of Germany has had upon England. Mr. Chamberlain has frequently driven home the lesson that Germany's financial, industrial, and commercial prosperity is due to her imperial policy, and the inference is obvious—that if England is to maintain her commercial prosperity she must also become imperialist. The article is decorated with many quotations from Mr. Chamberlain's speeches.

FRANCE AND RUSSIA IN THE EAST.

In the first March number, M. Gaulis contributes an able summary of a difficult question which is still unsettled between France and Russia in the East. The problem is how to reconcile the ancient French protectorate of Eastern Catholics with the persistent trend of Russian policy. It is the little cloud, no larger than a man's hand, which may, if courageously dealt with, disappear; or may, on the other hand, grow until it produces a storm which will sweep away the Franco-Russian alliance. Not so very long ago the French flag protected all the Catholic Pilgrims in the East; but gradually the other powers have attempted, with more or less success, to assume the charge of their own Catholic pilgrims. It is a kind of fatality that France should meet her ally, Russia, as an opponent in Palestine and Syria; and M. Gaulis contrasts effectively the persistent, steady policy of Russia with the unmethodical, vacillating conduct of the ephemeral ministers who from time to time represent the interests of France. He anticipates, however, that it will not be impossible to find a common basis of agreement by which this thorny question may be satisfactorily settled.

REVUE DES REVUES.

IN the *Revue des Revues* for March 1 the first place is occupied by an article by Eugene Müntz on "Protestantism and Art," admittedly suggested by the recent crisis in the English Church, and hardly likely to find favor in the sight of the Low-Church party. The writer points out how almost throughout its history the attitude of the Protestant Church has been one of hostility to art. Calvin particularly he looks upon as one of the chief offenders in this respect. The suppression, he says, of everything which appeals to the eye is tantamount to starving the heart and the soul. Luther he shows to have been far more broad-minded. The worship of images he would indeed have forbidden; but in painting, sculpture, or engraving he saw no more harm than in the possession of pictures, statues, or other works of art. M. Müntz notes with approval the magnificence of the English High Churches, and calls upon French Protestants to follow in the steps of the Ritualists and invoke the aid of art in the adornment of their places of worship.

FRENCH AND GERMAN CONSUMPTIVE HOSPITALS.

"The Combating of Tuberculosis," whether in France or elsewhere, is unhappily a subject of perennial and not decreasing interest. In France alone 150,000 persons fall annually victims to this disease. Dr. Romme, the writer of the article, gives a revolting account of French consumptive hospitals, the only refuge of the poor smitten with this malady. Why, he asks, cannot France have *sanatoria* for her consumptives, constructed on the model of the excellent institutions in which the

Germans are succeeding in restoring their tuberculous patients to complete health in 20 per cent. of the cases submitted, and in 60 per cent. of the remaining cases to a measure of health sufficient to enable them to resume their ordinary work for at least two or three years? After the sickening pages which preceded it, this description of a German hospital for consumptives is refreshing reading by contrast.

In the second March number of this magazine Dr. L. Gaze discusses the cure of tuberculosis by means of the juice of raw beef, the meat being soaked in half its weight of *cold* sterilized water, and the liquid being afterward given to the patient.

Count Tolstoi has a short characteristic article on "The Religious Lie," in which he tells us that he has arrived at the conviction that the fundamental cause of all evil is the false religious doctrine usually taught to children. Murder, violence to children, brutality—all this is nothing compared with the crime of giving such instruction. Count Tolstoi's religion is to do the will of God, and to do toward others as one would have them do unto us—which is, after all, surely not so fundamentally different from the teaching of the Gospels.

OTHER ARTICLES.

M. Gaston Derys mourns over "The Decay of the French Language in Belgium," where the speakers of Flemish and German now outnumber the speakers of French by over 500,000.

The numbers for March 15 and April 1 contain a long statement of the case of the so-called Filipino Republic, purporting to have been written by Aguinaldo himself.

REVUE POLITIQUE ET PARLEMENTAIRE.

IN this review for February 10, under the title "*Le Féminisme et la Femme Témoin*," is a very elaborate and learned article by F. Ingelbrecht advocating equality for woman with man in matters of law. The article embodies a vast amount of information about the present legal status of woman in the leading nations of the world. France, as regards such status, is among the most backward countries. A woman's rights in France, M. Ingelbrecht says, can be summed up in the saying that "a woman ought to mind the house, the fire, and the children." Very recently, however, France has made a step toward the recognition of the equality of men and women; but the advance itself, by bringing up the whole subject for consideration, emphasizes the urgency of reform. The new law relates to woman's capacity as a witness.

THE VALIDITY OF FEMALE TESTIMONY.

"As to testimony," says M. Ingelbrecht, "we have seen that all countries are unanimous in recognizing in woman, married or unmarried, full capacity as regards ordinary testimony given before tribunals of all kinds; but it is not the same as to documentary testimony, and there are few countries where in this matter reform has been accomplished." When one calls to mind the great variety of legal instruments that embody or require attestation of some kind, one sees how important is the question of capacity for such attestation. After more than ten years of legislative obstruction an act was passed putting men and women on the same footing in such matters. The law was promulgated on December 7, 1897. It appeared in the official journal two days afterward. Since its promulgation, "women, whether married, single, widowed, or divorced," says M. Ingelbrecht, "are admitted to attestation in all acts whatever, public or private. The sole restriction imposed is that a woman and her husband shall never be allowed to testify together in the same act. It is presumed, with much reason, that in this case the two attestations are in reality merely one."

REVISTA CONTEMPORÁNEA.

A RECENT number of *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid, February 15) is of more than ordinary value.

PENDULUM DEMONSTRATION OF THE EARTH'S ROTATION.

Many people now living remember the general interest excited by Léon Foucault's demonstration of the rotation of the earth by the swinging of a pendulum. The principle is that a pendulum swinging freely does not change the direction of the plane of its oscillation (as toward a fixed star, for example) even when the point of its suspension is moved. The plane of oscillation of a pendulum swinging at the north or south pole would *seem* to describe a circle in a sidereal day, but the apparent rotation of the plane of oscillation would be caused by the real rotation of the earth If the pendulum were hung at the equator the plane of oscillation would merely sway, or seem to sway, westward. Between the poles and the equator the application of the principle is less simple.

Foucault's experiment was made in the Pantheon at Paris. It was begun on February 8, 1851. In an hour the deviation of the plane of oscillation that had been predicted for that length of time was realized.

In *Revista Contemporánea* is a letter (translated into Spanish) dated September 18, 1899, from the Italian scientist Father Timoteo Bertelli, giving some account of an experiment made in 1833 (eighteen years before Foucault's experiment) by Father Agustin Bartolini, of the Franciscan convent of Rimini, Italy. Bartolini's pendulum was hung from the roof of the Franciscan church at Rimini. "There live yet," says Father Bertelli, "many witnesses who several times personally witnessed Father Agustin's experiment demonstrative of the daily movement of the earth."

It seems, however, that Father Bertelli did not himself see the experiment. It is not stated that Bartolini calculated *a priori* the rate of deviation of the plane of oscillation for the latitude of Rimini. There is no intimation that Foucault had any knowledge of Bartolini's experiment, and there is no apparent desire to lessen the credit of Foucault's discovery. There is a more precise account by Father Bertelli of Bartolini's experiment in *Bolletino di Bibliografia e di Storia delle Scienze Matematiche e Fisiche*, tome vi., pp. 22-23.

THE NEW BOOKS.

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Life of William H. Seward. By Frederic Bancroft. 2 Vols., 8vo, pp. 553–576. New York: Harper & Brothers. $5.

Within a year there have come from the press new biographies of several of the chief figures in the political history of the Civil War period. Besides the lives of Lincoln himself by Miss Tarbell and Mr. Hapgood, we have the careers of Stanton and Chase in the war cabinet, and of Sumner and Thaddeus Stevens, in Congress, sketched for us by men of our own generation, whose point of view is perforce very different from that of actual participants in the conflict of the sixties, and whose judgment, we hope, is at least unbiased by partisanship. It is no disparagement of these writers to say that no one of them has brought to his task so rare a combination of special qualifications as Mr.



MR. FREDERIC BANCROFT.

Bancroft has brought to the writing of the life of Seward. Mr. Bancroft is an historian by profession. History-writing is not for him the mere employment of spare hours; it is a life calling. A graduate of Amherst College and of Columbia University, a student in the great German and French schools of political science, history, and diplomacy, Mr. Bancroft has written and lectured much on topics in the political and diplomatic history of the United States, especially in the era of the Civil War and reconstruction. He has also served as librarian of the State Department at Washington. For many years he has toiled resolutely at his self-imposed task of seeking from every source—public archives, family papers, newspaper files—the facts on which to base an estimate of William H. Seward as statesman, politician, and diplomatist which is likely to be accepted as final.

Mr. Bancroft has courageously adhered to his purpose of picturing Seward as he lived and moved among men. The fact that he became in Mr. Bancroft's own opinion the greatest of our Secretaries of State in 1861-69, does not tempt his biographer to attribute the acts of a "machine" politician in the thirty years preceding Lincoln's nomination to any imagined ideals of statesmanship. The famous partnership of Seward, Weed, and Greeley may have served the State of New York very faithfully in its way, but its methods would not commend themselves to the political reformers of to-day. Mr. Bancroft tells the whole story frankly and fully. He tells, too, how Seward grew from a politician to a statesman after the ambition of his life had been crushed by Lincoln's nomination for the Presidency in 1860.

From Capetown to Ladysmith. By G. W. Steevens. 12mo, pp. 198. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

The unfinished account of the South African war left by Mr. G. W. Steevens, late correspondent of the London *Daily Mail*, is just such a work as one would have expected to come from the pen of the gifted young journalist. Although fragmentary, the studies made by Mr. Steevens in South Africa are not without permanent value. What especially impresses the reader is the author's frankness and evident desire to set forth truthfully and impartially the views and policies of the conflicting parties in Natal and throughout South Africa. Nothing could be fairer than his third chapter, entitled "A Pastor's Point of View," and stating the pro-Boer arguments of the Dutch pastor at Burghersdorp. The description of the bombardment of Ladysmith is graphic and picturesque, but of the real action of the war little else came within Mr. Steevens' range of view, and his lamented death at Ladysmith in December cut short all expectation of what would undoubtedly have been the best history of the war, and very possibly the crowning literary achievement of Mr. Steevens' all too brief career.

The War in South Africa: Its Causes and Effects. By J. A. Hobson. 8vo, pp. 324. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.

In the latter half of 1899 Mr. Hobson served as South African correspondent for the Manchester (England) *Guardian*, and in that capacity talked with many men of political prominence in the Boer republics and in Cape Colony. His study of the situation has led him to minimize the so-called grievances of the Outlanders, and to set aside as unworthy of credence the alleged Dutch conspiracy for a South African federation. As to the actual responsibility for hostilities, he concludes that "formally, the Boers were the aggressors; actually, the landing of British troops and the movement of them toward the frontiers, under a false pretext of self-defense, were the first acts of hostility." Throughout the volume the author's sympathies with the Boers are unconcealed, although he frankly recognizes their vices, and especially the evils of official corruption and incompetency. The author's point of view is that of enlightened British Liberalism, and if this be treason to latter-day Chamberlain imperialism he seems quite willing that the reader should make the most of it.

The Story of the Boers. Prepared by C. W. Van der Hoogt. 12mo, pp. 285. New York: Harper & Brothers. $1.

The Boer side of the South African dispute is presented in a volume entitled "The Story of the Boers," which has been prepared under the authority of the South African republics. The opening chapter of the volume is contributed by Mr. Montagu White, formerly Consul-General of the re-

publics at London. One of the most interesting documents in this compilation is "An Earnest Representation and Historical Reminder," dated Pretoria, June 15, 1899, and signed by the late P. J. Joubert, Vice-President of the South African Republic and Commander-in-Chief of the Army. This paper is addressed to Queen Victoria, and sets forth the historical basis of the Boer cause. There are, in addition, several official proclamations, treaties, and other documents bearing on the dispute.

Modern Spain, 1788–1898. By Martin A. S. Hume. ("The Story of the Nations" Series.) 12mo, pp. 586. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Captain Hume's qualifications as a writer of Spanish history have been fully proven. He has himself witnessed many of the scenes described in the present volume, beginning with the revolution of 1868. Captain Hume indulges the hope that the loss of her possessions may prove a blessing in disguise to Spain, and that the century of calamity and trouble through which she has passed may be succeeded by prosperity in the reign of Alfonso XIII.

The Storming of Stony Point. By Henry P. Johnston. 8vo, pp. 231. New York: James T. White & Co. $1.50.

Professor Johnston has done well to rewrite the story of the storming of Stony Point, in the war of the Revolution, from unpublished documents discovered in the Public Record Office at London and in certain American libraries. This publication is especially timely in view of the fact that the Society for the Preservation of Scenic and Historic Places and Objects in New York has persuaded the State to purchase the battle-ground of Stony Point for a public memorial park. Among the illustrations of this little volume is a map of the scene of action compiled from the original surveys of the region by Washington's topographer, Thomas Erskine, F.R.S.

The Northwest Under Three Flags, 1635–1796. By Charles Moore. 8vo, pp. 425. New York: Harper & Brothers. $2.50.

In this volume Mr. Moore relates the inspiring history of the region now designated as the "Middle West" under the successive rule of France, England, and the United States. The work is provided with a series of maps and illustrations of exceptional interest.

How England Saved Europe: The Story of the Great War; 1793–1815. By W. H. Fitchett. Vol. IV. 12mo, pp. 435. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.

In this volume Mr. Fitchett brings to an end his thrilling narrative of the Napoleonic wars from the English point of view. The culmination of Mr. Fitchett's story, of course, is the battle of Waterloo. This is described with great fullness and vividness. The volume is illustrated with portraits and battle plans.

Charlemagne (Charles the Great): The Hero of Two Nations. By H. W. Carless Davis. ("Heroes of the Nations" Series.) 12mo, pp. 354. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

This life of Charles the Great, if it does not present any startlingly new view of the subject, is at least a convenient compendium of the best that has been written about the great emperor, and is equipped, as are all the volumes of this series, with a list of bibliographical aids.

POLITICAL SCIENCE AND ECONOMICS.

Municipal Government. By Bird S. Coler. 12mo, pp. 200. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1.

The comptroller of the City of New York has something instructive to say out of his experience with the finances of that great municipality. His criticisms of the Greater New York charter should prove a seasonable warning to charter commissions everywhere. His study of the practical workings of the charter seems to confirm many of the most serious objections that were urged against it at the time of its adoption. Mr. Coler's chapters on charity and charity regulation ought to be widely read. He also has definite and interesting views on the questions of water-supply, transportation, city development, the church in politics, and political machines.

A Municipal Programme. Report of a Committee of the National Municipal League. 8vo, pp. 246. New York: Published for the National Municipal League by the Macmillan Company.

The municipal programme adopted by a unanimous vote at the Columbus meeting of the National Municipal League in November, 1899, represents the endeavor of the committee to present, in accordance with the League's resolution, "a working system consistent with American industrial and political conditions, and embodying the essential principles that must underlie successful municipal government in the United States." The league has now published, with a summary of this programme, papers on "Municipal Development in the United States," by Dr. John A. Fairlie; "The Municipal Problem in the United States," by Horace E. Deming; "The City in the United States: The Proper Scope of Its Activities," by Dr. Albert Shaw; "The Place of the Council and of the Mayor in the Organization of Municipal Government," by Prof. Franck J. Goodnow; "Public Accounting Under the Proposed Municipal Programme," by Prof. L. S. Rowe, and other papers dealing with municipal problems. In the charter proposed by the committee many of the elective officers to be found in American cities to-day are curtailed, both the mayor's power and that of the council being enlarged. The passage of amendments to the State Constitution, where necessary to secure a greater amount of home rule for cities, is advocated, and an effort is made to simplify the methods of public accounting.

The City for the People: or the Municipalization of the City Government and of Local Franchises. By Frank Parsons. 8vo, pp. 597. Philadelphia: C. F. Taylor. $1.

In this volume Professor Parsons deals with the question of municipal ownership of public utilities in an exceptionally thorough manner. Professor Parsons has for years given special attention to the facts connected with municipal experiments in all parts of the United States. His book is less an exposition of theory than a compendium of facts and statistics. On all controverted questions the author makes numerous references to leading authorities, and throughout his book the sources of information are fully stated. The subjects of "Home Rule for Cities," "The Merit System of Civil Service," "Proportional Representation," "Preferential Voting," "The Automatic Ballot," and "The Best Means of Overcoming Corruption" are also treated. It is a book which no one interested in the improvement of city government in the United States can well do without.

The Modern Farmer in His Business Relations. By Edward F. Adams. 8vo, pp. 662. San Francisco: N. J. Stone Company.

This volume is an attempt to present a comprehensive review of the farmer's position and relations as a business man. The author was well qualified to perform this service by his own business experience, extending over a quarter of a century, and his connection with coöperative work among farmers. Mr. Adams pretends to no exceptional knowledge of economic science, but understands it to be "plain common sense applied to such business transactions as marketing produce, borrowing money, and voting upon a tariff." His book is a statement of inductive rather than deductive conclusions. It begins with a discussion of the larger aspects of farm life, describing the evolution of the modern farmer; then follows a series of chapters on the farmer's education. The farmer's various relations in life are next considered, especially his business relations. Considerable

space is devoted to a discussion of agricultural coöperation and its results, including a full account of the coöperative fruit-marketing societies of California. An interesting section of the book is taken up with a discussion of the farmer's interest in such questions of the day as the tariff, export bounties, single tax, the currency, the labor question, trusts, the referendum, and socialism. These matters are all presented in a wise and temperate manner; and a careful reading of Mr. Adams' conclusions cannot fail to be of great benefit to the class of readers for whom the work was especially intended. The work is clear in analysis and effective in statement. By his sane and clear exposition of some of the greatest problems before the American farmer of to-day, Mr. Adams has done much to lead the way to a final and correct solution of these problems. The book is sold only by subscription.

The Theory and Practice of Taxation. By David Ames Wells. 12mo, pp. 648. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2.50.

The most important of the writings of the late David A. Wells on the subject of taxation, containing the record of his own experience in practical contact with State and national tax systems, and of his studies and conclusions drawn from the history of taxation in other countries, are contained in the present volume. A large portion of the material had appeared in the pages of *Appleton's Popular Science Monthly* prior to Mr. Wells' death. The last chapters, in which is developed the law of the diffusion of taxes, were sketched by Mr. Wells, and embodied the essence of the conclusions he had reached. The work has been edited by Mr. Worthington C. Ford, and is beyond question the most important treatise on taxation thus far published in this country.

Official Proceedings of the International Commercial Congress, Philadelphia, October 12 to November 1, 1899. 4to, pp. 442. Philadelphia: The Philadelphia Commercial Museum. $2.30.

The official proceedings of the International Commercial Congress held at Philadelphia last fall have just been issued. These proceedings show that thirty-eight foreign governments were represented by delegates at the congress, and that one hundred and twelve foreign chambers of commerce and trade organizations in all parts of the world sent delegates. Many papers and addresses on subjects of vital importance to the extension of international commerce were presented. The volume also contains portraits and biographical sketches of many of the delegates, together with portraits of the presiding officers and others prominently identified with the success of the gathering.

The Nicaragua Canal. By William E. Simmons. 8vo, pp. 335. New York: Harper & Brothers. $1.25.

Mr. Simmons, in this volume, describes the work already completed on the Nicaragua Canal, the Government surveys, and the work yet to be done. He also gives a compact account of the people and government of Nicaragua, and the text is accompanied with excellent illustrations from photographs.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

Sailing Alone Around the World. By Captain Joshua Slocum. 8vo, pp. 294. New York: The Century Company. $2.

Perhaps no serial "feature" that has recently appeared in the pages of the *Century Magazine* has been followed with more widespread interest than the personal narrative of Capt. Joshua Slocum, who describes his voyage of 46,000 miles in the sloop *Spray*. It has been proven that Captain Slocum not only knows how to build boats and sail them, but that he is equally skillful as a writer. In his circumnavigation of the globe Captain Slocum had his share of adventures, including an escape from pirates off the coast of Africa, a fight with the savages of Terra del Fuego, a meeting with the battleship *Oregon* on her record-breaking run, and an interview with President Krüger at Pretoria. The illustrations, by Thomas Fogarty and George Varian, are admirable in every way.

Paris as It Is: An Intimate Account of Its People, Its Home Life, and Its Places of Interest. By Katharine De Forest. 12mo, pp. 288. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.

The book before us tells a great deal about Paris, but not precisely in the guide-book fashion. Perhaps almost every observant American living in Paris would soon acquire most of the information contained in this book; but it is for the benefit of Americans who are planning short sojourns in Paris, whether during the exposition or afterward, that this little book has been written. The writer herself disclaims any purpose to give information, and calls the work an interpretation of Parisian genius. As such it is certainly more interesting than the ordinary guide-book, and, perhaps, in the long run, not less helpful.

Harper's Guide to Paris and the Exposition of 1900. 16mo, pp. 292. New York: Harper & Brothers. $1.

In the mass of guide-book literature published this summer to supply the extraordinary demand occasioned by the Paris exposition, we incline to the belief that for Americans the books of American manufacture will prove the more serviceable. A little volume just issued by the Harpers contains practical suggestions concerning the trip from New York to Paris, a comprehensive map and guide to the city, a complete description and guide to the exposition, maps, diagrams, and much other useful material.

SCIENCE AND NATURE STUDY.

Total Eclipses of the Sun. By Mabel Loomis Todd. 12mo, pp. 273. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.

This new revised edition of Mrs. Todd's excellent little manual on eclipses contains much material relating to the eclipse of May 28, 1900, which will be total in the southern part of the United States. In a supplementary chapter there is an account of two previous eclipses, those of 1896 and 1898, very successfully observed in Nova Zembla and in India.

Nature's Garden: An Aid to Knowledge of Our Wild Flowers and Their Insect Visitors. By Neltje Blanchan. 4to, pp. 431. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.

One of the first publications to bear the imprint of the new firm of Doubleday, Page & Co. is a work which has been in preparation for nearly two years. The chief purpose of the writer has been to present in popular language the relationship existing between our common wild flowers and the insect world. To this end the life-histories of more than five hundred species are given. In point of illustration the volume is indeed remarkable, the plates having been made from actual photographs of flowers. Fifty-six familiar flowers have been photographed in color directly from nature. Thus, as in "Bird Neighbors," by the same author, the new process of color photography has been exploited to the best possible advantage. Taken altogether, the book is one of the achievements of the season.

The Amateur's Practical Garden-Book. By C. E. Hunn and L. H. Bailey. 16mo, pp. 250. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.

Among the series of practical handbooks on various subjects now published by the Macmillan Company, none will be more welcome than the "Garden-Craft Series," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell University. The first volume in thi series is "The Amateur's Practical Garden-Book." This little manual contains directions for the growing of the commonest plants about the house and garden. It contains 250 pages of expert advice by a practical gardener, Mr. C. E. Hunn, of the Horticultural Department at Cornell. The topics are arranged in alphabetical order. The book gives answers to the simplest questions of the amateur gardener.

RECENT FICTION.

To Have and to Hold. By Mary Johnston. 12mo, pp. 408. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Within a couple of months Miss Mary Johnston, the demure little authoress from Alabama, has become noted throughout America for having written the story "To Have and to Hold." The advertisements of the publishers and the newspaper paragraphers record, in the fashion of the day, that a hundred and sixty-five thousand have been sold, and a week or so later it is more than two hundred thousand.



MISS MARY JOHNSTON.

We are inclined to think that a more important thing than these figures is the evidence in the book itself that it should survive this extraordinary popularity. Through all its accompaniment of battle, murder, and sudden death, the story is told with a sweetness of spirit, a tenderness of fancy, a poetical insight that are rare indeed in the "novel of adventure," and much to be prized.

Miss Johnston's imagination has taken her and us back to the Virginia of 1630, when Captain John Smith had passed away, but John Rolfe, husband of Pocahontas, was still alive, and is a character in the story. Some 3,000 English settlers lived in and around Jamestown. Among them was the bluff, honest bachelor, Captain Ralph Percy, ex-trooper in the Low Countries, and the terror of mischievous Indians in the strange new land. Captain Percy, in his lonely estate, throws dice to see whether he shall be one of the suitors who meet a shipload of damsels from England. The fates say matrimony, and the soldier selects his bride. Instead of the ordinary baggage, however, he strikes on a high-born girl, the king's ward, who is running away from a hated lover. She accepts the downright soldier as the least of the many evils in her friendless state, but scorns to show him even friendliness, and he manfully respects her helplessness. The story tells of the arrival of the hated lover, the king's favorite, of the high spirit and charms of the Lady Jocelyn Leigh, of the limitless perils endured for her by her brave, silent husband, and how his strength of soul and arm finally won her whole heart. The setting of the story is a finely dramatic one, the sentiment as pure as a girl's face. Miss Johnston paints the woods, the skies, the stones, and all the vast wilderness scenes of Opecancanough's Virginia, with the sure, convincing touch of one who has an eye for the eloquent details of God's earth. The picture of Lord Carnal's great vessel sailing up the James River to the frightened little settlement is told by one having with the true spirit of romance, the accessory gifts of the romancer. It is very pleasant to have such a thoroughly fine story written by a young Southern woman, and pleasant too to see the public immediately give the work its due in such full measure. Miss Johnston is spoken of generally as an Alabamian, and, indeed, she has lived with her father, Maj. John W. Johnston, in Birmingham since her sixteenth year, with the exception of a four years' residence in New York City. But the family is Virginian, and Miss Mary Johnston spent her childhood among the mountains in that romantic region where the James River breaks through the Blue Ridge.

Until a few years ago she had written nothing. "Prisoners of Hope," which was printed in the *Atlantic*, and afterward in book form, was her first effort, and now this charming story under notice is the second. Miss Johnston's health has never been strong, and both her novels have been written under great physical stress. Her delicate health prevented her from obtaining any regular training at school, and this allowed her to pursue in her father's library that desultory yet all-devouring reading which is, of course, the great education of a child of imagination.

The Voice of the People. By Ellen Glasgow. 12mo, pp. 444. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.

Miss Ellen Glasgow has done two worthy things in a very worthy way in her novel, "The Voice of the People." She has painted the best picture of Southern life we have ever seen in a work of fiction and she has made about the large figure of Nick Burr an impressive study of social problems in the South. At first glance, no class of people in any community would seem to possess less of the picturesque and fewer possibilities for the novelist than the class of folks in the South known by the darkies as "po' white trash." They have neither the grace of living of the higher classes nor the dramatic vices and engaging simplicity of the mountain people.

Miss Glasgow has selected a hero from a family which, in its ineffectiveness and ignorance, makes a typical specimen of the class we have referred to. In the story we have on the one hand this Nick Burr, the rufus-headed son of the people, and on the other hand the aristocratic, if seedy, old town of Kingsboro. This young Nick Burr is a boy of character, with a capacity for taking infinite pains. He makes his way into the homes of some of the aristocratic folks of Kingsboro, and even makes the daughter of one of the proudest families fall in love with him. A tragic incident brings his greater pride into opposition to her and separates them forever. Nick Burr going on to win a great career for himself in politics in the character of "the man with a conscience."

The engaging absurdities, the large-hearted goodness and the graces of real Southern gentle-folk have never been better portrayed than by Miss Glasgow's pen in this book. The old stock characters,—the gallant and courteous judge, the loud-swearing but tender-hearted general, the lovely and coquettish Southern maiden, the austere widow-lady who has never surrendered, the old darkies, and all, take on new life from Miss Glasgow's inspiration. Her darkies, Delphy and Uncle Ish, are not to be questioned.

Miss Glasgow comes to her fundamental understanding of the old *régime* in Virginia life by birthright, for she is the descendant of a long line of notable Virginians. The "Kingsboro" of the novel is the town of Williamsburg. One of Miss Glasgow's forefathers was president of King's College in colonial times, and other of her ancestors were early residents of "Kingsboro."



MISS ELLEN GLASGOW.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

The International Geography. Edited by Hugh Robert Mill. 8vo, pp. xx, 1088. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $3.50.

The coöperation of seventy well-known specialists has been secured in the production of this handbook of geography. In the first part of the work the principles and progress of geography, mathematical geography, map making, the plan of the earth, nature and origin of land forms, the oceans, the atmosphere and climate, the distribution of living creatures, the distribution of mankind, and political and applied geography are treated by well-known writers. In the second part the different countries of the world are taken up, beginning with Europe and following the geographical order from west to east and from north to south. The subdivisions of the countries are described more or less in detail. The volume is carefully indexed, and provided with many small maps and diagrams.

Catalogue of the Annual Architectural Exhibition of the T-Square Club, 1899-1900. Edited by David Knickerbacker Boyd. 8vo, pp. 224. Philadelphia: T-Square Club.

The illustrated catalogue of the architectural exhibition of the T-Square Club of Philadelphia is worthy of a prominent place in the library. In this catalogue the club emphasizes problems of every-day practical value, such as the suburban house, the city front, and so forth. Drawings were contributed to the exhibition by the leading architects in England and France. This exhibition is the first of the circuit of exhibitions arranged by the Architectural League of America.

National Educational Association. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting, held at Los Angeles, Cal., July 11-14, 1899. 8vo, pp. 1258. Published by the Association.

The proceedings of the Los Angeles meeting of the National Educational Association include three valuable special reports made at that meeting, namely, the report of the committee on college entrance requirements, the report of the committee on normal schools, and the report of the committee on the relations of public libraries to public schools. Special reports of this character in recent years have been very widely read and discussed. The National Educational Association has adopted the policy of using a part of its income to investigate and report on important educational matters. The subjects of investigation last year were in some respects as important as any of the topics heretofore treated in this manner by the association. Reprints of these reports may be obtained at a nominal cost from Secretary Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

The Indians of To-day. By George Bird Grinnell. 4to, pp. 185. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $5.

"The Indians of to-day—what are their numbers? where do they live? how do they subsist? are they becoming civilized, educated, and learning the white man's ways?" These are some of the questions which Dr. Grinnell undertakes to answer in this volume. He attempts also an analysis of the Indian character, describes their beliefs recounts some of their folk tales, and presents certain conclusions as to the former geographical distribution of the North American tribes. Dr. Grinnell's resources as an experienced student of the American Indian have been drawn upon to good purpose in this publication. A striking feature of the book is the remarkable series of full-page portraits of living Indians made from photographs by Rhinehart, of Omaha. Probably not since the famous Catlin series of Indian portraits was painted has so important a contribution been made to the preservation of the physical traits of a decaying race.

TEXT-BOOKS.

A Modern Reader and Speaker. Edited by George Riddle. 12mo, pp. 629. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.

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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

Ains.	Ainslee's Magazine, N. Y.
ACQR.	American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.
AHR.	American Historical Review, N. Y.
AJS.	American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.
AJT.	American Journal of Theology, Chicago.
ALR.	American Law Review, St. Louis.
AMonM.	American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.
AMRR.	American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.
ANat.	American Naturalist, Boston.
AngA.	Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.
AngS.	Anglo-Saxon Review, N. Y.
Annals.	Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.
APB.	Anthony's Photographic Bulletin, N. Y.
APS.	Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Arch.	Architectural Record, N. Y.
Arena.	Arena, N. Y.
AA.	Art Amateur, N. Y.
AE.	Art Education, N. Y.
AI.	Art Interchange, N. Y.
AJ.	Art Journal, London.
Art.	Artist, London.
Atlant.	Atlantic Monthly, Boston.
Bad.	Badminton, London.
BankL.	Bankers' Magazine, London.
BankNY	Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
Bib.	Biblical World, Chicago.
BSac.	Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O.
BU.	Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne.
Black.	Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh.
BTJ.	Board of Trade Journal, London.
BB.	Book Buyer, N. Y.
Bkman.	Bookman, N. Y.
BP.	Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
Can.	Canadian Magazine, Toronto.
Cass.	Cassell's Magazine, London.
CasM.	Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.
Cath.	Catholic World, N. Y.
Cent.	Century Magazine, N. Y.
Cham.	Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh.
Char.	Charities Review, N. Y.
Chaut.	Chautauquan, Cleveland, O.
CAge.	Coming Age, Boston.
Cons.	Conservative Review, Washington.
Contem.	Contemporary Review, London.
Corn.	Cornhill, London.
Cos.	Cosmopolitan, N. Y.
Crit.	Critic, N. Y.
DH.	Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg.
Deut.	Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.
Dial.	Dial, Chicago.
Dub.	Dublin Review, Dublin.
Edin.	Edinburgh Review, London.
Ed.	Education, Boston.
EdR.	Educational Review, N. Y.
Eng.	Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
EM.	España Moderna, Madrid.
Fort.	Fortnightly Review, London.
Forum.	Forum, N. Y.
FrL.	Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.
Gent.	Gentleman's Magazine, London.
GBag.	Green Bag, Boston.
Gunt.	Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.
Harp.	Harper's Magazine, N. Y.
Hart.	Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn.
Home.	Home Magazine, N. Y.
Hom.	Homiletic Review, N. Y.
HumN.	Humanité Nouvelle, Paris.
Int.	International, Chicago.
IJE.	International Journal of Ethics, Phila.
IntM.	International Monthly, N. Y.
IntS.	International Studio, N. Y.
IA.	Irrigation Age, Chicago.
JMSI.	Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.
JPEcon.	Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.
Kind.	Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.
KindR.	Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.
LHJ.	Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.
LeisH.	Leisure Hour, London.
Lipp.	Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.
LQ.	London Quarterly Review, London.
Long.	Longman's Magazine, London.
Luth.	Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.
McCl.	McClure's Magazine, N. Y.
Mac.	Macmillan's Magazine, London.
MA.	Magazine of Art, London.
MRN.	Methodist Review, Nashville.
MRNY.	Methodist Review, N. Y.
Mind.	Mind, N. Y.
MisH.	Missionary Herald, Boston.
MisR.	Missionary Review, N. Y.
Mon.	Monist, Chicago.
MunA.	Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
Mun.	Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.
Mus.	Music, Chicago.
NatGM.	National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
NatM.	National Magazine, Boston.
NatR.	National Review, London.
NC.	New-Church Review, Boston.
NEng.	New England Magazine, Boston.
NIM.	New Illustrated Magazine, London.
NW.	New World, Boston.
NineC.	Nineteenth Century, London.
NAR.	North American Review, N. Y.
Nou.	Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
NA.	Nuova Antologia, Rome.
OC.	Open Court, Chicago.
O.	Outing, N. Y.
Out.	Outlook, N. Y.
Over.	Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
PMM.	Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Pear.	Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
Phil.	Philosophical Review, N. Y.
PhoT.	Photographic Times, N. Y.
PL.	Poet-Lore, Boston.
PSQ.	Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
PRR.	Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila.
PQ.	Presbyterian Quarterly, Charlotte, N. C.
QJEcon.	Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
QR.	Quarterly Review, London.
RasN.	Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
Record.	Record of Christian Work, East Northfield, Mass.
RefS.	Réforme Sociale, Paris.
RRL.	Review of Reviews, London.
RRM.	Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
RDM.	Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
RDP.	Revue du Droit Public, Paris.
RGen.	Revue Générale, Brussels.
RPar.	Revue de Paris, Paris.
RPP.	Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
RRP.	Revue des Revues, Paris.
RSoc.	Revue Socialiste, Paris.
RPL.	Rivista Politica e Letteraria, Rome.
Ros.	Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
San.	Sanitarian, N. Y.
School.	School Review, Chicago.
Scrib.	Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
SelfC.	Self Culture, Akron, Ohio.
SR.	Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Str.	Strand Magazine, London.
Sun.	Sunday Magazine, London
Temp.	Temple Bar, London.
USM.	United Service Magazine, London.
West.	Westminster Review, London.
Wern.	Werner's Magazine, N. Y.
WWM.	Wide World Magazine, London.
WPM.	Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Yale.	Yale Review, New Haven.
YM.	Young Man, London.
YW.	Young Woman, London.

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THE RIGHT HON. GEORGE N. CURZON, VICEROY OF INDIA.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

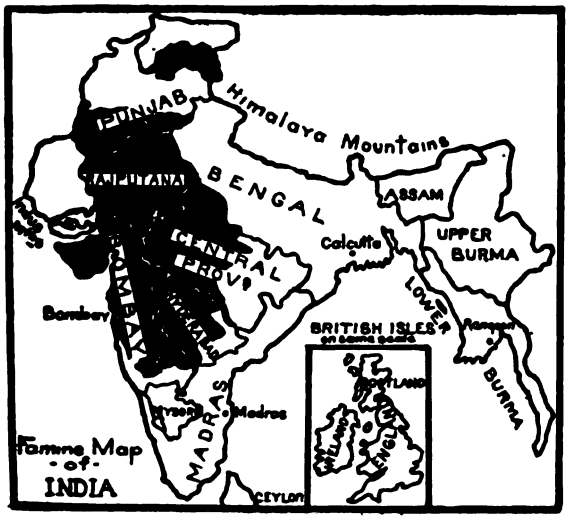
Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXI. NEW YORK, JUNE, 1900. No. 6.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

India's Terrible Famine.

Within the past month America has awakened to a realization of the fearful plight of India. The meeting of the Ecumenical Conference in New York, and the harrowing stories of the delegates from India, opened the eyes of thousands of Americans to the extent and intensity of this famine. Many keen-sighted Americans, fresh from their travels in India, have reminded us that it is the Indian missionary rather than the British civil or military officer, necessary as he is, who is in closest touch with native life in India. The missionary can speak of India's woe from his experience within the famine-stricken homes. The situation this summer is appalling. No less than 40,000,000 of people are actually famine-stricken, while more than 20,000,000 in addition are suffering, to a greater or less degree, from scarcity of food. It is difficult, indeed, for an American to grasp the idea of a population almost equal to that of the United States without food sufficient to keep living; of thousands of men, women, and children actually dying every day because there is no breakfast, dinner, or supper for them. Yet such is the literal truth in central and western India to-day. In a great arid tract of 300,000 square miles there is no money to buy the grain which has been grown in the more fortunate parts of the land. The people are trying to eat berries, roots and grass; parents are selling their children to buy food; men, women, and children are dying on the roadside, without the strength to reach the relief works instituted by the government; nearly 6,000,000 people are employed on these works, and the number is growing at the rate of 200,000 per week. It is admitted on all sides that the famine is vastly worse than that of 1897, and it is feared that it may be as bad as that of 1877, when 6,000,000 people actually died of starvation. In the parched country there is nothing for the cattle to eat, and they are dying—to add the final touch of misery to the situation. In one district, an official report says, 1,000,000 cattle have died of starvation. As the cattle are absolutely necessary in almost every phase of Indian agriculture, this will prove a much more lasting blow than the failure of the crops. Lord George Hamilton, secretary of state for India, recently announced in the House of Commons that, even with good climatic conditions during the next seasons, it will take six years for central India to recover from this loss of live-stock. Men and women will actually be forced to draw the plows and to transport the crops with their own hands.



THE FAMINE AREA IS SHOWN IN SOLID BLACK.

The Cause of the Famine.

India is a country not quite half as large as the United States, with four times its population. These 300,000,000 people must be fed from their own crops, as there is, relatively, no manufacturing resource to buy food with. There are parts of India with a population of 1,000 people to the square mile; and there are millions upon millions of farm laborers, vagrants, gypsies, and nondescript classes, whose means of living, even in times of plenty, are inscrutable. In a normal year the



LOADING AMERICAN CORN ON THE STEAMER "QUITO" FOR THE FAMINE SUFFERERS.

country, as a whole, produces a little more food than is actually necessary to support its people. But the crops are dependent on the monsoons—the southwest monsoon in the beginning of summer, and the northeast monsoon in the winter. If these periodic rains are late, or are insufficient in quantity, trouble comes, and the spring and winter crops of wheat, barley, and pulses in the north, and of rice and millets in the south, begin to suffer. When the monsoons fail absolutely, there is destitution in the affected district, and when a persistent succession of failures and partial failures occurs, there comes a great and terrible famine, like that the country is now groaning under. Since the first great famine of which there are records devastated the land in 1770, when 10,000,000 perished in Bengal alone, India has scarcely passed a decade free from scarcity of grain in one district or another. The British Government expects a drought about twice in every nine years, a famine once in every eleven or twelve years, and a great famine like the present about twice in a century.

What Great Britain is Doing.

It cannot be said that the British Government has sought to evade the responsibility of feeding these starving millions. On the contrary, it has a most complete system of videttes to anticipate troubles in any district, of government works to give destitute people a chance to earn their living, of government funds to feed those who cannot possibly work. It has a famine code, which reduces to a science the various operations of locating, estimating, and fighting the famine. It has many noble servants who give themselves up to the task of feeding the starving. From Lord Curzon and Lady Curzon down, the entire governmental body is giving of its own resources, is stirring the whole civilized world to aid, is devoting magnificent energy to the task of giving the wisest and most far-reaching relief. Yet, the best that can be done is pitifully inadequate for such a huge task. There are areas of thousands of square miles absolutely destitute; and what can a few thousand Englishmen do with the vast populations in the Native States? The subordinate native officials are generally dishonest, and if the work of relief is to be effective, the last step of its administration must be conducted by white men. The starving people are restrained by caste prejudices and religious rules, as well as by the inertia of squalor, from making any effort to procure relief until the last moment. Then, with hundreds of miles to drag their way to reach relief, their strength does not suffice; the missionaries tell ghastly stories of parties of destitute people arriving at the relief works only an hour or so too late. The 6,000,000 people now laboring on the government works include men, women, and children. They break stones for highways, dig wells, transport earth on irrigation works, build huts, and help on the fam-



STARVING NATIVES WAITING FOR GOVERNMENT RELIEF.

ine railroads. For this work, the men receive about three cents a day; the women and children less. The tasks are made as light as possible, and are proportioned according to the capacity for work of the individual. The aim is to give just enough money to enable the destitute to buy food; and it has been found that where it is physically possible for a sufferer to work, it is kindness to make him or her earn the pittance. The millions now employed on the relief works bring their families with them and camp in squalid villages near the roads and dams on which they are laboring. The overcrowding of these villages, and the utter misery of the occupants, are causing fearful inroads of disease and an almost hopeless moral degradation. To the starving ones that are unable to work, food is doled out. To supply this there is the Famine Insurance Fund, maintained by an annual tax, and charitable contributions from wealthy Indians—Lord and Lady Curzon themselves have given $3,000—the English Mansion House Fund, and donations from America and other countries.

America's Aid for India.

With the realization in America of this great calamity has come a rapid determination to send a generous contribution to the relief fund. Aroused by Dr. Sheldon's editorials in the Topeka *Capital* on the famine situation, Kansas began to take subscriptions of corn for India, with Governor Stanley at the head of the movement. Twenty thousand bushels were forwarded to New York and sent to India by the steamer *Quito*, which was chartered by the United States Government to convey the supplies raised by the *Christian Herald*. The ship sailed on May 10 with 5,000 tons of corn, which, with various contributions of money, is to be distributed in India by an interdenominational committee of missionaries. The Ecumenical Conference, when in session in New York, appointed a committee of one hundred of the foremost citizens of the metropolis to raise funds for the work of relief, and the executive committee of this organization is setting to work with zeal to cover the whole country with its propaganda. Mr. W. E. Dodge is the chairman, and Mr. John Crosby Brown, treasurer. Contributions are sent to Brown Bros. & Co., 59 Wall Street, New York. Mr. Dodge's committee has applied to the mayors of all American cities to aid in the work. The mission boards of the various churches are raising funds in their respective fields, and money sent to the treasurers of the various boards will be wisely used. Churches are taking special collections, and hundreds of influential newspapers are starting subscriptions. A cargo of corn sent to Chicago to be sold for the benefit of the famine sufferers sold for sixty-five cents a bushel, twice as much as it was worth—an evidence of the strong appeal the situation is making to American hearts. Canada is raising relief money; and, with the Lord Mayor's London fund of over $1,000,000, an energetic subscription in Berlin and other European cities, there will undoubtedly be a saving of hundreds of thousands of lives through relief measures outside of the efforts of the British Government. When three cents earned a day will keep the laborer on the relief works alive, it is pleasant to figure out the results of these millions of dollars sent to India, and to know that the end of the century facilities for transferring money by cable make it sure that the relief will reach its destination almost immediately.



MR. WILLIAM E. DODGE.



THE AMERICAN MISSIONARY COMMITTEE TO DISTRIBUTE SUPPLIES FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The Ecumenical Conference on Missions.

The Ecumenical Conference on Missions, held in Carnegie Hall, New York City, April 21–May 1, was remarkable for its dimensions, its quality, and the popular interest it inspired in subjects like the Indian famine. Nothing like it, in size and ecumenicity, has ever been seen in this country; nor have either of the two previous similar conferences held in Great Britain ever approached it. One hundred and fifteen missionary societies or boards, working in 48 different lands, were represented. The number of delegates was 1,500, of whom more than 600 were missionaries. The 75 main and sectional sessions of the conference had an estimated attendance of 163,000 persons, and 50,000 people attended the exhibit of missionary literature, etc., held in an adjacent parish-house. The press of New York gave an unusual amount of attention to the meetings, and thousands who were not present, through verbatim reports of the speeches, have been informed and inspired by the deliberations of the experts. The President of the United States, Governor Roosevelt, of New York State, Admiral Phillip of the Navy, U. S. Commissioner of Education Harris, Presidents Low of Columbia, and Angell of Michigan Universities, and many of the most eminent leaders of the business world honored the conference with their presence and with words of praise for the mission cause and the important educational and political ends which foreign missions subserve. The honorary president of the conference was Hon. Benjamin Harrison, ex-President of the United States, whose address on taking the chair was one which will ever be quoted by friends of missions as a classic deliverance on the fundamental relations between Christian missions and the extension and preservation of civilization. The conference was a deliberative, and not a legislative, body; and hence it is impossible to point to any definite resolutions as embodying the consensus of opinion. But it was clear, to those qualified to judge, that the conference marked the beginning of a new epoch of comity at home and abroad in mission-work. The missionaries at the front and the laymen at home are weary of denominational strife. Hereafter there will be more economy of administration at home, and less overlapping of fields abroad. The presence of veteran missionaries, scarred with wounds, men like John G. Paton, of the New Hebrides, William Ashmore and J. Hudson Taylor, of China, Bishop Thoburn and Jacob Chamberlain, of India, and Bishop Ridley, of British Columbia, added much to popular interest in the conference, and made it memorable. Dr. Paton's plea for action by the United States Government in putting an end to trade in liquors among the natives of the New Hebrides always deeply stirred the audiences which he addressed, and one of the by-products of the conference was the organization, in the United States, of a branch of the British Society for the Protection of Native Races—a society which has for its mission the securing of governmental action against those who traffic in liquor and in slaves.

The Methodist General Conference.

The twenty-third quadrennial General Conference, which opened in Chicago the first week in May, and was in session up to the 29th, has been the most important meeting of the highest court of the Methodist Episcopal Church of the North held since the separation of the Church, North and South. By its action the first day of its session, it at once gave the laity parity of standing in the General Conference; thus democratizing, in some degree, a denomination which has been peculiarly undemocratic in its structure, notwithstanding its peculiar mission to the people. The officials and delegates then turned to consideration of future relations of comity with the branch of the denomination in the South; to the consolidation of denominational societies and the abolition or combination of denominational newspapers, and thus the possibility of eliminating wasteful multiplication of officials and machinery; to the modification of the rule of the Discipline prohibiting amusements of a certain sort to church members, which rule it has been found impossible to enforce, and which has proved deterrent in its effect on those who otherwise might have joined the denomination; to the defining of the authority and scope of work of the missionary bishops of the Church; and to a consideration of the influences at work lessening the grip of the Church upon the world and the loyalty of church members to denominational agencies. Removals by death and the waning physical power of several of the bishops made it needful for the Conference to elect two bishops. The demands of the work in foreign lands made necessary especial consideration of the best methods of superintending the growth of the Church there. The independent press of the denomination, prior to the assembling of the conference, had called vigorously for investigations of certain facts and tendencies in the lives of the officials of the Church; and the temper of the conference reflected this disposition to probe alleged or real scandals to the bottom. With the accession of lay members the conference took on virility and showed a disposition to improve denominational affairs, no matter what obstacles lay in the way.

The Populist Factions.

The two Populist conventions which met on May 9 received about equal attention from the daily press. The Middle-of-the-Road or Anti-fusion Populists, who met in Cincinnati, polled in 1898 hardly as many votes in all the Northern States combined as the Socialists polled in the single State of Massachusetts. The strength of this organization is claimed to be largely in the South, while the fusion movement has attained its greatest growth in the States of the Northwest. And yet this convention at Cincinnati received many columns in the press dispatches, while the Socialist convention, held a few weeks earlier in Indianapolis, received barely a few lines. The present indications are that the Indianapolis ticket—Debs and Harriman—will be more generally supported by the uncompromising radicals of the country than the ticket named at Cincinnati—Wharton Barker and Ignatius Donnelly. The Populist convention held at Sioux Falls, South Dakota, on the other hand, represented a powerful element in the political life of the country. In 1894 the Populists polled upward of a million votes, and the support which nearly all of them gave to Mr. Bryan in 1896 and promise to give to the Democratic party so long as the Chicago platform remains its creed, has been the greatest obstacle to the success of the efforts of Eastern Democrats to bring their party back to its old conservatism.



MR. WHARTON BARKER.



HON. IGNATIUS DONNELLY, OF MINNESOTA.

The Fusion Programme.

The practical certainty that Mr. Bryan would be nominated by the Democrats made the Populist leaders anxious that their convention should facilitate the complete fusion of all the elements which worked together in 1896. At a conference of Populists, Democrats, and Silver Republicans, held in Chicago just before the Sioux Falls convention, it was agreed that the Populist leaders should try to get their convention to leave the selection of the candidate for Vice-President to a committee which should confer with the Silver Republicans and Democrats at Kansas City; but that, if this effort failed, ex-Congressman Charles A. Towne, of Minnesota, should be named for the place. The only serious contest in the convention was over the alternative here presented. Mr. Bryan was nominated by acclamation; and a platform was adopted which went beyond the platform recently adopted by the Nebraska Democrats only in the explicitness with which it urged public ownership as the remedy for railway discriminations in favor of trusts. As regards the increase of the currency, the Populist convention was more conservative than the Democratic, inasmuch as it urged that the new issue of silver currency demanded should be used, "dollar for dollar," to retire notes issued by the banks, under the re-

cent currency act. Thus far all was harmony, and promised complete unity of action among the fusion parties. When, however, it came to the matter of nominating a candidate for Vice-President, the leaders who undertook to have the choice left to a committee found that they had against them not only a strong party sentiment that the party should nominate a full ticket, but also a strong personal enthusiasm for Mr. Towne as the nominee. By a vote of two to one, the convention decided to nominate, and then, by acclamation, chose Mr. Towne. The candidate chosen is a man forty-one years of age, who, in 1894, was elected to Congress from the Duluth district in Minnesota as a Republican, receiving 18,000 votes as against 12,000 for his Democratic and Populist opponents combined. On the floor of the House he became the recognized leader of the Silver Republicans, and when the silver issue became the dividing one he gave his support to Mr. Bryan. For several years he has been the official head of the Silver Republican party; but his nomination, instead of accenting the silver issue, rather lends emphasis to the issue of "imperialism;" as Mr. Towne's readiness to subordinate every other issue to that of the independence of Cuba and the Philippines has led the Silver Republicans of Minnesota to take the name of Lincoln Republicans. Mr. Towne's acceptance by the Democrats at Kansas City seems probable.



Photo by Mandelkern, New York.

MR. JOB HARRIMAN.



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MR. EUGENE V. DEBS.

The Presidential Situation.

The Populist convention at Sioux Falls did more than nominate its candidate and define its principles; it also nominated the Presidential candidate for the Democratic party and dictated its platform. What was before a strong probability is now a moral certainty—Mr. Bryan will be renominated at Kansas City. He is now in the race, and there are no reasonably conceivable circumstances that will allow his withdrawal. Nor can the Kansas City platform be essentially different from that of the Sioux Falls convention. It may be more extensive or less; but the main planks must be the same, else the joint candidate is placed in a perilous posture. The Democratic party must, therefore, find itself in some embarrassment and possibly in humiliation. The chairman of the Populist convention boasted that "if the People's party were to indulge in such a parade (as the Alexanders and Cæsars after their wars of triumph) they would have the right to lead in procession before the assembled people and the Government as their chief and greatest captive the Democratic party and the platform they had adopted." The conquest seems now complete; for while in 1896 the Democrats invited the indorsement of the Populists by anticipating their platform, they are now to be merely the indorsers of the Populist candidate and programme. The forces are to be the same as in 1896, so far as we

can now see ; but the Populists have the prestige of the nomination and the position of honor in the battle. Ex-Congressman "Jerry" Simpson, with others, urged that as they had nominated a Populist and not a Democrat for President, they should allow the Democrats to select the candidate for Vice-President from their ranks ; but even this concession was refused, that the People's party might preserve its integrity. The nomination of Mr. Towne for the vice-presidency would seem still further to embarrass the Democrats ; for if he is not indorsed by them, it may be at the peril of the estrangement of his devoted supporters. At any rate, every step so far taken is in the direction of the further alienation of the old-fashioned Democrats—of those who were the backbone of the party in the days of President Cleveland. It is conceivable that, unhampered by the action of the Populists, the Bryan Democrats might without sacrifice of principle, but with readjustment of the old issues in a new relationship and the addition of others, have invited back to them this large contingent that helped to make Mr. McKinley's election possible. That opportunity seems now to be gone.

Republican Indorsement of the Administration.

Meanwhile, the Republican conventions held throughout the country, and especially in the States where the party is strongest, have declared for President McKinley's renomination with a unanimity quite new to this generation. The Administration has been heartily commended, and in many instances delegations have been instructed to vote for Mr. McKinley at Philadelphia. He is unmistakably his party's candidate to-day, as he was four years ago. The resolutions of these State conventions quite generally condemn trusts—in some instances demanding a constitutional amendment giving Congress power over them—and express confidence in the ability of the Republican party to deal with the various problems growing out of the war with Spain.

Admiral Dewey's Tour.

The anti-Bryan Democrats may have had a passing hope that Admiral Dewey might gather the strength of the old Democracy about him ; but the response which the ill-timed announcement of his ambition called forth from all parts of the land—the fact that he has taken a stand for no principle, and the instruction of one State delegation after another for Bryan in spite of this announcement—soon dispelled this hope. Nor has there been found sufficient warrant for his independent nomination. His trip through the West and the South has awakened great and genuine enthusiasm ; but it was for him as hero of Manila, and not as a possible Presidential candidate, we are bound to believe. There are evidences of a universal regret that he should have been persuaded to this step that has given him only chagrin and pain, and he is excused his blunder by the devotion of millions whom he will not find ungrateful. The republic will appraise with increasing value his service, but it is in no temper now to give an office of such tremendously large present import merely as a token of gratitude. The whole country has watched the Admiral in his journeys through the country, but not with jealous eye; and now that he is back, it is disposed with him to wonder how he could have been persuaded to think that he would like to be President. He has a high and unique position, the universal esteem of his countrymen, and the satisfaction of having performed a greater service than he should find opportunity to give again to his country, even as her President.



HON. CHARLES A. TOWNE, OF MINNESOTA.

The Contested Senate Seats.

During the session of Congress just about to close, the Senate has been required to expend much time and nervous energy in the consideration of undecided claims to two of its seats. Late in April, by the exceedingly close vote of 33 to 32, it was decided that former Senator Matthew Stanley Quay, of

Pennsylvania, was not entitled to a seat on the appointment of the governor of his State, the Legislature having failed to choose his successor. There was ample precedent for this action on the part of the Senate; nevertheless, the country was surprised. In the meantime the Committee on Privileges and Elections, after an exhaustive inquiry into the charges of bribery brought against Mr. William A. Clark, of Montana, had unanimously reported a resolution that Mr. Clark was not duly and legally elected to a seat in the Senate of the United States by the Legislature of the State of Montana. Pending action by the Senate on this resolution, Mr. Clark, on May 15, made a statement in the Senate denying the charges, and announced that he had tendered his resignation. Following close on the heels of this announcement came the report from Montana that the resignation had been accepted, and Mr. Clark himself appointed to fill the vacancy caused thereby. The officer who made the appointment was Lieutenant-Governor Spriggs, acting in the absence of Governor Smith. No one questioned the power of the acting governor to make the appointment if a vacancy had actually been caused by Mr. Clark's resignation; but it was contended that, if the Senate were to adopt the report of the Committee on Privileges and Elections, the effect would be to declare that Mr. Clark had never held a seat in the Senate, and therefore could not create a vacancy by "resigning," while an appointment by the acting governor to fill the vacancy existing from the expiration of Senator Mantle's term, in 1899, would be held invalid for the same reasons that prevailed in the Quay case. The friends of Mr. Clark, on the other hand, have argued that the Montana Legislature believed that it had performed its full duty in electing Mr. Clark Senator, while in Pennsylvania the Legislature obviously failed to elect. A better opportunity for constitutional quibbling never before presented itself. Meanwhile, the resolution favoring a constitutional amendment for the popular election of Senators, adopted by the House in April, is still at rest in the Senate committee.

State Legislation of 1900.

In the May number of the REVIEW, several important enactments of the New York Legislature were summarized. In ten other States legislative sessions have been held during the first five months of 1900, and most of the law-making of the year has been completed. The Texas anti-trust law, which has heretofore represented the extreme form of repressive legislation, has been virtually reënacted in Mississippi, where the Legislature has defined the illegal combination as any "contract, understanding, or agreement, expressed or implied, between two or more persons, corporations, firms, or associations" in restraint of trade. The new law is explicit in its prohibitions of all attempts on the part of such combinations to raise or lower either the price or the output of any commodity, or to hinder competition in any form. The Legislature showed its friendliness to the movement for industrial improvement in the State, in which both whites and blacks have an interest, by voting the sum of $40,000 for the establishment of a textile school. In South Carolina, a new board of control for the State liquor-dispensary system has been created. Another change in the law provides for the future distribution of the profits of the business in such a way that those counties and towns which maintain dispensaries will receive a much larger proportion of the surplus than those from which no part of the revenue is derived. Heretofore the fund has been divided solely with reference to the needs of the public-school system. It remains to be seen whether the change will have the effect of inducing communities now opposed to the liquor traffic to open dispensaries. The Virginia Legislature submitted to the vote of the people, to be taken on the fourth Thursday in May, the question of calling a constitutional convention. One result of such a convention would probably be a restriction of the franchise, similar to that now in force in Mississippi and several other Southern States. In Iowa, several changes were made by the Legislature in the methods of assessing the property of corporations for taxation. Hereafter express companies are to be taxed on the mileage-unit plan, and telephone and telegraph companies are to be assessed by each municipality and county through which their lines run, according to mileage. The Legislature has provided for State supervision of all the county and private insane asylums in Iowa.

Revision of the New York Charter.

The members of the New York City Charter Revision Commission, appointed by Governor Roosevelt in accordance with the law passed by the last Legislature are: George L. Rives, Charles C. Beaman, Franklin Bartlett, Henry W. Taft, John D. Crimmins, Frank J. Goodnow, Edgar J. Levey, and Alexander T. Mason, of the Borough of Manhattan; Charles A. Schieren, James McKean, Isaac M. Kapper, and William C. De Witt, of the Borough of Brooklyn; James L. Wells, of the Borough of the Bronx; George W. Davison, of the Borough of Queens, and George Cromwell, of the Borough of Richmond. The task of the commission will be, not to make a new charter, but to revise the existing charter in the light of

experience, as Governor Roosevelt has stated. The governor has especially directed the commissioners' attention to the question of the New York City water-supply and the desirability of such amendments to the charter as will secure municipal ownership of the water-supply and shut out the Ramapo and all other schemes in the interest of private corporations. The commission has announced its intention to consider this matter, and also the proposed reforms of the city's educational system, the question of the mayor's term of office and power of removal, the organization of the municipal assembly, the borough system, the bureau of elections, and other points in the charter which seem to require amendment. The chairman of the commission is Mr. Rives, a member of the Rapid Transit Commission and a public-spirited citizen of Manhattan. The membership is composed both of practical politicians (in the best sense of the term) and of men who have made a theoretical study of city government, but the purely *doctrinaire* element is notably lacking. Tammany was ignored in the make-up of the commission, but the political abilities of the leaders in that organization have usually been displayed in quite different fields, and it has not been customary for them to seek "places" demanding much work and offering no pay.



Photo by Hollinger.

MR. GEORGE L. RIVES.

(Chairman of the New York Charter Commission.)

The Strike Epidemic Spreads.

The strike epidemic shows no signs of abatement. The first of May this year, as for many years before the depression, was the signal for widespread strikes in the building trades to gain the eight-hour day. This year the strikes were notably successful—New England papers reporting that nearly every "unionized" town in that section has now the eight-hour work-day for masons, carpenters, plasterers, paper-hangers, plumbers, and everybody connected with the construction of houses. The fact that these building trades workmen are employed by small contractors in sharp competition with each other, and not by great corporations or trusts, has made it difficult for the employers to act unitedly in resisting the demand for shorter hours. Furthermore, the fact that American workmen in these trades work at high tension has made eight hours seem to most employers a reasonable work-day. Certain it is, that our masons, for example, working but eight hours and receiving high wages, put up brick walls at slightly less cost per thousand than Continental masons working nearly half again as long and receiving hardly half as much for the day. Where men are expected to work with all their might the hours must be short, or the men cannot keep up their work day after day without losing vigor. Outside of the building trades, the most conspicuous strikes have been those on the New York Central Railroad and on the street railroads of St. Louis and its suburbs. The strike on the New York Central threatened for a few days a serious tie-up, but it was settled by the courteous attitude taken by the man-



SHUT OUT.—From the *Tribune* (New York).

agement toward their employees, and the substantial concessions made in the matter of wages. The points the management was ready to grant were granted so promptly, and those it was not ready to grant were refused so firmly, that the whole matter was settled before bad blood had been stirred, and before many employees had even quit their posts. The St. Louis strikes, on the other hand, were not well met. The original cause of the strikes seems to have been the discharge of union men because they were union men, and when public officials tried to have the dispute submitted to impartial arbitrators the reply was given by the companies that there was nothing to arbitrate.

Public Sympathy with the Strikers.

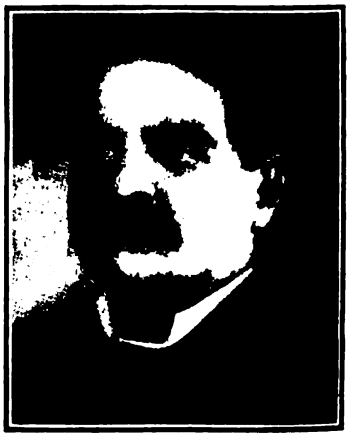
Meanwhile, nearly all the roads of the great city were tied up, nearly everybody had to walk to and from work, and the stores were practically deserted. More than this, sympathy with the strikers found vent in the storming of cars when manned by new hands who had taken the strikers' places. And finally the police, in order to disperse the mobs, felt compelled to form mounted squads and ride into the crowds, slashing with their sabers and seriously wounding a number of people. Despite the lawlessness of the methods pursued by some of the strike sympathizers, public sympathy seems generally to have remained with the men, and finally the management of the companies felt compelled to offer concessions in order to effect a settlement. Matters are still unadjusted as we go to press, but the management has definitely agreed that hereafter no man shall be discharged because of his membership in the union. So far as the original cause of the strike is concerned, the men have been victorious. The fate of their demands respecting hours and wages is not yet determined.

The American Steel and Wire Company.

The theory advocated in the May number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, that the best practical tendency for trust legislation was in the direction of securing the utmost publicity of business methods and accounts, has been strikingly exemplified by the experience, during the past month, of the American Steel and Wire Company and its stockholders. The American Steel and Wire Company is a corporation owning a score of large steel mills clustered for the most part about Chicago. It controls four-fifths of the wire fencing and nails produced in this country. The chief manager of the company was Mr. John W. Gates, the chairman of the board of directors. The product of the trust had shown an advance in price larger even than the advance in the price of steel rails and other products of iron. The retail price of nails, for instance, has been for this year more than 300 per cent. of the price in 1897. The trust had been showing every evidence and making every claim of prosperity, and was paying dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. per year on its common stock. On a visit to New York in the latter part of April, Mr. Gates was interviewed by a reporter of a metropolitan newspaper, and announced that there was an excessive overproduction; that many of the mills of the company were to be shut down immediately, and that the iron trade in general was in a relatively bad condition. Such an announcement came as a thunderstroke to the commercial world. Twelve mills of the American Steel and Wire Company were actually shut down, and of course the stock of the trust fell rapidly, bringing with it sympathetic declines in many industrial shares, especially in iron and steel stocks. Mr. Gates was accused of booming the situation as regarded his company in previous statements, and of following this course up with the note of calamity in order to make profits on the stock of his company, which he was alleged to have sold short. A number of Wall Street men who had been hard hit by the sudden decline in American Steel and Wire shares made a vigorous protest, and a bitter litigation was carried on personally against Mr. Gates by holders of the stock who had suffered. Mr. Gates himself denied absolutely having "gone short" of the stock, and claimed that he had only given out the interview after the most persistent efforts of the reporter to get it. Certain other members of the directorate demanded his resignation, and claimed that the entire proceeding of shutting down the mills was unwise; that what was needed was a reduction in the price of wire and nails. Their views finally seemed to have prevailed; Mr. Gates has resigned the chairmanship, the prices of the product of the mills have been reduced, and the mills have started up again.

The Slump in Metal Prices.

The most conservative observers of trade conditions do not believe that this incident and the important fall in the prices of lead and various other metals mean a sudden



MR. JOHN W. GATES.

and radical break in the high general condition of prosperity the country has been enjoying. It seems more probable that, along with enormous production stimulated by the high prices, the high prices themselves have tended to make all building operations that could possibly be delayed wait for a better purchasing period. The very widespread epidemic of strikes has, too, undoubtedly postponed part of the normal demand for material. An example of this reluctance to buy is undoubtedly shown in the export of iron. The first quarter of 1900 showed an export of only 27,000 tons of American pig iron, as against 87,000 tons for a similar period of 1899. Whatever be the cause of the phenomenon, it is quite certain that with an ideal system of public enlightenment as to the affairs of the American Steel and Wire Company referred to above, it would not have come about that this sudden shock could unsettle the entire stock market, depressing prices to a figure only two dollars per share above the lowest point of last year, shutting up mills by the wholesale, depriving thousands of workmen of their means of support, and creating suspicion as to the methods and the sincerity of the men in charge of these great industrial undertakings.

The Ice Trust in New York.

Where a commodity comes so closely home to the personal necessities of the people as the summer ice supply, public feeling is evidently not disposed to wait for the finally wise legislation calculated to reveal the exact truth as to the workings of monopolistic companies. In New York the ice company which had succeeded in obtaining practically complete control of the supply, not only for the metropolis, but largely for Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington, announced this spring that, owing to the failure of the ice crop on the nearby stretches of the Hudson River, and owing to the smaller supply from Maine, it would be necessary to charge the consumer of small quantities of ice sixty cents per hundred pounds instead of thirty cents. With the sudden oncoming of hot weather, a popular outcry was raised against this huge increase in the cost of a commodity absolutely necessary for the comfort, the health, and, at times, for the lives of the people in the crowded districts of New York. Every public print in the city of any importance vigorously took up the task of investigation and protest. It was freely asserted that the monopoly in ice was made possible by the heavy interests of city officials in the stocks of the trust. It was shown that artificial ice could be manufactured and sold for twenty-five or thirty cents a hundred pounds, and as a matter of fact in the



FOCUSED.—From the *World* (New York).

city of New Orleans artificial ice is sold at the first-named figure. Every citizen of New York City who could read the papers was soon in full possession of the facts regarding the trust's purchases of ice and the price it had to pay. Within a few days after the wave of investigation and protest began, the ice company was forced to still the clamor by instituting the sale of five-cent blocks of ice from house to house, delivered by them at the rate of thirty cents per hundred.

The Nicaragua Canal.

The passage by the House of Representatives on May 2 of Mr. Hepburn's bill for the construction of the Nicaragua Canal at a cost of $140,000,000, and placing $10,000,000 in President McKinley's hands for buying concessions and beginning the work, indicates, at least, the deep interest of the country in the project, and the non-partisan nature of the support accorded to the enterprise. The bill was passed, after two days' debate, by the overwhelming vote of 225 to 35. The fact that the bill confers unusual powers on the President, leaving much to his discretion, not only speaks well for the confidence of Congress in the Executive, but furnishes additional evidence that the advocates of an American isthmian canal have reached an agreement that action must be taken quickly, and without the ordinary restraints which so often hedge about large governmental undertakings. In the Senate, the bill was favorably reported from the Committee on Inter-Oceanic Canals by Senator Morgan, and it now seems certain that the United States is finally determined to build and own the great canal.

The Government of Porto Rico.

After the enactment of the Porto Rican legislation described in our May number, it was thought advisable still further to safeguard the interests of good government in that island, especially in the matter of



DR. JACOB H. HOLLANDER.
(The new treasurer of Porto Rico.)

franchises. To this end amendments were adopted by Congress which provide that all franchises shall be approved by the President of the United States before going into operation, and that all charters "shall be subject to alteration, amendment, or appeal." Stock-watering is forbidden; the Government is empowered to regulate charges for service; and it is provided that the property of corporations holding franchises may be purchased by the Government at a fair valuation. Governor Allen was duly inaugurated on May 1, and an admirable beginning was made in the administration of Porto Rico's fiscal affairs in the appointment by President McKinley of Dr. J. H. Hollander as treasurer and Mr. John R. Garrison as auditor of the insular government. Dr. Hollander has for several years held a chair in the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore, and has won national recognition as a student of finance; he was sent to Porto Rico several months ago to report on the island's system of taxation and revenue. Mr. Garrison has had a long experience in responsible positions connected with the Treasury Department at Washington. By these appointments, following that of Governor Allen, the administration has given the best possible guarantee of a clean and able colonial government. Since the settlement of the tariff question trade between Porto Rico and New York has quickly revived.

The Hawaiian Franchise.

Congress has had to face in Hawaii conditions somewhat similar to those which led to the Fifteenth Amendment; and there it has, apparently, committed a serious mistake in the civil-government bill which became a law late in April. Instead of giving the right of franchise the same bounds which it had under the provisional government (and which are reported to have been satisfactory), the property qualifications of senatorial electors have been removed, and the only limitations that now stand are those which apply as well to electors for



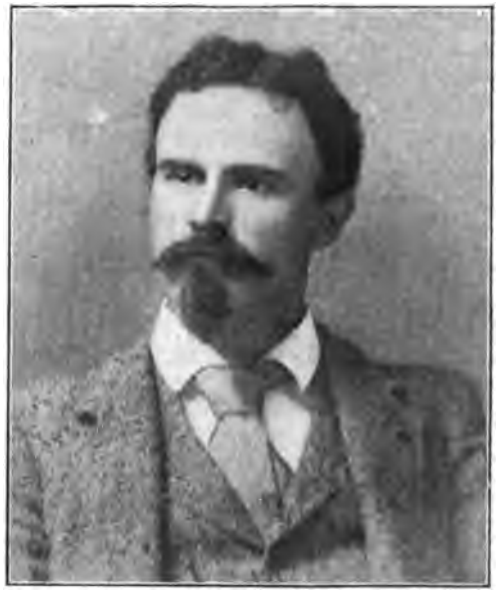
GOV. SANFORD B. DOLE, OF HAWAII.

members of the lower house—the ability to read and write either the English or Hawaiian language. It would seem that the advice of the commission should have prevailed in this as in some other matters, even if the theory of suffrage there did not entirely accord with the traditions

here, the conditions being widely different. Those dominant in Hawaii receive news of this modification of the original bill with grave doubts of its wisdom, feeling that such an extension is likely to make against Americanism in the island, and to imperil the institutions we are seeking to establish. No important changes have been made in the bill as described in our April number, except by an amendment prohibiting the sale of liquor in saloons. The Hawaiians, though not entirely satisfied, welcome the new government as guaranteeing stability and certainty of domestic peace, and hope that when "Congress becomes well informed about Hawaiian conditions and needs," legislation will be adapted to meet them. Their fears that some carpet-bagger, job-chaser governor would be set over them have been agreeably dispelled by the appointment of ex-President Dole to the governorship. Mr. Dole served for several years on the Hawaiian Supreme Court bench, became President of the Republic in 1894, and in 1898, immediately after the annexation of Hawaii to the United States, was appointed provisional governor. No better appointment could have been made.

The Montgomery Conference.

The New South, perplexed by the race problem entailed to it by the Old South, and compelled to help work out a solution formulated by the North, has now, in its new strength, attacked the problem for itself. The complexity of this problem alone would have been sufficient to discourage any such attempt through these years of resuscitation, even if the whole matter had not been practically taken out of their hands. There has been one dominant motive in all their political and social struggles through this period; and that has been one which the far-away North has not been able fully to appreciate or fairly to judge. That motive has been the supremacy of the white man; and when that has been menaced, the Fifteenth Amendment, the prescribed solution, has lost its potency to restrain. It was around this simple paragraph of the Constitution that most of the discussion of the Montgomery conference was waged. This conference was a gathering of Southern men for the consideration of their own peculiar problems, chief of which was the one just named. It was a notable occasion, not so much because of the value of the contributions as of the spirit shown by these representatives of the North. There was a wide divergence of view as to what should be done. One gentleman, widely known as a lecturer, stoutly maintained that the white man would never permit the negro to have an equal part in the industrial, political, social, and civil advantages of the United States; and that, therefore, all discussion of plans for their amalgamation was futile. He advocated deportation to the West, where storage reservoirs can redeem a territory equal to the wants of 70,000,000, or to the newly acquired islands of the sea, or to repartitioned



EX-GOV. WILLIAM A. M'CORKLE, OF WEST VIRGINIA.

Africa; but with this view there seemed to be little sympathy. It is an impracticable scheme, and moreover the negro population is necessary industrially to the development of the South. Another extreme view was presented by Mr. Waddell, of North Carolina, by Mr. Murphy, the organizer of the conference, and supported by Mr. Bourke Cockran, advocating the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment, and so remitting the question of suffrage to the individual States. But the more temperate view seemed to prevail. Ex-Governor McCorkle, of West Virginia, and ex-Secretary Herbert, while maintaining with stoutness that white men must keep the control if they mean to preserve Anglo-Saxon civilization, contested as strenuously that the right of franchise was the vital and underlying principle of the life of this free people, and must not be violated. The remedy of the present conditions they hold to lie in an "honest and inflexible educational and property basis, administered fairly for black and white." This limitation would not endanger the dominancy of the white man, and yet would involve no discrimination on account of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." In this direction Louisiana and Mis-

sissippi have already moved, and other States are following. Ex-Governor McCorkle urged against the argument for the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment, and very pertinently, that while such a course would make this a local question, it was the very thing they did not want; "this question must be settled by the hearty coöperation of the United States."

Census-Taking In Cuba.

The results of the recent census taken in Cuba under the direction of the United States War Department are in every way encouraging. In the first place, the island was found to have a larger population than had been estimated. The returns made to General Sanger, the director of the census, give an aggregate of 1,572,797 inhabitants, as against 1,631,687 returned by the census taken under Spanish authority in 1887. Thus the loss in the twelve years amounted to 58,890, or 3.6 per cent. General Sanger inclines to the opinion that at the outbreak of the revolution in 1895 the population had reached a total of little less than 1,800,000. The losses from three years of war and the reconcentration policy of General Weyler may therefore have approximated 200,000. Great as these losses were, the island is to-day far better peopled than reports had led us to suppose. The white people of Cuban birth number 910,298, or 58 per cent. of the total; the negroes and mixed breeds less than one-third of the total. Considered with reference to the proposed basis of suffrage in Cuba, the census returns are most significant. On the grounds of education, property-holding, or membership in the Cuban army, at least 140,000 native Cubans are qualified to vote in the municipal elections on June 16. The census discovered only 96,083 white males born in Spain, 21 years of age and over; but from these must be deducted more than 66,000 who have registered their Spanish citizenship in accordance with the treaty, so that the Spanish voters in Cuba will number all told less than 30,000. The domination of native-born white Cubans in Cuban politics is assured beyond doubt. The most somber fact disclosed by the census is the illiteracy of 43 per cent. of the population over ten years of age. This only makes more evident the need of education under American auspices.

The Cuban Postal Scandal.

Charles F. W. Neely, chief financial agent of the Cuban Post-Office Department, indicted on charge of embezzling $36,000 of Government money; Director of Posts Rathbone practically deposed; Postmaster Thompson, of Havana, arrested for misappropriation and other irregularities and two deputy-auditors and two clerks placed under arrest or surveillance,—are the startling results to date of a recent investigation of postal accounts in Cuba. It is difficult to look upon this wide-reaching defalcation without deepest indignation that the country's honor had been held so lightly by those who should have guarded it with greatest care. Such thievery during the period of our guardianship is doubly regrettable, because it must awaken in those whom we are seeking to help work out their political salvation a suspicion of our sincerity and honesty of purpose, or to raise doubts as to our competency, either of which must be a serious hindrance to those who have these great tasks seriously at heart and in hand. And yet it is unreasonable to find fault with the whole system and the policy that lay behind it, or to question the good motives and integrity of all those remotely or directly responsible for the appointment of those officials. While it is true that appointment to office as reward for political service, or by personal favor, is likely to weaken the sense of responsibility, and to make appointees oblivious to the obligation of service, it should also be remembered that the most careful examination may insure against incompetency, but not against dishonesty. Our criticisms should therefore await the investigation. The Administration is to be credited with admirable appointments in the main to the newly created colonial and territorial positions, and this debit is but a timely lesson to emphasize the need of most discriminating care in future selections. These offenses, though most grave, cannot in themselves condemn us or our policy; but hesitation to investigate with rigor or delay in punishing the guilty would bring a permanent and deserved disgrace. There is every prospect that these cases will be handled vigorously and without partisan favor. It is the only safe course for those in power and for the ultimate success of our dealings with Cuba and the other islands where like problems are presented. The incident cannot be wholly regrettable, unfortunate as it is, if it has as one of its results the wholesome effect of impressing the importance of securing every possible guarantee for the purity and efficiency of our civil service in the new territories, where we have become in some measure responsible for their wise government.

General Otis Returns from the Philippines.

Of General Otis, who sailed from Manila for the United States on May 5, it may truthfully be said that no American official ever more fairly earned a vacation. The difficulties of his task at Manila have been enormous. To suppress the insurrection might well have taxed the powers of the ablest of our

generals, but that was only a part of the responsibility that our administration at Washington laid on General Otis's broad shoulders. Not only was he expected to fight to a finish the tedious contest with Aguinaldo and his followers; he was to build up and set running the machinery of a new civil government, to organize a system of taxation, settle the claims of the Spanish friars, devise a method of regulating the liquor traffic, and, in short, manufacture various kinds of bricks with a very limited supply of straw, to say the least. That he retires, at the end of fifteen months, with a considerable amount of actual accomplishment to his credit is another proof of the ability of the American army officer to surmount the difficulties of new conditions. If General Otis has not suppressed Aguinaldo's rebellion, he has at any rate destroyed the power of the insurgent government as such. What is left is the fast-ebbing vitality of a desultory guerrilla warfare maintained by a few scattered, ill-equipped robber bands. Peace and order are yet to be fully established in Luzon, but organized resistance to Uncle Sam's authority is fast becoming a thing of the past. General MacArthur has succeeded to the command, as we noted last month.

The Turkish Indemnity.

Various European powers with little bills of their own against Turkey are watching with interest the efforts of the United States to collect from the Sultan that indemnity for the destruction of missionary property during the Armenian massacres. The damage was done in 1895, when in the course of the persecution of the Armenians an American mission-house was burned to the ground at Harpoot, and the dwelling-houses and personal property of many of the teachers at Euphrates College and Marash were destroyed. The mob that devastated the mission was actually led by Turkish soldiers and officers, so that it was eminently in order that Judge Terrell, our minister to the Porte, should feel the responsibility of asking damages. It is worth while noting that it was not the missionaries themselves who pushed a claim for money to be paid to themselves, but our minister who of his own initiative requested that the losers by the incident should present him with an itemized statement of all damages sustained. The bill footed some $90,000, and the Sultan admitted the justice of the claim.



WILL HE COLLECT?
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

Unspeakable Diplomacy.

After much procrastination, the Hon. Oscar S. Straus, the present minister to Turkey, made determined efforts to procure the payment of the indemnity. The Sultan gave three distinct promises and failed to keep them. The sum was certainly not a large one for a country with a gross income of some $80,000,000, but the Sultan had other bills of the same sort from certain European powers who were not so free to bring final pressure on Turkey, and it would be awkward to pay the United States and not pay the others. The Sultan issued an irade permitting the rebuilding of Robert College, and there were rumors of greater or less authenticity that the United States might be allowed to tack the amount of the indemnity on to the price of a cruiser to be built in America for the Turkish Government, but the money was not forthcoming. Finally, in May, our State Department forwarded a peremptory note to the Porte, demanding the immediate payment of the debt, and there has been much discussion of the course this country will pursue if it is impossible to make a collection without a show of coercion—suggestions ranging from the seizure of the custom-house at Smyrna to a naval demonstration before Constantinople. Needless to say, it is in the highest degree unlikely that the United States will be forced to such steps. The truth of the matter is, probably, that the Turkish minister has given assurances at Washington of the final payment of the claims, and has begged and received a short delay. It is interesting to remember that a possible rupture over this intrinsically small difference may have effects in the far-away island of Sulu, whose Mohammedan population venerates Abdul Hamid as the head of its religion.



C. W. Wessels. A. D. Wolmarans. A. D. Fischer.

THE BOER ENVOYS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The Boer Envoys in the United States.

On May 15 the three Boer envoys from the Transvaal and the Orange Free State arrived in New York from their round of the European Powers. The party included Messrs. Fischer, Wolmarans, and Wessels, with a secretary and Mrs. Fischer. The envoys were kindly and even enthusiastically received in New York; they were publicly presented to the Mayor, and after a short stay on May 18 were escorted to Washington by several Congressmen who came to New York for the purpose. The envoys bore full credentials from the republics they represented, and either as official representatives or as distinguished citizens of their countries they were, of course, certain of a courteous reception at the hands of President McKinley. They bore themselves with marked dignity and discretion on public and private occasions, and especially disavowed any intention of an attempt to insert a Boer plank in the Democratic platform for the Presidential campaign, claiming that they came to America to appeal to the whole United States to use its influence "to stop all the bloodshed in South Africa." Sympathy and courtesy these gentlemen were assured of; but just how the United States could help their cause practically was not suggested very definitely by the most enthusiastic friends of the hard-pressed republics. President McKinley's offer to England of friendly mediation had been politely but firmly declined by Lord Salisbury; and it is difficult to see what a neutral power could thereafter do toward establishing peace and remain a neutral power.

The War in South Africa.

In the last days of April General Roberts made a strenuous attempt to throw a cordon to the east around the Boers, while Colonel Dalgetty was making his brave defense of Wepener, and for a time it looked as if his plan would be successful. The British troops under the command of Generals Rundle, Brabant, Pole-Carew, Chermside, and French were disposed in such a manner as to cut off the escape, if possible, of the 4,000 or 5,000 Boers investing Wepener, and operating in its vicinity. At the very last moment, however, Commandant Botha succeeded in eluding the 20,000 British soldiers sent to cut him off, and safely withdrew his entire army and its supplies. He was followed closely by General French's cavalry and the mounted infantry under General Hamilton, for whom he furnished sturdy rear-guard fighting in the rough country about



COLONEL DALGETTY.
(The Defender of Wepener.)

Thaba N'Chu. Thus, while the Boer raid to the south never at any time seriously threatened Lord Roberts' communications, it was evidently effective in slightly delaying his advance northward from Bloemfontein, and the Boers also succeeded in providing themselves with supplies from the rich wheat country around Ladybrand and Wepener.

Lord Roberts Advances.

The delay to the general advance was, however, comparatively insignificant. Lord Roberts had by this time revived his transport service and equipped his men with fresh horses and proper impedimenta for a winter campaign. The long-expected move on Pretoria began at once. The British army was deployed along a front forty miles in length. By a forced march with his enormous army, almost comparable to the famous march to Kandahar, the British general quickly swept northward, past Brandfort and Winburg, crossing the Vet and Zand Rivers, and within ten days entered Kroonstad, the Boors fleeing without opposition before the tremendous strides of the great British army. President Steyn fled the day before the British army appeared at Kroonstad, and announced that the capital of the Orange Free State was moved to Lindley, about 50 miles east. The almost incredible swiftness with which the British forces had covered the 128 miles from Bloemfontein seemed to dishearten the Boers. As they paused time and time again for a rear-guard fight, their flanks were immediately threatened by the vast extent of the enemy's front, and the best they could do was to effect an orderly retreat. The British came within an ace of capturing Colonel Blake, the American in command of the Irish-American corps in the Boer army.



COLONEL BLAKE.
(Of the Irish-American Corps.)

The British Flag on Transvaal Territory.

At the same time that Lord Roberts began the advance from Bloemfontein, General Hunter, in command of the British forces north of Kimberley, began active operations in time with his chief. The Vaal River was crossed at Windsorton, and after a severe engagement on May 4, General Hunter joined General Paget's forces at Warrenton, near Fourteen Streams. A week later he occupied Christiana without opposition, and for the first time since the outbreak of the war the British flag was hoisted in the Transvaal. General Buller, too, began an advance in Natal. The force opposing him fell back in good order, and there was no attempt to dispute seriously his occupation of Glencoe, Dundee, and the Biggarsburg passes.



LIEUT.-COL. R. S. S. BADEN-POWELL.

The Relief of Mafeking.

Weeks ago, Lord Roberts predicted that Mafeking and Colonel Baden-Powell's plucky garrison would, by May 18, end their long and terrible confinement. The feat was accomplished on May 16; when the news came to London two days later, the great city became delirious with joy and practically suspended all business to shout for "B.-P." Not even the capture of Cronje's army could vie with Colonel Baden-Powell's escape in popularity with the British public, and it is safe to say that the gallant colonel will be second only to "Bobs" as a war hero when the transports come home. The siege of Mafeking began on October 14, 1899, General Cronje himself investing the town with about three thousand Boers and three guns. When Cronje moved south to the Modder, Gen-

eral Snyman was in command of the besiegers. Within the town were a few hundred English soldiers and some 1,200 irregular troops. Long ago the rations of the besieged ran low, and the letters which runners brought from the beleaguered town describe the garrison as living chiefly on horse meat. The final relief of the town was accomplished by a British force about 2,000 strong, which Lord Roberts sent northwest from Kimberley on May 4, before which the besiegers were forced to retire after they had made a desperate but inefficient effort to capture the town.

The Month in England.

On May 14 Mr. Chamberlain introduced into the House of Commons a bill for the federation of the five Australian States. This notable measure is known as the Australian Commonwealth Bill, and bids fair to finally achieve that solidarity of the Australian continent, which has been discussed and advocated for fifty years—since the time of Earl Grey. The Australians in their referendum decided for federation by a vote of 371,850 to 171,400. Delegates were elected who drafted a constitution containing 128 clauses, and based very largely on the Constitution of the United States. It provides for an indissoluble Federal Commonwealth, firmly united for the most important functions of government—for two legislative houses, the lower with double the membership of the higher, the members of both receiving the same salary. The bill, if passed, will lead to a uniform postal-telegraph system, and probably a railway system under one management. It provides for international free trade and common control of national defense. The Australian delegates sent to England to further the interests of the plan struck a snag in clause 74 of the proposed constitution, which restricted the right of appeal from the highest Australian court to the Privy Council at London by the exception "of any matter involving the interpretation of this constitution or the constitution of a State." The British Government held out against this clause, and insisted on the right of appeal to the English Privy Council in all cases without exception. The delegates and the premiers of the several States protested that they had no authority to sanction changes in the constitution as it was drafted by the representatives of the Australian people elected for that purpose. For a time things were in a muddle. Finally, Mr. Chamberlain cleverly cleared up the trouble by suggesting that the Privy Council itself should be reconstituted by the addition of four Lords of Appeal—one from Australia, South Africa, Canada, and India, respectively. If any additional evidence were needed that Great Britain is now absolutely determined to absorb the Boer republics, it would be found in Lord Salisbury's speech at the meeting of the



THE AUSTRALIAN COMMONWEALTH QUESTION.

Whose Lead Is It?

Br'er Fox plays a game of cards with Br'er Kangaroo.
"Your lead, I think?"
"No, I think, its yours."—From the *Westminster Budget*.

Primrose League, in Albert Hall. The prime minister emphasized the change in the English point of view from the Gladstonian policy which allowed the independence of the Transvaal after Majuba, which led to the death of Gordon, and which would have given Ireland home rule. Lord Salisbury bluntly repudiated the possibility or the desirability of home rule for Ireland, and went so far as to draw an analogy between the Transvaal and a possibly armed and certainly disloyal Ireland. Coming on the heels of the Queen's progress in Ireland and the general glorification of the Irish soldier's contribution to England's efforts in South Africa, the premier's plain speaking gave no little offense in many quarters. As for the war spirit in England, the weeks of waiting for Lord Roberts' advance had brought a comparative lack of enthusiasm, with a flare of interest now and then lit up by the return of a transport. Criticisms of the long delay at Bloemfontein had been rife, but it is notable that Lord Roberts maintains his absolute hold on the imagination of the English people; the grumbling has been directed at the war office for not furnishing "Bobs" with horses, shoes, and clothing that he needed for his men.

The Great Fire at Ottawa.

On April 26 the city of Ottawa suffered from a fire second only in the extent of its devastation to the great conflagrations at Boston and Chicago. Ottawa is the capital of Canada, and is situated on the Ot-

tawa River, about ninety miles north of its junction with the St. Lawrence. Opposite the city is the town of Hull, with enormous lumber yards, always containing millions of feet of timber and sawed lumber, cut in the Canadian forests. The fire began in Hull, from a defective flue, it is believed, and not from Fenian incendiaries, as was charged at first. The flames gathered force with fearful rapidity, owing to the excellent burning material of the lumber yards and sulphite mills; swept across to the Ottawa side of the river, and, despite every effort of the local authorities, and the aid of fire-engines from other cities, continued vigorously for some seventeen hours, sweeping a territory five miles in length and destroying property to the value of $15,000,000. The hardest part of the calamity was the hardship brought to nearly twenty thousand people; the workmen in the lumber yards and manufactories are without means of support, and many of their homes are burned. Seven people lost their lives in the fire; and over two thousand houses were burned. Vigorous efforts in other Canadian cities, in the United States, and in England have brought substantial contributions for the relief of the sufferers from the conflagration. Even if the insurance companies cover the greater part of the loss, it will require some years for the city to fully recuperate. The population is under seventy thousand, and such a blow is relatively very severe.



THE FIRE SWEEPING ACROSS FROM HULL TO OTTAWA, APRIL 25.



THE LATE MICHAEL DE MUNKACSY.

The Death of the Artist Munkacsy.

One of the most famous painters of the century passed away on May 1. Michael de Munkacsy was born in Hungary in 1846, and after a romantic career, that reads like an Arabian Nights' tale, attained a social as well as an artistic eminence all the more remarkable for one who began with absolutely no advantages. It was while serving as an apprentice to a cabinet-maker that Munkacsy found that he was by nature a painter. He has an especial interest to Americans because of the fact that it was an American, Mr. Wilstack, of Philadelphia, who found the young Munkacsy at Düsseldorf, bought one of his pictures, "The Condemned," and, exhibiting the purchase, made the boy immediately famous. The picture won the Salon medal in 1870. Two years later Munkacsy settled in Paris, married a rich and beautiful woman, and began a brilliant career. His "Christ Before Pilate" and "Christ on Calvary" probably created a greater enthusiasm in America than any other paintings ever exhibited in the country, but his most artistic canvas is "Milton and His Daughters." Another American, Mr. John Wanamaker, owns the "Christ Before Pilate" and the "Christ on Calvary." These ambitious compositions are, like Doré's religious paintings, highly spectacular, though the brush-work is superior to Doré's. While he was in the zenith of his fame Munkacsy lost his reason, and he continued hopelessly insane until his death.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 20 to May 20, 1900.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

April 20.—The Senate debates the Hawaiian government bill and the Alaska civil-code bill....In the House the provisions for procuring armor plate for war vessels, heretofore authorized, are stricken out of the naval appropriation bill.

April 21.—In the Senate the resolutions of Mr. Bacon (Dem., Ga.) calling on the War Department for information as to allowances to army officers in Cuba and Porto Rico are adopted. The House passes the naval appropriation bill.

April 23.—In the Senate the report of the Committee on Privileges and Elections recommending the unseating of Mr. Clark (Dem., Mont.) is presented....The House considers the post-office appropriation bill.

April 24.—By a vote of 33 to 32 the Senate declares former Senator M. S. Quay (Rep., Pa.) not entitled to a seat on the appointment of the governor of Pennsylvania....The House adopts the emergency resolution to continue the present officers in Porto Rico in office until appointments are made under the civil-government act, together with the amendments relative to franchises made by the Committee on Insular Affairs.

April 25.—The Senate agrees to the conference report on the Hawaiian civil-government bill, and passes the agricultural appropriation bill ($4,120,000)..... The House, in committee of the whole, strikes out of the post-office appropriation bill the item for pneumatic-tube service in certain cities.

April 26.—The House passes the post-office appropriation bill and the bill increasing salaries in the Census Bureau.

April 27.—By a vote of 52 to 3 Senator Scott (Rep., W. Va.) is declared entitled to his seat; in executive session the Senate ratifies the treaty with Spain extending for six months the time in which Spanish residents of the Philippines may decide whether they will remain subjects of Spain or become citizens of the Philippines. ....The House agrees to the conference report on the Hawaiian government bill.

April 30.—The Senate, by a vote of 29 to 20, refuses to consider the resolution of Mr. Pettigrew (Sil. Rep., S. D.) expressing sympathy with the Boers....The House, by a vote of 144 to 26, passes the bill prohibiting interstate commerce in game killed in violation of law.

May 1.—The Senate passes the Alaskan civil-code bill....The House begins general debate on the Nicaragua Canal bill.

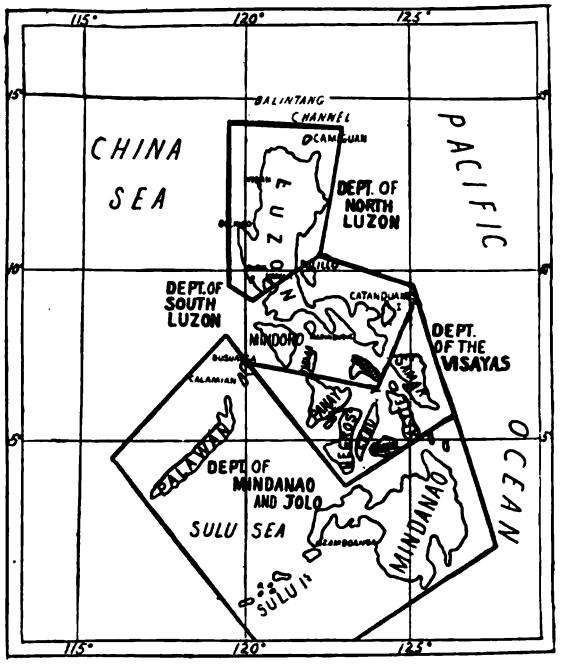
May 2.—The House, by a vote of 225 to 35, passes the Nicaragua Canal bill.

May 3.—The Senate passes the army appropriation bill....The House passes the bill providing that the Government shall issue patents to actual settlers on lands of Indian reservations opened to settlement.

May 4.—The Senate passes the army reorganization and the fortifications appropriation bills.

May 5.—The House passes the sundry civil appropriation bill.

May 7.—The Senate considers the naval appropriation bill....The House passes bills amending the pension laws, and increasing the appropriation for the National Guard to $1,000,000.



NEW MILITARY DEPARTMENTS IN THE PHILIPPINES.

May 8.—The House adopts a resolution calling on the Secretary of the Treasury for information in regard to the manufacture of oleomargarine.

May 9.—The Senate debates the section of the naval appropriation bill relating to armor and armament.

May 11.—In the Senate Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) urges the importance of building up a powerful navy immediately....The House passes 180 private pension bills.

May 12.—The Senate, by a vote of 22 to 24, defeats the proposition to establish a Government armor-plate factory.

May 14.—The Senate passes the naval appropriation bill and the House bill relating to land patents to settlers on Indian-reservation lands opened to settlement. ....The House passes the general deficiency appropriation bill.

May 15.—In the Senate Mr. Clark (Dem., Mont.) announces the resignation of his seat....The House passes the Military Academy appropriation bill.

May 16.—The House begins consideration of the Alaskan civil-code bill.

May 17.—The Senate considers the post-office appropriation bill....The House passes a general river and har-

bor bill, carrying $400,000 for surveys and emergency work.

May 19.—By a vote of 32 to 16 the Senate lays on the table an amendment to the post-office appropriation bill providing for a pneumatic-tube service.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 20.—The Brownlow and Evans factions in the Republican party of Tennessee nominate John E. McCall and W. F. Poston, respectively, for governor.

April 23.—President McKinley nominates J. H. Hollander, of Maryland, for treasurer, and John R. Garrison, of the District of Columbia, for auditor of Porto Rico.

April 25.—Alabama Democrats nominate J. N. Sanford for governor....Ohio Republicans nominate State officers, and name as delegates-at-large to the national convention at Philadelphia Senator Foraker, Governor Nash, and Representatives Dick and Grosvenor, Senator Hanna having declined to serve....Pennsylvania Republicans nominate a candidate for auditor-general and candidates for Congressmen-at-large, and name delegates-at-large to the national convention....Wisconsin Republicans name delegates-at-large to the national convention....Governor Roosevelt appoints the New York Charter Revision Commission. (See page 650.)

April 26.—Indiana Republicans nominate Col. Winfield T. Durbin for governor, and choose delegates-at-large to the Philadelphia convention....Massachusetts Republicans choose delegates-at-large to Philadelphia.

April 30.—The Kentucky governorship case is argued in the United States Supreme Court.

May 1.—Michigan Democrats instruct for Bryan, and favor the nomination of Charles A. Towne, of Minnesota, for Vice-President....General Otis issues orders restricting Chinese immigration at Manila.



MR. REUBEN G. THWAITES.

(President of the American Library Association, which meets at Montreal on June 6.)

May 2.—Nebraska Republicans nominate C. H. Dieterich for governor, and name delegates-at-large to Philadelphia....Virginia Democrats declare for a constitutional convention....North Carolina "Lily-White" Republicans nominate ex-Judge Spencer B. Adams for governor, and choose delegates to Philadelphia.



MR. HENRY MACFARLAND.

(Appointed Commissioner of the District of Columbia by President McKinley.)

May 3.—Iowa Democrats and Michigan Republicans choose delegates to their respective national conventions.

May 4.—President McKinley nominates ex-President Sanford B. Dole to be governor of Hawaii, and Henry E. Cooper to be secretary.....The election of boards of registry in all the election districts of the island of Cuba is completed.....The taking of testimony in the Congressional investigation of the miners' troubles at Cœur d'Alêne, Idaho, is closed.

May 9.—Illinois Republicans nominate Judge Richard Yates for governor.....Maryland Republicans choose delegates-at-large to Philadelphia.....The National Cuban party nominates Gen. Alejandro Rodriguez for mayor of Havana.

May 10.—The "fusion" Populists in national convention at Sioux Falls, S. D., nominate William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, for President, and Charles A. Towne, of Minnesota, for Vice-President; the "Middle-of-the-Road" Populists at Cincinnati nominate Wharton Barker, of Pennsylvania, for President, and Ignatius Donnelly, of Minnesota, for Vice-President....Iowa and Colorado Republicans select delegates-at-large to the Philadelphia convention.

May 11.—The alleged Cuban post-office frauds are considered by the cabinet at Washington, and a full investigation is ordered.

May 14.—Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow is ordered to Havana to take full charge of Cuban postal affairs....The revised Cuban tariff, which goes into effect on June 15, is made public.

May 15.—California and Missouri Republicans choose delegates to the Philadelphia convention....In the Georgia Democratic primaries, United States Senator Bacon and Governor Candler are chosen for reëlection.....The lieutenant-governor of Montana, acting as governor, appoints William A. Clark as United States Senator to succeed himself.

May 16.—Missouri Republicans nominate Joseph Flory for governor....Kansas Republicans renominate Governor W. E. Stanley and select delegates to Philadelphia....Minnesota and Wyoming Republicans se-

lect delegates to Philadelphia....South Carolina Democrats choose delegates to Kansas City.

May 17.—Montana and Kentucky Republicans choose delegates to Philadelphia.

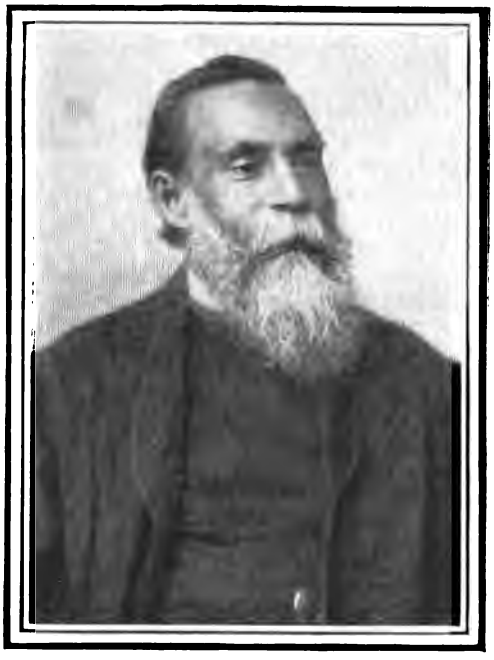
May 18.—Governor Smith, of Montana, appoints Maj. Martin Maginniss to fill the vacancy in the United States Senate.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

April 27.—The budget committee of the German Reichstag adopts the naval increase bill almost in the form asked by the government.

April 30.—A committee of the Swedish Riksdag reports in favor of the impeachment of the ministry for appointing Ditten, a Norwegian, to the highest departmental post in the Foreign Office.

May 3.—Bulgarian peasants defeat a party of troops and march on Rustchuk.



PROTAP CHUNDER MOZOOMDAR.

(The distinguished Indian Unitarian who has recently visited the United States.)

May 6.—In the Paris municipal elections, the Nationalists gain eight seats.

May 8.—President Krüger opens the Transvaal Raad.

May 9.—Lord Salisbury makes an important speech at the Primrose League banquet in London, warning against perils to the empire.

May 13.—Second ballots in the Paris municipal elections give the Nationalists 21 out of 30 seats.

May 14.—The Australian Commonwealth bill is introduced in the British House of Commons by Mr. Chamberlain.

May 16.—The Italian Parliament is prorogued.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

April 23.—The Sultan of Turkey issues an irade authorizing the rebuilding of the Harpoot American mission property, and the construction of an annex to Robert College at Constantinople.

April 26.—The United States renews its demand on Turkey for the payment of indemnity claims for mission property destroyed in Armenia.

April 27.—It is announced that 66,869 Spanish residents of Cuba have registered as subjects of Spain under the terms of the Paris treaty of peace.

April 30.—A circular issued by the Turkish Government formulates proposals to the powers for increasing the customs duties.

May 2.—Under the terms of the Chilean claims treaty, recently revived, President McKinley appoints William Gage, of Michigan, United States commissioner, and William H. Hunt, of Montana, agent of the United States in the settlement of pending claims.

May 5.—Secretary Hay and Lord Pauncefote sign a treaty extending for seven months from August 7, 1900, the period of time allowed for the exchange of ratifications of the Hay-Pauncefote Canal treaty.

May 14.—In her controversy with Turkey, Greece decides to appeal to outside powers for arbitration.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.

April 20.—General Rundle drives off the Boers from some high ground occupied by them near Dewetsdorp.

April 22.—General Carrington arrives at Beira.

April 23.—Thirty-six rebel Cape Dutch, captured by Colonel Pilcher's force at Sunnyside, are sentenced at Cape Town....The foreign ordnance experts employed in the Boer War Department succeed in equipping a foundry in Pretoria for the manufacture of big guns.

April 24.—The Boers attack Wepener, but are repulsed. A brigade of the 9th Division seize the hills commanding the wagon bridge over the Modder at Krantz Kraal.

April 25.—Dewetsdorp occupied by the British troops under General Chermside. General Rundle arrives at Dewetsdorp, and Wepener is relieved by the retirement of the Boer force.

April 26.—There is an explosion at Johannesburg of Begbie's smokeless powder magazine; ten men are killed and thirty injured.

April 27.—General French reaches Thaba N'chu with his cavalry....Sir Charles Warren is appointed military governor of Griqualand West.

April 28.—Thaba N'chu is occupied by Generals Hamilton and Rundle, the Boers retiring towards Ladybrand, but guarding Van Reenen and Olivier's Hoek.

April 29.—The Boers complete their safe retreat from the southeast part of the Orange Free State.

April 30.—Sharp fighting near Thaba N'Chu, the British casualties amounting to 30....As a result of the explosion of Begbie's Engineering Works, President Krüger issues a proclamation ordering all British subjects to leave the Transvaal.

May 1.—Fighting continues in the neighborhood of Thaba N'Chu, and Gen. Ian Hamilton drives the Boers to the north and east.

May 3.—General Roberts begins his advance northward from Bloemfontein, and occupies Brandfort with-

out much opposition....Boer peace delegates sail from Rotterdam for the United States.

May 4.—Parliament sustains the War Office in regard to the publication of the Spion Kop dispatches.

May 5.—General Hunter, having crossed the Vaal River at Windsorton, has an engagement with the Boers at Rooidam, in Griqualand West.



THE LATE DUKE OF ARGYLL.

May 6.—General Roberts crosses the Vet River. Winburg is occupied by General Hamilton.

May 7.—General Hunter, having joined General Paget's force at Warrenton, drives the Boers out of Fourteen Streams.

May 10.—The British cross the Zand River.... General Buller commences an advance movement in Natal.

May 11.—President Steyn flees from Kroonstad, and announces Lindley as the capital of the Orange Free State.

May 12.—General Roberts occupies Kroonstad without opposition, the Boers having successfully withdrawn their artillery and other supplies....The Boers make a desperate attack on Mafeking, but are repulsed by Colonel Baden-Powell.

May 15.—General Buller occupies Dundee, and also Glencoe, the Boers taking away their cannon by train and offering little resistance....The Boer envoys arrive in New York.

May 16.—Mafeking is relieved after a siege of 217 days.

May 17.—General Buller occupies Newcastle....Announcement is made of the occupation of Christiana by General Hunter....General Methuen enters Hoopstad, and Lindley is occupied by Gen. Ian Hamilton.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 20.—Eight thousand miners go on strike at Santa Paulina, near Santander, Spain.

April 21.—An unsuccessful attempt is made to blow up the gates of the Welland Canal, Thorold, Ont.... The Ecumenical Conference on Missions opens in New York City.

April 23.—The Turkish torpedo-boat *Schamyl* is blown up in the harbor of Beyrout; 23 lives are lost.

April 25.—Ten thousand Ashantees surround and attack Coomassie, in the Gold Coast Colony....The International Anti-Tuberculosis Congress is opened at Naples.

April 26.—Queen Victoria leaves Ireland, after a three-weeks' visit....Fire in Hull and Ottawa, Canada, renders 15,000 people homeless and causes a loss of $15,000,000.

May 1.—On the anniversary of the battle of Manila Bay, Admiral Dewey is received in Chicago with great enthusiasm....More than two hundred lives are lost as the result of a mine explosion at Schofield, Utah.

May 2.—The Methodist General Conference is opened at Chicago.

May 5.—Gen. Pantelon Garcia, the chief Filipino insurgent leader in Central Luzon, is captured in the town of Jaen.

May 8.—More than 3,000 men employed by the St. Louis Transit Company strike.

May 17.—The Presbyterian General Assembly meets in St. Louis.

OBITUARY.

April 21.—Rev. Charles Beecher, fifth son of Lyman Beecher, 84....Alphonse M. Edwards, the naturalist, of Paris, 64.

April 23.—The Duke of Argyll, 77....Dr. Allan Haley, M. P., of Nova Scotia, 58.

April 28.—Alfred M. Jones, a well-known engraver, 80.

April 29.—Dr. Angus Macdonald, Roman Catholic Archbishop of St. Andrews and Edinburgh.

April 30.—Baron von Saurma-Jeltsch, former German Ambassador at Washington, 64....Rev. Charles Eugene Knox, D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman and author, 66.

May 1.—Mihaly (Michael) Munkacsy, the famous Hungarian painter, 56....Edward Owen Leech, formerly Director of the Mint, 50....John Nicholas Brown, of Providence, R. I., 39....Louis Mayer, a well-known Hebrew resident of Chicago, 85.

May 2.—Ex-United States Senator Waitman T. Willey, of West Virginia, 88.

May 6.—William C. Endicott, Secretary of War in President Cleveland's first term, 73....William A. Herron, a successful business man of Pittsburg, 79.

May 7.—Richard Storrs Willis, poet and journalist, 82....Ex-Congressman David B. Culberson, of Texas.

May 8.—Prof. Thomas Craig, who held the chair of mathematics at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, 44....Dr. Landon Carter Gray, the well-known New York specialist in nervous and mental diseases, 50.

May 9.—Rev. Latimer Whipple Ballou, formerly a member of Congress from Rhode Island, 89.

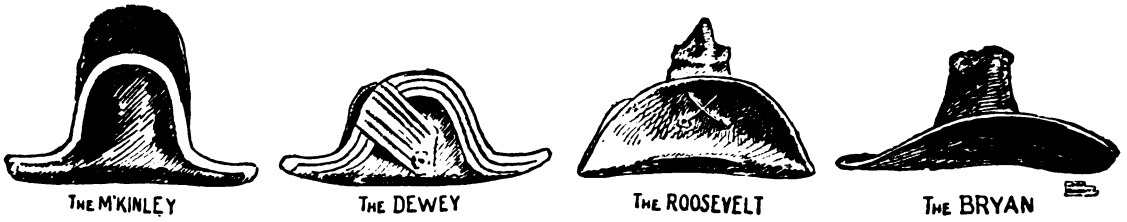
May 11.—Charles K. Whipple, leader in the Abolition movement, 91....Judge Pacificus Ord, a California jurist, 84....Col. Charles H. Hovey, commander of the Thirteenth Massachusetts in the Civil War.

May 12.—James M. Constable, prominent business man of New York, 88.

May 15.—John W. Gillian, of Weymouth, Mass., one of the survivors of the battle of Waterloo, 97.

May 19.—Prof. Samuel Gardiner Williams, of Cornell University.

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARICATURE.



LEADING FALL STYLES FOR 1900.—From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



BED-FELLOWS MAKE STRANGE POLITICS.
From the *Journal* (Detroit).



"WHAT'S THAT?"
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



HI, BILL! IT'S LIGHT, NOT HEAT, I WANT.
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



THE ADMIRAL: "Most everybody says this suit looks best on me."—From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



CHORUS OF DISTRICT LEADERS: "Danger, old man, danger!"
From the *World* (New York).



THE NEBRASKA FARMER AND HIS PET.
"There are others, but none so dear as this—my first."
From the *Journal* (Detroit).



POPULIST PARTY: "Very obliging fellow; he'll jump off, if you don't want him."
From the *Times* (Denver).



VERY SAD NEWS.

THE JANITOR (Democratic Party): "You can come in, Mr. Bryan, but it's against the rules to let in the kid."

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



A BAD SUBJECT.

UNCLE SAM: "Even so great an artist as Senator Hoar can't make anything heroic of that figure."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE EUROPEAN SPIDER SPINS ITS IRON WEB OVER ALL THE WORLD.—From *Ulk* (Berlin).



ADVANCED AUSTRALIA.

AUSTRALIA: "If you please, mother, I wanted a little more freedom, so I've had this latch-key made. You don't mind?"

BRITANNIA: "I'm sure, my dear, if anybody can be trusted with it, you can."—From *Punch* (London).

The Australian Federation Bill.



PAY! PAY! PAY!

INDIAN FAMINE (to hard-pressed Mr. Bull): "Me too, John!"
From the *Westminster Budget.*



KRÜGER TWISTED THE LION'S TAIL, AND ——
From the *S. Australian Critic* (Melbourne).

JAMES J. HILL, A BUILDER OF THE NORTHWEST.

A CHARACTER SKETCH OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD.

BY MARY HARRIMAN SEVERANCE

IN Mr. James J. Hill we have the seer, with all the nineteenth-century improvements. In him the highest imagination is yoked to the lowliest common sense; the vision is followed by the deed. Mountains, seas, continents, wars, and empires are pawns in his game; but each spike which holds his rails is considered as carefully as though it were to serve for the axis of the universe.

His imagination is not of the lawless order which runs riot to no purpose; it is the masterful architect, which directs his nimble intellect as it builds. His mind's eye is telescopic, looking far beyond the range of ordinary human vision, and seeing things not so much as they are, but rather as they may be. He saw the great Northwest, lying imprisoned like the prince in the Arabian Nights, half man and half marble, and has set it free in its own proper shape, with all its possibilities restored. His faith, moving mountains both literally and figuratively, has led the world's superfluous population into the wilderness, to behold and to work miracles. They have felled the forests, tilled the soil, dug mines, built houses, banks, churches, and colleges, under the delusion that these enterprises were of their own suggestion; but, like Alice and the red chessman in "Wonderland," they are merely acting a part in the White King's dream.

THE SCOTCH-IRISH STOCK AGAIN.

Mr. James J. Hill, the "Colossus of Roads," was born in Wellington County, Ontario, in 1838. On his father's side he was descended from sturdy Irish stock, while from his Scotch mother he inherited the noble traits of the Dunbar line.

Unlike most American millionaires, Mr. Hill was hampered in the task of self-creation by a thorough education. Of a dreamy temperament as a child, he preferred a book and the woods to the play of other boys. For such a nature there was, at that time, no opening but the ministry or medicine. To fit him for the latter profession his parents sent him to the Rockwood Academy, where he received a thorough grounding in mathematics, Latin, and the sciences, and acquired that thirst for knowledge which has characterized his whole life.



MR. JAMES J. HILL.

FROM COUNTRY CLERK TO RAILROAD PRESIDENT.

At the age of fifteen, his father's death threw him upon his own resources, and he was obliged to abandon his coveted profession and to seek employment in a country-store. When about eighteen he came to St. Paul, then a straggling village on the hem of civilization, and secured employment as shipping-clerk in the office of the Dubuque & St. Paul Packet Company. At that time the Mississippi offered almost the only opportunity for the study of problems of transportation, and to this he devoted his atten-

tion. He successively enlarged the scope of his activity to include the sale of fuel, and the agencies for the Northwestern Packing Company and the St. Paul & Pacific Railroad. He was the first to bring coal to St. Paul, and he opened the first communication between St. Paul and Winnipeg, then Fort Gary. The latter was accomplished in 1872, when he consolidated his interests with Norman W. Kittson, of the Hudson Bay Company, who was then operating steamboats between Moorhead and Winnipeg—thus gradually reaching out.

THE BEGINNING OF THE GREAT NORTHERN.

He next undertook the reorganization in detail of the St. Paul & Pacific Railroad. When that sickly infant crept haltingly out upon the trackless prairies to die, Mr. Hill was the only one to see in it promise of life. The road then consisted of 80 miles of indifferent construction, extending from St. Paul to St. Cloud, 216 miles from St. Paul to Breckenridge, and in the neighborhood of another 100 miles of track not connected with either of these lines.

In addition to being $33,000,000 in debt, the road was utterly discredited on both continents. Mr. Hill persuaded Mr. Donald Smith and Mr. George Stephen to undertake, with him, its purchase and reorganization. In 1879 the transaction was completed, and the road was reincorporated under the name of the St. Paul, Minneapolis & Manitoba Railroad. Mr. George Stephen, now Lord Mount-Stephen, was the first president, and Mr. Hill the general manager. Mr. Hill was afterward elected vice-president, and in 1883 he became president, which position he still holds. Since that time his achievement has been without parallel in the history of the railroad world. He has built and equipped a system of 6,000 miles—with the exception of the original 400 miles—entirely without State or Government land-grant or subsidy; at a capitalization in stocks and bonds of about $30,000 a mile, and at the rate of nearly a mile a day for every day of his control. While other transcontinental roads have collapsed and gone into the hands of receivers, the Great Northern has never once defaulted the interest on its bonds or passed a dividend.

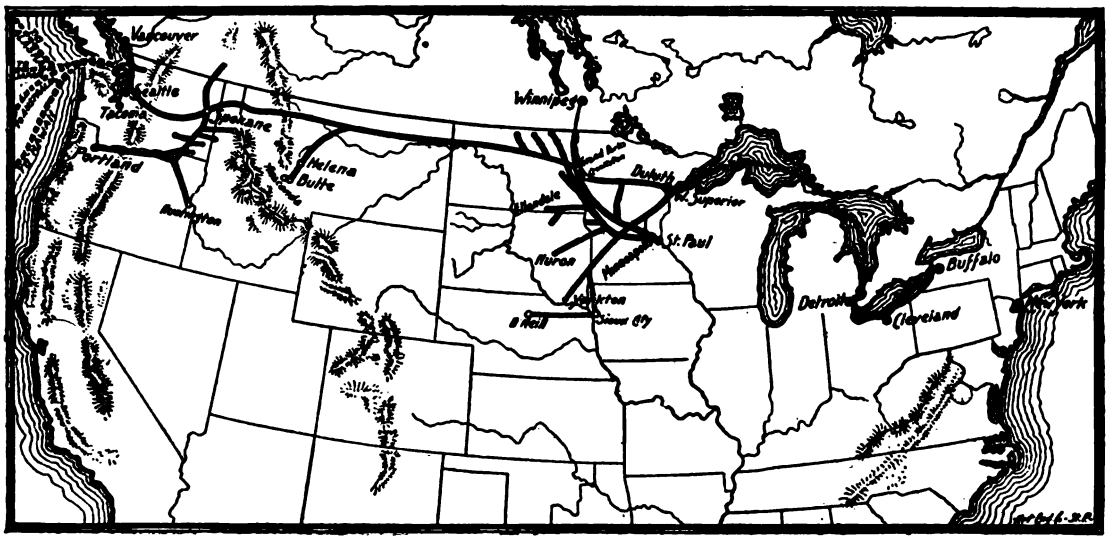
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS RAILROAD.

Figures give no adequate idea of the economic significance of such an artery of commerce. Because James J. Hill conceived and successfully carried out his project, it may be that men and women who never even heard of the United States, much less of the Great Northern Railroad, have been saved from death by starvation. It may be that sometime the fruition of the idea born in the mind of this railroad man will serve to avert a nation's famine. The opening and developing of the great wheat-raising States of the Northwest has had its part in determining the question of war or peace, and will have again. It has promoted *ententes cordiales*. It has shared, with blood-ties and diplomacy as a factor, in the relations of this country with Great Britain, and consequently the relations of Great Britain and other nations. "Wheat Across the Sea" may be equally potent with "Hands Across the Sea." Each of the 520,000,000 bread-eaters of the world is a shareholder in the Great Northern Railroad. For twenty cents the Minnesota farmer may send a bushel of wheat or its equivalent in bread to Western Europe.

NO ENCOURAGEMENT FROM WITHOUT.

When Mr. Hill first mooted the project of a railroad from Puget Sound to the Great-Lake waterway, passing through what was virtually "An Undiscovered Country," he had to face the knowledge that his road would parallel and run between, at no tremendous distances in this big continent, two already existing lines, neither of which had proved successful. The Northern Pacific had been constructed at enormous cost, with the assistance of the Federal Government, and its record had been a series of failures. The Canadian Pacific had had behind it the resources of the British Empire; to build it half a continent had been put in pawn. Wise men pointed these things out to Mr. Hill. They said: "Even if he can build 2,000 miles of railroad through new country, without governmental aid or subsidy, *cui bono?* What doth it profit a man if he build a whole railroad and lose his yearly dividends?" But Hill saw with a clearer vision. He went ahead with that confidence which is possessed only by great men and fools. Steadily, inch by inch, rod by rod, mile by mile, the shining rails stretched westward through "the land of sky-blue water," passing innumerable sparkling Minnesota lakes, skirting one, bridging another, pushing on through forests and natural parkways, crossing the line into the newer Dakota, chasing the limpid waters of the Red River, and plunging into the trackless ocean prairie—direct, almost as the crow flies, across the billowy fields to the confines of another State; running beside the turbid Missouri, bombarding and overcoming the Rockies, shimmering through cañon, diving through tunnel, climbing over trestle, ever westward, until at last they rested by the waters of the Pacific. Purely as a matter of construction, it was a gigantic feat, rapidly, safely, and cleanly accom-

plished. Then came the rub—the material, but no less important question, from every point of view, of making it pay; and another phase of Mr. Hill's genius was called into requisition. That he succeeded is a matter of railroad history. To the knowledge of a man who knows his business to the minutest detail, the determination of one who will not be defeated, the daring of a pioneer, Mr. Hill must have added an instinctive perception which bordered on the gift of prophecy.



THE ROUTE OF THE GREAT NORTHERN SYSTEM FROM BUFFALO TO SEATTLE, THE ORIENTAL TERMINAL.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE NORTHWEST.

Following a railroad come population, trade, civilization. A railroad, even through unarable country, brings some settlers along its line; a railroad, however poorly managed, causes some movement of trade. How much more is this true of a pioneer road through a country every mile of which is possible of settlement, and great tracts of which are as fertile as any on earth! Following the track-layers come the settlers. Following the settlers come the hamlets, villages, towns, cities, the mills, factories, and all the concomitants of trade. The building of the depot causes the construction of the schoolhouse, and the upraising of the church spires to the sky. It is hardly possible to overestimate the effect of the construction of the Great Northern upon the development, physical and sociological, of a great part of our Northwest. The shriek of the locomotive whistle evoked the Spirit of Progress. Village and town sprang up along the line. Dwellings and granaries dotted the prairies. Hundreds of thousands of acres of previously non-productive land were put under cultivation. Desolate prairies began to bloom. The grain elevator, like a lighthouse in a yellow sea, uplifted itself above the fields of waving wheat.

That there should have come an outlet for these magnificent possibilities, seems now almost inevitable; but in this case the credit must go to James J. Hill. The State of Minnesota alone produces approximately about 80,000,000 bushels of wheat, or about one-thirty-seventh of the total production of the world. Of this she is able to export two-thirds. Of the Dakotas, not having begun to reach their limit of productiveness, North Dakota raised in 1898 55,000,000 bushels, and South Dakota 42,000,000. Oregon produced 24,000,000 bushels. The modern farming methods in the Northwest challenge the admiration of the world. Steam and electricity are made to serve the farmer's purpose. He plows, reaps, thrashes by machinery. He telephones from his farmhouse to his granaries. Sometimes he receives the latest grain quotations over a private telegraph-wire in his dwelling. Often the acreage of his farm is expressed in the thousands, sometimes in five figures. He comes from the poor places of the earth, and finds a home and self respect. He sends his products to Europe, Asia, Japan, even China. He furnishes a traffic that provides work for tens of thousands of employees of transportation lines. He keeps a procession of grain ships moving to the Sault Ste. Marie Canal which makes the

"Soo" rank ahead of far-famed Suez in point of tonnage. Moreover, he is furnishing bone and sinew for this great country of ours which cannot be expressed in figures. And much of this is due to the Great Northern Railroad.

MR. HILL'S FORTUNE FAIRLY EARNED.

Unlike other "Napoleons of Finance" and "Railway Kings" who have preyed upon the interests confided to their care, Mr. Hill has ac-



CENTRAL OFFICES OF THE GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD IN ST. PAUL.

cepted no salary, profited by the ruin of no man's fortune, depending for his reward upon the natural increase in the value of his investment. While he has built up for himself and other shareholders of the road a constantly accruing fortune, he has created for the settlers along his line $1,000,000,000 of wealth in real property. The reduction in rates of transportation has given the shippers along the road practically $67,000,000, thus diminishing the company's revenues by that amount.

Nevertheless, in fourteen years from the beginning of Mr. Hill's stewardship to 1893, the company had paid to stock and shareholders between $15,000,000 and $16,000,000, while employees had received for their share $79,000,000. Owing to its economy in operation, constantly increasing business and earning capacity, the Great Northern has made a steady decrease in freight rates. Last year the president suggested a new schedule of grain rates, which meant a reduction of $1,500,000 to the company.

THE GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD OF TO-DAY.

The Great Northern to-day comprises a system of roads giving in all 6,000 miles of excellent construction, extending in a network from Puget Sound on the west to St. Paul on the east, from Duluth on the north to Yankton on the south. The headquarters is at St. Paul, where are located the general offices and operating staff. During the season of navigation, Duluth and Superior are, however, the practical terminals, where the road connects with its own steamers of the Northern Steamship Company for Buffalo. Passengers are offered the perfection of travel, via the "Northwest" or "Northland," two of the most luxurious steamers of the world. The restful journey over inland seas, varied with rivers, charming resorts and locks, is attracting tourists to the full capacity of the boats.

In addition to the passenger steamers, a fleet of six freight vessels offers formidable competition to other transcontinental lines. For the Great Northern has thus 2,000 miles of railroad from the Pacific Coast with the added 1,000 miles of cheap waterway, as against the 3,000 miles entirely by rail, of the other roads. The shipping from Duluth and Superior is far beyond belief to the casual observer. In 1898 there was received at these ports 86,000,000 bushels of grain; sawmills on the harbor manufactured 324,000,000 feet of lumber; iron ore shipments reached 6,000,000 gross tons; flour-mills about the bay manufactured 2,000,000 barrels of flour. From these figures, and the fact that the Great Northern handles 65 per cent. of the business, will be seen the change which has been wrought in diverting traffic of the Central West from Chicago and other more southerly lake ports.

MR. HILL'S PLANS FOR TRADE WITH THE ORIENT.

At his western terminal, Seattle, Mr. Hill has put in operation an enterprise which promises to revolutionize the commerce of America, and change the basis of the markets of the world. The following is a letter written by him to a Western Senator, in which he points out the possibilities of trade in China and Japan, and suggests that tariff duties be so adjusted as not to prevent or cut off trade with the countries across the Pacific. Mr. Hill says:

The Asiatic trade is of the greatest importance to this country, and particularly to such portions of it as are interested in raising wheat. A year ago last fall, wheat sold from 18 to 22 cents per bushel in the Palouse country, south of Spokane Falls, and this year it has sold for from 65 to 70 cents. About three years ago I sent an agent to China and Japan to investigate the country, and see what steps could be taken to introduce the general use of wheat flour in those countries, as against their own rice, and found that it was simply a matter of price. I then took up the consideration of building large steamers for that trade, designed to carry cargoes of flour or grain at low rates. I found we could build the ships, but that owing to the sailors' union fixing the wages of sailors at $30 a month and engineers and other ship employees at about twice the wages paid by Euro-

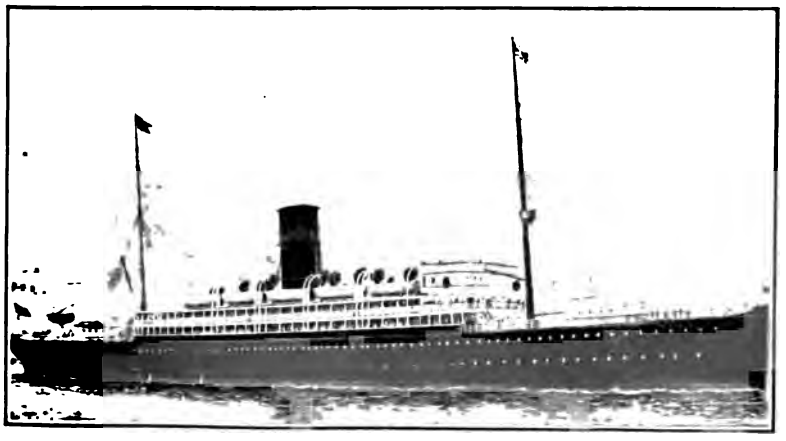
pean steamers, it would be impossible for us to compete with the English, German, Italian, and Scandinavian ships already on the Pacific Ocean. After the war with China, the Japanese appropriated a large amount of their war indemnity for a subsidy to their merchant marine, and we opened negotiations with the General Steamship Company of Japan, which is owned by the leading men of the empire. We found their subsidy was about equal to the cost of their coal and the wages of their sailors. They pay their sailors $5 a month (Mexican), or $2.50 in gold, enabling them to hire 12 good sailors for the wages of one American sailor. After protracted and difficult negotiations, we concluded a contract with them for a line of steamers between Chinese and Japanese ports and Seattle, on condition that they would carry flour from Puget Sound to the Asiatic ports at $3 a ton, as against $7 to $8 a ton formerly charged from West coast ports in the United States. This low rate fixed the rate for all other lines between the Pacific Coast and Asia, and has resulted in carrying out about 18,000,000 bushels, or its equivalent in flour, from the last crop. There is left, I understand, about 50,000,000 bushels to be moved between now and the next harvest.

Thus, you will see, we have been able to find new mouths, which have never before used wheaten bread, to take the entire California, Oregon, and Washington wheat crop out of the European markets. This will reduce the amount going to Europe about 20 per cent., and in bushels about 30,000,000—three times the quantity shipped to Europe from the Argentine during the past crop year. The prices of wheat this year, as compared with last, are about 20 and 25 cents higher; and I think it may be said that from 15 to 18 cents of this rise is clearly due to the withdrawal of all the Pacific wheat from the European markets. I see in this morning's market reports a telegram that European ships are loading with barley, rye, and merchandise from San Francisco to Europe, after waiting four months for cargoes of wheat, and that no more wheat will go to Europe from the Pacific Coast. The only way we could bring about this great reduction in the cost of transportation of flour to Asia was by diverting the tea and matting business, which has heretofore gone mainly on English ships from Asia to New York, and bringing these commodities to the Pacific Coast by a low rate of transportation inland by rail to distribute the commodities to points between Minnesota and New York.

I have given you the details, so that you will understand the situation, and be able to see that unless these ships can bring their main cargoes of merchandise to the Pacific ports at rates that will compensate them for the traffic, the business must go, as heretofore, to New York, and the rates on flour to Asiatic ports will be again at the old figure, or an advance of about 50 cents a barrel—which would, in my judgment, destroy the business that has just begun to be built up with that country. The Province of Amoy alone, which is near the coast, contains over 80,000,000 of people, and at 20 pounds of flour per capita per annum would consume the product of 40,000,000 bushels of wheat. The large districts of Tien-Tsin and Shanghai, both easily accessible from the sea, would consume about as much more as soon as the trade can be fully opened. It is not outside the range of possibility that we could ship wheat from Devil's Lake to the Pacific Coast for this trade. We certainly could at 53 cents a bushel—cost for the wheat at Devil's Lake or points west, as long as the demand for flour continues to grow as it has for the past six months.

STEAMERS TWICE AS BIG AS THE "LUCANIA."

In addition to the grain trade, Mr. Hill has succeeded in diverting an appreciable amount of lumber, silver, steel rails, cotton, and tobacco to the Orient, thus relieving the overstocked condition of Western markets. So rapidly has the trade with China, Japan, and the Philippines grown during the past few years, that the Nippon-Yuson Kaisha Steamship Company has never been able to carry the goods waiting on the docks at Seattle. To meet the growth of this business, the Great Northern is obliged to build a fleet of its own trans-Pacific steamships, and has placed an order for huge steamers which will mark a new era in ocean transportation. Instead of the 10,000-ton ships planned eighteen months ago, it has been found necessary to order ships that will carry 20,000 tons, or of a measurement capacity of over 28,000 tons. To give an idea by comparison, the *Campania* and *Lucania* are 14,000-ton ships. Each of the Great Northern steamships, to be in operation a year from this fall, will be equal to the *Campania* and *Lucania* put together. The deck-room in each of the ships to be devoted to the carrying of freight is over five acres in extent. The vessels will carry 15,000 to 20,000 tons of freight, which will necessitate 1,000 to 1,500 cars to haul one of



ONE OF THE 28,000-TON STEAMSHIPS BUILDING FOR THE ORIENTAL SERVICE.



MOUNT INDEX, WASHINGTON.
(Typical Scenery on the Great Northern.)

these loads to and from the steamer. To take care of the cargo of one of these steamers will require 20 miles of yard-tracks, which are in process of construction at Seattle.

THE TRANS-SIBERIAN COMPETITION.

To secure dispatch and the saving in time of handling cargoes, appliances will be provided for the new ships hitherto unknown in the handling of freight. The furnaces will be fed automatically—coal loaded by conveyers and distributed by gravity. By economy in small things, these vessels will be able to compete with traffic via the Suez Canal. Steamship connections are contemplated with Vladivostock and the Trans-Siberian Railway, thus opening up that vast country to our markets. It has been urged that the Trans-Siberian Railway will disturb these schemes for the distribution of grain to Asiatic ports by emptying there the products of the Russian wheat-fields. One has to consider that Minnesota flour can be laid down at Vladivostock for $1.25 a barrel in freight charges, while the Russians cannot carry it to that port under $4.25 a barrel. Thus, it will be many years before their competition will be felt.

In his Oriental enterprises, Mr. Hill's knowledge and foresight have been supplemented by events; for he has that best gift of his fairy godmother—luck. Let him undertake a new operation, and the stars in their courses seem to fight for him. Are the Orientals slow in acquiring a taste for flour; does the stock market need a "fillip;"—the nations of the earth go to war or famine obligingly stalks through the land,—and, behold the market for his wares, the demand for his supply!

THE METHODS OF A RAILROAD GENIUS.

As in the conception, construction, and extension of the road, so in his methods of operation, Mr. Hill's achievement is unique. He has the genius which in a military age would have made a Napoleon.

He has made the road; he *is* the road;—he is its head, its hand, its conscience. He has risen through successive stages and grown with the road's growth. He has studied, assimilated, taught,—and moved on. Wherever he left a department he shed a system. In his rise he has carried with him a staggering weight of detail. He knows every inch of the country through which his road runs—in its geography, topography, fauna, flora, minerals, water, air, population, resources, and portable products. He knows the road in its sleepers, rails, spikes, ballast, engines, shops, sidings, and stations. He knows exactly what pressure every part of every engine can endure, what work it is capable of performing, and how long it should last. So close a touch has he on every detail that he feels the slightest jar in the vast machine, and his finger falls instantly upon the disturbing cause. He seems omniscient and omnipresent, appearing unexpectedly at remote mountain-stations,—from no one knows where,—and vanishing as mysteriously as he came.

AN UNDIVIDED RESPONSIBILITY.

There is no filtering of authority through vice-president, general manager, or chief clerk, with the consequent shifting of responsibility; the enlightenment, reproof, or dismissal comes on the spot, warmed with Mr. Hill's personality. As a result of this close relationship between him and his employees, the Great Northern has been singularly free from the strikes, agitations, and annoyances which have beset other roads. The only strike of any consequence was in 1894. It

grew out of the fact that the prevailing business depression of 1893 had made necessary a reduction in the payroll of the Great Northern Railroad Company, and this was brought about in part by reducing the salaries of its officers and the rates of pay of its employees.

During the winter, representatives of the American Railway Union, formed in 1892, had been active in the work of organization on the lines of several railroads, among others the Great Northern. The work was conducted with great secrecy, and none of the officers of the company had knowledge of it. The company having for years recognized the old unions, had no knowledge of complaints, or of any considerable dissatisfaction on the part of its employees, who at that time numbered about 8,000.

When the cloud finally broke, there were many misconceptions, therefore, to be cleared away; and it was not for some two weeks that Mr. Hill and the strike organizers came to understand each other. When they did, the whole trouble was promptly and finally settled by arbitration. Through the whole incident Mr. Hill's was the guiding mind in every detail, and his clear head, tact, firmness, and fairness were successful in bringing to a happy issue a matter which might have had permanently unfortunate results in the hands of a man of less generous mold.

TRAINING YOUNG MEN FOR THE SERVICE.

In connection with the general offices, there has been established a school of railroading, where young men are given a thorough knowledge of every department. When a new branch road is organized, or a department is created, the man needed for its head is immediately forthcoming; for at the same time Mr. Hill foresaw the future need, he foresaw the man for the place, and began to train the boy. The motto of the Great Northern road should be, "The child is father to the man;" for Mr. Hill believes that strength and swiftness are in the feet of young men. His son, James N. Hill, is president of the Spokane & Northern Division, and also third vice-president of the general system. His son, Louis Hill, is vice-president of the Eastern Minnesota Division. Both are young men of great promise, who have served their apprenticeship in every branch of railroading; and upon them Mr. Hill is gradually unloading the enormous burden which he has carried so long.

MR. HILL A MANY-SIDED MAN.

During those years of apprenticeship in the steamboat office he was preparing himself to fill in the canvas which then contained but the sketchy outlines drawn by his imagination. Days filled with labor were succeeded by nights of unremitting study. The subjects devoured were so far apart in interest, so abstruse and apparently impractical in application that nothing but the preparation of an encyclopædia would seem to justify his selection. This omnivorous appetite for reading, joined to a phenomenal memory, makes his learning prodigious. Question him on almost any subject and you are overwhelmed by a steady flow of information, detail, statistics, until the finite mind reels. No man is so versed in his own specialty that Mr. Hill cannot teach him something therein. This course of study was to prepare him not only for a successful business career, but also to provide resources of enjoyment for his dearly-bought leisure. He may, like Carlyle, be described as a sledge-hammer with an æolian-harp attachment; for, while his knotted muscles are battering away for the world's commerce, his delicately strung sensibilities never fail to give answering music to each wandering wind of beauty or fancy. He is essentially domestic, and lives amid his regal surroundings a life of rugged simplicity.

MR. HILL'S HOME IN ST. PAUL.

Mrs. Hill, who was a Miss Mary Mahegan, is a woman of beautiful face and more beautiful character, and is universally beloved. She possesses a rare combination of quiet humor, tact, and executive ability. To these qualities, and the consequent thrift, discipline, and comfort in



DOCKS CONSTRUCTED FOR THE ORIENTAL SERVICE AT THE SEATTLE TERMINUS.

their domestic affairs, Mr. Hill ascribes no small measure of his success in life. A family of nine interesting and gifted children have grown up about them. To each has been given the best



MR. HILL'S RESIDENCE AT ST. PAUL.

preparation which America offers educationally to fit them for the wide opportunities of their lives.

Several years ago Mr. Hill built in St. Paul one of the handsomest houses in America. It is baronial in style, massively built of brown stone, and contains every interior perfection known to science. With his characteristic love of detail, he spent a fortune on plumbing, heating, lighting, and ventilation. The interior finish is simple and rich as the exterior. The house is filled with the rarest and costliest of art treasures, tapestries, rugs, vases, wood-carvings, antique furniture; all are of the choicest selection and of quiet taste. His art gallery ranks second or third among the private collections of the United States. He has a fondness for French art, and among the gems are some of the best specimens of the modern painting of that country. Some of the notable ones are Corot's "Biblis," Ribot's "Descent from the Cross," Diaz's "Storm," Rousseau's "Mont Jean de Paris." Added to these are some of the masterpieces of Millet, Delacroix, Deschamps, Troyan, Bougereau, Henner, Laurens, and Jules Breton. Of every picture Mr. Hill will give you the conception, the technical and artistic value as no one but a painter could do, as well as every fact of interest concerning each artist. As an art critic, so his ability as a lapidary; he has one of the choicest private collections of jewels in America, and can detect at a touch any flaw, however obscure. These jewels he collects for the pleasure he takes in their perfection, as the members of his family seldom wear them. All these treasures of their superb home Mr. and Mrs. Hill enjoy and share without ostentation or vanity—a constant object lesson and benignant influence to those about them.

One of Mr. Hill's dearest ambitions was to be a soldier, and it was a bitter blow at the outbreak of the Rebellion that, owing to a defect in his vision, he was not accepted for service. Upon this fact, doubtless, his whole career hinged. In hardships and hairbreadth escapes, traveling by dog-sledge and on foot, he sought to forget this disappointment in fighting his country's battles against wilderness, desert, and mountain.

FARMS AND EXPERIMENT STATIONS.

Mr. Hill's order of intellect does not permit him a recreation that is purposeless; every pastime develops into a science. Thus his farming, which he began as a relaxation, has developed an experimental station. His North Oaks farm, within easy driving distance of St. Paul, contains 5,500 acres, inclosed by a single fence. The land is wooded or under cultivation, and seven lakes are included within its limits. The buildings are unpretentious and simple, like those of the surrounding farms, but so numerous as to form a good-sized village. They consist of



A HERD OF BUFFALO ON MR. HILL'S FARM, NORTH OAKS.



HARVESTING WHEAT ALONG THE LINE OF THE GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD.

a house for the family, another for the workmen, horse and cow stables, pig-sties, hay-barns, extensive greenhouses, a marble-fitted and refrigerated dairy, a bowling alley and boathouse. In the interior arrangement, the highest degree of sanitation and comfort is secured. Here he has collected, from all parts of the world, the best breeds of horses and cattle, whose feeding, training and marketing he personally oversees to the minutest detail. He has a strong love for horses, and seldom sells any of those he has raised. Upon an island in the largest lake he is preserving a herd of elk. In another pasture he has a large herd of buffalo—among the last of their vanishing race.

Near Crookston, Minn., he has a grain-farm of 35,000 acres. This is carried on in the same manner as the large farms in Dakota, with all externals of the plainest, but with the latest labor-saving machinery.

EDUCATING THE LOCAL FARMER.

In his farming, as in his home life, Mr. Hill's aim is to be a helpful neighbor; the result of all his experiments he shares with those about him. The value of his agricultural and stock-raising knowledge to the settlers along the line of his road is, in consequence, incalculable. He is constantly giving talks and addresses at State and county fairs, stock-growers' conventions, and before legislatures. It is largely through his influence that the Red River Valley settlers have been induced to take up diversified farming instead of depending, as formerly, upon wheat alone; and, in consequence, having to face starvation with every crop failure. In this, as in all his advocated reforms, he does not stop with "talk." Following his instruction, he has scattered along the line of his road, for free use of the farmers, 500 blooded bulls and 3,500 boars. The result of this foresight has been a complete transformation of the "scrub" stock of the Northwest.

MR. HILL'S PHILANTHROPIES.

One of Mr. Hill's most notable philanthropies is the St. Paul Theological Seminary—a school of preparation for the priesthood, dedicated in 1895. Unlike most philanthropists, and with characteristic modesty, Mr. Hill refuses to allow this institution to bear his name, but gives that honor to the city of his residence. The buildings, erected through the gift of $500,000, are six severely handsome structures of pressed brick, built in the English University form of a



ONE OF THE BUILDINGS OF THE ST. PAUL SEMINARY.

quadrangle. The site, upon the high, wooded bluff of the Mississippi River, offers a quiet retreat, perfectly fitted for study and thought. No expense was spared in internal equipment, affording an opportunity for comfort, health, and the highest culture. Each student is provided with a study and sleeping room, with access to the bath. A gymnasium gives an opportunity for physical development, so often overlooked in such institutions. The seminary offers unrivaled opportunities for theological research, as well as a broad culture in science and literature, not usually joined to a theological course. While the seminary is intended principally for the ecclesiastical province of St. Paul, and draws its students from the dioceses comprised in this province, still it is open to students of all sections of the country, and from the first its fullest capacity has been tested. The Right Reverend Monsignor Caillet, a pioneer in Minnesota religious life, was its first rector. On his death the Very Reverend Patrick R. Heffron, a young man of unusual attainments and brilliancy, became its rector.

Two Protestant colleges in the environs of St. Paul owe, in a large measure, their prolonged activity to Mr. Hill's generosity—Macalester, a Presbyterian institution, and Hamline, of the Methodist denomination. Indeed, scarcely a church of St. Paul has appealed to Mr. Hill in vain in its financial crises; and many towns along the lines of his road show with pride some church, educational, or philanthropic institution which he has built or helped to build.

A PROPHET WITH HONOR.

Though a prophet's own country is proverbially slow in honoring him; though Mr. Hill had long been feared in New York, honored in London, and fêted on the Continent, his own city presented an unusual spectacle when they rose as a man to honor him. The occasion was the completion of the Great Northern road across the continent in 1893. The committee appointed by the people desired to make the occasion as much as possible like the triumph of a Roman conqueror, and to this end proffered Mr. Hill the homage of his fellow-townsmen upon a salver. Mr. Hill thanked his neighbors for their appreciation, but denied having done anything worthy of note, and refused to be the heroic figure of a spectacle. The completion of a transcontinental line, with headquarters in St. Paul, he considered an event worthy of celebration, but he also thought it a pity to waste so much enthusiasm when it might be turned to lasting good; so he suggested that the thousands of dollars which the committee had raised to spend on this Roman holiday should be doubled by a like amount, which he would give, and that a public library building should be erected as a monument of the achievement. But the people clamored for pageants, speeches, processions, banquets, and handshakings, and Mr. Hill was overridden in his modest and beneficent design. Concealing his distaste politely, he rode at the head of the two-mile procession beneath unsteady triumphal arches, with the clashing brass bands inseparable from such an occasion. He stood for hours and shook hands with the entire Northwest at a monster reception. He sat at an interminable Lucullian banquet, where walls and tables bristled with floral locomotives. Through it all he gracefully discharged the undesired duties of the hero, and took the affair as a tribute to the Great Northern road and not to himself. The people, however, meant it otherwise; and it remains upon the annals of his city as a spontaneous tribute of love and reverence to the man who had conquered the wilderness and mountains of the great Northwest.



PANORAMIC VIEW OF SEATTLE FROM THE HARBOR, SHOWING GREAT NORTHERN DOCKS IN THE CENTER.

PARIS AND THE EXPOSITION OF 1900.

BY ALBERT SHAW.

EXPOSITIONS are never ready on the opening day. This, however, is by no means so unfortunate a circumstance as it is customary to regard it. The making of an exposition is of itself a wondrous and instructive spectacle ; and it is something that the public may not see before the formal day of opening. The discomfort of dust, rubbish, and obstructed passages on the Paris Exposition grounds during the closing days of April and the opening days of May could readily be overlooked when weighed against the fascination of the scene in general and in detail.

The railroad tracks laid temporarily for the distribution of building materials and exhibitors' boxes still gridironed the grounds, and were crowded with freight cars of all shapes and sizes from all the countries of Continental Europe. The principal buildings were so nearly completed as to afford the visitor the full benefit of the larger architectural effects, while enough remained to be done here and there to keep an army of workmen employed and to render it particularly easy and agreeable for the visitor to observe all the processes of construction and decoration. It was a pleasure to note the progress made from one day to the next in the marvelously beautiful landscape gardening ; in the completion of pavements, roadways and passages ; in the placing of exterior sculpture ; in the erection of exhibitors' pavilions within, and in the arranging of the exhibits themselves.



WORKMEN ON UNFINISHED BUILDING.

In all this work, the thing that might naturally make the deepest impression upon the mind of the thoughtful American observer was the close alliance between the artist and the craftsman. This Exposition of 1900 is not so much characterized by vastness and quantity as by beauty, quality, and careful selection. To have arrived on the scene when nine-tenths of the heavier work was done, and to have been allowed —for twelve cents a day—to stand at the elbow of artists, architects, highly skilled mural decorators, mosaic-workers, carpenters, joiners, plasterers, painters, and good workmen of all crafts,—most of them French, but with a fair sprinkling from all countries,—ought to be regarded as a rare privilege rather than a thing to find fault about. And so it occurs to me to recommend to exposition managers henceforth (Buffalo and St. Louis, please take notice) not to apologize for the inevitable incompleteness of things on the day set for opening, but rather to assume credit for allowing a vast deal of extremely attractive work to be seen in the final stages and processes of creation.

What remains of the Chicago Exposition of 1893 is the memory of a grandeur and beauty of general effect never seen before, and not likely to be equaled in the century upon which we are entering. The power and greatness of America were nobly symbolized in this inspired spectacle on the shore of Lake Michigan. It is difficult to compare things so different as the American Exposition of 1893 and this latest attempt. It is not even easy, in a sentence or two of generalization, to compare the Paris Exposition of 1900 with that of 1889—which has left behind it the Eiffel Tower as its most enduring survival and monument. In some respects the present one is less beautiful than its local predecessor.

In most regards, however, this exposition seems to me far greater and more significant. Its ground space is three or four times as large as that occupied by the famous Exposition of 1878, of which the Trocadéro Palace, then deemed so notable an architectural monument, remains as a permanent museum and also as a building which lends itself readily this year, as in 1889, to exposition uses. The *ensemble* view from its terraces this year, as eleven years ago, is magnificent ; while from its lofty tower the outlook (300 feet above the river ; take elevator) includes not merely the exposition, but affords a bird's-eye view of all Paris and its surrounding country.

The exposition at Chicago was mainly a thing



MAIN ENTRANCE ON THE PLACE DE LA CONCORDE.

apart. It bore no vital relation to Chicago as a city, nor yet to the life of Chicago as a phase of modern civilization. Chicago itself, however, was the climax of American vigor, energy, and material progress; and thus the visitor had the benefit, as it were, of two great creations side by side—viz., Chicago itself and the White City in Jackson Park.

The Paris Exposition, on the contrary, is best understood, as it seems to me, when it is regarded as part and parcel of the city itself. It is located in the very heart of the metropolis; and it adapts itself so ingeniously and attractively to the spaces at its disposal that it seems to be, in large part, an extension of the city. It is essentially Parisian in its spirit, both external and internal; and I find it natural and convenient to think of it merely as a manifestation of this most cosmopolitan of cities in a season when special efforts have been made to provide entertainment, instruction, and diverse attractions.

The saying that Paris is France contains, of course, only a half truth. No metropolis can fully exhibit the life of a people. But, on the other hand, it is doubtless true that no other capital city is so representative as Paris of all that characterizes the nation; and this overshadowing importance of the French capital has never been so marked as in the last years of our closing century. But, during the Exposition period, Paris becomes also a rendezvous and center of ideas for the whole world. The Exposition, then, may be conceived of as the City of Paris occupying itself with the entertainment of a sort of congress of the nations—with a gracious display by all of things interesting and characteristic that illustrate their history and contemporary life; nothing being done in the spirit of rivalry, but all in a generous spirit of kindliness and mutual helpfulness.

Just here I must say a word in contradiction of much that has been printed about the treatment of strangers in Paris in the Exposition year. I have been unable to discover anything but civility and goodwill. It is true that the hotels obtain higher prices than usual for well-located rooms. But at the most crowded periods of the season their prices will hardly approach the ordinary charges of correspondingly good New York or London hotels. Throughout the Exposition season there will be, in my judgment, ample accommodation at fairly reasonable prices. As for the tales of extortion on the part of cab-drivers, shopkeepers, restaurants, and so forth, which have appeared in various American newspapers, I am unable to find anything to justify them. The street railroad and omnibus service of Paris is so cumbersome and slow that most Americans prefer either to walk or to take cabs. Far from its being true, however, that the cab-drivers are disagreeable, extortionate, or untrustworthy, they are as angels of light when compared with New York street-car conductors. The fares are small, and the system affords hardly more occasion for disagreement about payment than do street-car fares in America. The principal thing for the stranger not accustomed to



SCENE ON THE NIGHT BEFORE THE OPENING.

Parisian ways to remember is that he is dealing with a people of exceptional politeness, and that on his own part good temper, courtesy, and a smiling face will do more than anything else to make his visit pleasant and profitable.

As we enter the new century, Paris remains preëminently the typical modern city. The Exposition is very largely under the direction and control of the officials who administer the Public Works and other departments of the municipality. This fact renders it the more convenient to study a good deal of the Exposition as if it were a part of Paris itself. Throughout the city, even at its very heart, one finds marvelous attention everywhere to trees and parkways. On many of the boulevards and avenues there are not less than four rows of shade-trees. The beautiful arrangement in the Exposition grounds of trees, flowers, and green lawns have been produced by the same men who are responsible for the charm of trees and parks that pervades the entire city.

In like manner, the architecture and decoration of the Exposition have, to a great extent, been in the charge of those municipal departments which carry steadily forward the great work of developing Paris as a city of beautiful and harmonious arrangement and construction, and of artistic embellishment.

The spaces selected for the present Exposition are not large enough to make possible those magnificent effects produced by sheer size and proportion at Chicago. Nevertheless, some splendid perspectives and delightful vistas have resulted from the skillful way in which already existing and permanent architectural monuments and features have been brought into relation with the temporary structures of the Exposition.

The most essential feature of the entire scheme is the River Seine, which passes through Paris like a great canal, with embankments of noble masonry and broad quays flanked by public buildings. The most central open spot of Paris is the great square known as the Place de la Concorde. Standing in the center of this square, one looks eastward through the garden of the Tuileries to the Louvre; westward up the most

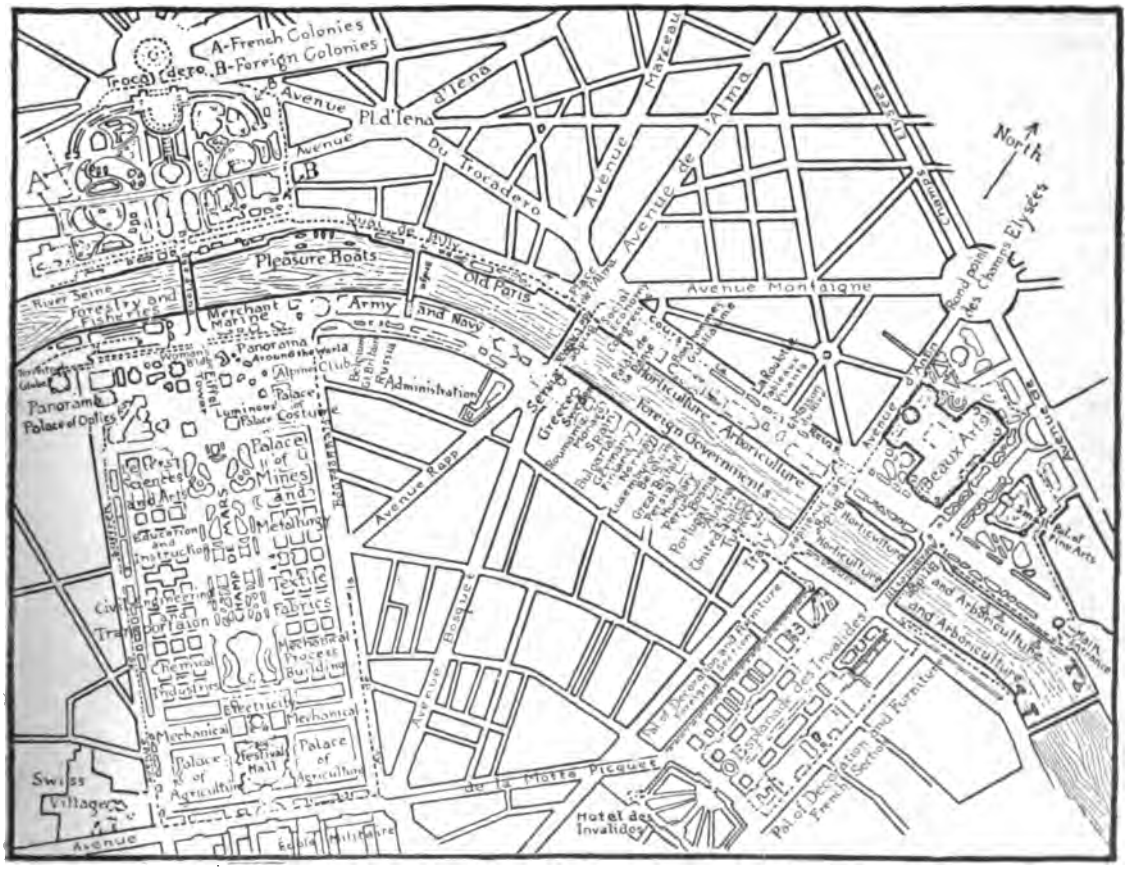


DIAGRAM SHOWING THE GROUND SCHEME OF THE EXPOSITION.

magnificent avenue in the world, that of the Champs Elysées, to the Arc de Triomphe; northward past the beautiful building of the Department of Justice to the noble Greek portico of the Madeleine, and southward directly across the crowded Bridge de la Concorde to the broad façade of the Palais Bourbon, with its twelve columns—a building now occupied by the Chamber of Deputies. Adjoining this building, on the south side of the river, i.e., on the Quai d'Orsay, opposite the Champs Elysées, is the building of the Department of Foreign Affairs; and next in order is the great soldiers' home and museum known as the "Hotel des Invalides," in the rear of which is the tomb of Napoleon, surmounted by a great gilt dome that is one of the chief of the architectural landmarks of the city. In front of the Invalides, and extending to the embankment of the river, is an open square or esplanade upon which a part of the new Exposition has been built.

At precisely this point there has been constructed a new bridge, named for the late Czar Alexander III. of Russia, and just now completed, which is for the present season used exclusively as a part of the Exposition, and which is incomparably finer than any other of the beautiful bridges that span the Seine. This bridge is approached on the north side of the river by a very short new avenue connecting it with the Avenue de Champs Elysées, and named for the present Czar Nicholas. On either side of this new avenue there has been built a Palace of Fine Arts, the smaller of which is devoted to pictures



THE GRAND PALAIS DES BEAUX ARTS.

characteristic of the entire art history of France; while the larger one, on the westward side of the avenue, will henceforth be at the disposal of the great yearly art exhibitions, though for this Exposition year it is devoted to the French and international art of the Nineteenth Century. These buildings were formally opened by President Loubet on May 1.

One of the chief indirect effects of an occasion like this Exposition is the stimulus that is given to the carrying out of great projects of permanent architectural embellishment and of public improvement in general. The most conspicuous monumental survival of the present Exposition season will be the Alexander Bridge and the new Nicholas Avenue, with the two beautiful art buildings.

The central part of the esplanade of the Invalides has been arranged—for Exposition purposes—as a continuation of the Nicholas Avenue; and on either side of the central street are tem-



THE BRIDGE OF ALEXANDER III.

porary but exquisitely beautiful buildings, in which are contained the exhibits of the finer kinds of manufactured goods—textiles, potteries, and porcelains, jewelry and fine metal-work, furniture and articles of house decoration, and manifold other products of industry, chiefly of an artistic or ornamental character.

These buildings on the esplanade are kept low enough to permit the gilded dome of the Invalides to dominate the general effect. Thus one stands at the entrance of the Nicholas Avenue, with the colonnades of the new Art Buildings on either hand, and looks across the broad Alexander Bridge down a vista of amazing symmetry



THE PETIT PALAIS.

and beauty, terminating in the great dome beneath which lies the great Napoleon's sarcophagus.

The bridge symbolizes the Franco-Russian Alliance. The present Czar laid the corner-stone of it four years ago. It is the present French theory that this alliance has made for peace and true civilization. A Frenchman might readily enough say, that the best interpretation of the Exposition itself is to be found in its setting forth of the progress of France and Russia both in domestic development and in imperial or colonial activity since the establishment of the *entente*. Europe has been kept at peace, and France has been relieved from the painful anxiety and sense of isolation that had characterized the previous fifteen or twenty years. It was this alliance that gave France the heart and courage to project the present Exposition.

Besides the art buildings and the Alexander Bridge, another great permanent improvement which will have been due to the Exposition is the so-called *Metropolitain*, or underground rapid transit line. This, to be sure, has been talked about for a great many years. But nothing would have been done toward its present accomplishment but for the impulse given by the anticipated demands of the Exposition year. Some further account of this transit project, as financed by the municipal government, is reserved for another article.

It had been hoped, at one time, that the great scheme for the removal of the belt of fortifications around Paris—a scheme that calls for beautiful new boulevards and park spaces, and for the annexation of the outer zone of growing suburbs—might also have been accomplished, as a part of the local programme of progress to be celebrated in the present year. But this desirable reform is complicated with elaborate and difficult questions of finance; and it is likely to await, among other things, the abolition of the *octroi* system. That mediæval device of a municipal tariff upon supplies brought into the city even yet affords Paris half of its total yearly revenue. These great forward steps will at least have been taken much sooner than they otherwise could have been, by reason of the agitation of them in connection with the present Exposition.

Among other important projects achieved at this time, conspicuous mention belongs to the Orleans Railway—the system that serves Southern France—for the construction of an underground line by which its trains are brought to the heart of the city, where a magnificent new terminal station with an adjoining hotel has been constructed on the Quai D'Orsay, near the Chamber of Deputies. Connection is made also with the new metropolitan or municipal under-



THE AVENUE TO THE ESPLANADE DES INVALIDES.

ground transit system which passes beneath the Seine.

Railway tracks also pass underneath the Exposition grounds, where hoisting-machinery delivers freight through shafts or openings, which appear at a little distance to be regular squares in geometrical flower-gardens.

I am tempted to linger somewhat upon this topic of the relation of the Exposition to the further improvement of the beautiful city that surrounds it; but I must proceed with some further notes upon the arrangement of the Exposition itself.

From the new Alexander Bridge to the Pont d'Iéna—the bridge directly facing the Trocadéro Palace—the distance is a little more than a mile. Opposite the Trocadéro, on the south bank of the Seine, is the Champ de Mars—an open space of about 120 acres, ordinarily used for military maneuvers. It is the principal site of the present Exposition, as it was of the one held eleven years ago. Between the two bridges just mentioned, the Exposition occupies a narrow strip a mile long upon each bank of the river.

Thus the great show may readily be divided geographically into six parts, as follows: (1) The new art buildings at the approach to the Alexander Bridge, together with the main Exposition entrance and the other minor structures that are near by in the Champs Elysées; (2) the exquisitely beautiful buildings across the Alexander Bridge on the esplanade of the Invalides; (3) the series of buildings on the north embankment, extending from the Art Palaces to the Trocadéro; (4) the row of buildings on the opposite bank of the river from the Invalides to the Champ de Mars; (5) the Trocadéro Palace, with the numerous temporary buildings and pavilions that throng its 30 to 40 acres of grounds; (6) the Champ de Mars, just opposite the Trocadéro, containing the larger buildings and the greater part of the general exhibits.

These six divisions of the Exposition proper do not contain all of the side-shows for which one pays an extra admission. There are more than fifty of these private enterprises of one kind or another, some of which—notably the Swiss village—are as attractive as any parts of the strictly official Exposition. There must also be mentioned, however, as belonging to the Exposition proper, although several miles away from it, the "Annex" for railway exhibits and the like in the great park at Vincennes, east of Paris.

I do not find myself in the least disposed to agree with those critics who have called the present Exposition rambling and scattered, and therefore wasteful of the time and energy of the visitor. On the contrary, I have found it the more accessible and the more easy to analyze and understand, by reason of its charming projection along both banks of the river. The Seine lends both access and beauty to the Exposition—somewhat as the Grand Canal ministers at once to the beauty and the convenience of Venice.

My first proceeding after reaching Paris late in April was to walk quickly from my hotel across the Champs Elysées to the river bank, where I took one of the numerous little steamboats that ply swiftly up and down the river and that are incomparably more efficient as a local transit service than the omnibuses or tram cars. It was just before sunset of a perfect day; and the Exposition disclosed itself on either hand. I could not wish a more delightful first view. It was a little like approaching the Chicago World's Fair by way of the lake, and also a little like seeing the Court of Honor at that Fair from a gondola on the lagoon. But the effect of the Paris Exposition from the Seine is, of course, infinitely more lively and varied.

On the left bank, following the great new station of the Orleans Railway, the Chamber of Deputies and the Palace of the Department of Foreign Affairs, comes the ambitious and brilliant architectural medley of the Exposition Pavilions erected as national headquarters by various governments. I shall not undertake to describe these, and may merely remark that no buildings so finished and so perfect in minute detail have ever before been constructed to serve the transient purposes of a fair.

At Chicago, almost every structure was of pure white; but at Paris the most lavish use has been made of tone and color. The possibilities of plaster or "staff" are indeed surprising. Thus one finds what appear to be old Normandy houses, timber-framed and weather-worn, so perfectly reproduced in plaster that an expert at a distance of two feet would think himself looking at genuine old oak. The Belgian Government has erected as its headquarters a reproduction of one of those beautiful and highly ornate Gothic town-halls of the middle ages, for which Belgium is so famous; and the coloring and general aspect of old carved stone are so perfect as to make the illusion complete.

Everywhere, both inside and outside of the buildings, the mural painters have worked wonders. Their designs—symbolical, historical, or faithfully descriptive of scenery or contemporary life—supplement the exhibits of many countries and regions. Beautiful decoration in color is so profuse that it seems almost to "run riot." It makes an American shudder to reflect that most of this must be destroyed in a few months. For in our whole western hemisphere there is proba-

bly not so much really good mural painting as has here been improvised for the fleeting purpose of a season's passing show. But we are improving in these matters; and our painters and architects have also contributed something—in a modest but approved fashion—to the adornment of the beautiful shell of this Exposition.

The most convenient general entrance to the Exposition is at the Pont de l'Alma—a bridge midway between the new Alexander Bridge and the Iéna Bridge which connects the Trocadéro with the Champ de Mars. The row of pavilions of the foreign powers ends at this point. The remaining space on the south embankment is occupied by long buildings devoted to military and naval exhibits. Schneider of Creusot, whose artillery has made the Boers so formidable, has a great exhibit that is a special center of interest; while the most conspicuous thing that England has contributed to this exposition is the unique building, decorated with cannon and round shot, erected by the Maxim firm, and full of hideously splendid specimens of rapid-fire machines and rifled artillery. Attractive exhibits in special pavilions are provided by some of the great commercial steamship companies, notably those of Germany.

On the north bank of the Seine, beginning at the point nearest the Alexander Bridge, one finds, first, the building erected by the city of Paris, and filled with exhibits intended to illustrate the various departments of municipal administration. This building is exceedingly attractive in its arrangement and very beautiful and suggestive in its artistic embellishment; but the exhibits do not seem to me quite so seriously instructive as those made by the municipality in the Exposition of 1889. Above all else in this building, the visitor will be likely to remember the exhibits made by the "professional schools" of Paris—which are what we should call technical and practical trade-schools. Paris deliberately adapts its popular education to the actual life of its people. It does not merely teach plain sewing to small girls, but it provides for older ones the most thorough education in the making of all sorts of costly and beautiful garments.

In short, there is no accident in the fact that Paris leads in fashions, and provides costumes for the wealthy of all countries. The application of art to industry, whether in the making of gowns or of fine furniture, is promoted in all possible ways by the general and municipal governments, as vital to the prosperity of the community. It would fill a page to give the merest outline of the variety of special schools in Paris for the teaching of arts and crafts. Even the cab-drivers have a school, where they learn everything possible—(1) about the streets, public places and topography of Paris; (2) about driving and the proper care of horses and vehicles; and (3) about the police regulations which directly or indirectly concern the drivers of public carriages.

The serious student of municipal administration will, of course, use the display of the municipality at the Exposition as supplementing his



VIEW OF THE NATIONAL PAVILIONS ON THE QUAI D'ORSAY.



"OLD PARIS," ON THE LEFT BANK OF THE SEINE.

direct observations of the municipal life around him, and as illuminating the statistical information afforded by books and documents.

Beyond this building of the municipality are the beautiful glass pavilions, framed in green, of the horticultural department of the Exposition. Crossing the river at this point is one of the two or three picturesque *passerelles*, or temporary foot-bridges, that have been built to facilitate the movement of visitors. Next comes the plain but attractive white building, devoted to the exhibits which—by means of charts, graphic tables, photographs, and a variety of other devices—more or less perfectly set forth the recent progress of civilized nations in matters of social economy. These have to do with health administration, temperance reform, working-men's insurance, improved housing schemes, industrial coöperation and profit sharing, and so on. As to exhibits of this kind, one must make either a passing allusion or else write a long article about them.

In this same building are large halls for the accommodation of the multitude of scientific congresses and other gatherings of a learned or special nature which are to follow one another through the entire Exposition period. The congresses are destined to bear a very important part in the wise use of the resources that the Exposition offers to specialists of every nature. (A list of the principal exposition congresses was given on pages 561–62 of the May REVIEW.)

The principal feature of the embankment from the Pont de l'Alma to the Trocadéro grounds is a creation known as "Old Paris." It is perhaps the most elaborate of the side-shows connected with the Exposition. It reproduces, with much fidelity, not only the old Paris houses and streets of bygone centuries, but also a number of specific old buildings of historical or architectural interest. It shelters the usual cluster of restaurants, cafés, and concert-rooms, and has also many little shops for the sale of curios and *articles de Paris*. Its denizens are garbed in the quaint costumes of the middle ages.

The largest architectural synthesis of the Exposition lies in the Champ de Mars. The visitor stands on the Trocadéro terraces or on the Iéna Bridge, and looks under the great archway beneath the Eiffel Tower into a beautifully gardened *impasse*, at the end of which is the broad and gorgeous spectacular façade of the so-called Palace of Electricity. From the front of this



THE SECTION DOMINATED BY THE ARCH OF THE EIFFEL TOWER.



PALACE OF ELECTRICITY.

building a wide sheet of water descends, in a series of cascades affording opportunity for brilliant evening effects with colored electric lights. Immediately behind this brave front—with its riotous sculpture, its highly colored decorative painting, its countless electric lights and its spectacular cataracts—is a vast amphitheater called the *Salle des Fêtes*. This is designed for concerts, receptions, or other occasions where room for many thousands of people is needed. On either side of the *Salle des Fêtes*, and continuous with it, are the structures devoted to the display of the agricultural exhibits of France and foreign nations. Even here the art spirit dominates: and the ordinary visitor will certainly find himself more inclined to study the wonderful freedom and fantastic beauty of the decorations of the Hungarian and Austrian sections, for example, than to go seriously into the evidence they give of progress in the culture of the soil and in the methods and life of the people. The American section, however, is more scientific and practical. Our superiority in the invention and use of machinery is the one generalization that would necessarily follow from a study of the part we have taken in this Exposition. Editorial comments in the REVIEW last month made note of the remarkably large number of individual American exhibits, and accorded just praise to Mr. Peck and his associates of the American Commission for the great energy by virtue of which they have brought our American offerings across an ocean, and had them in readiness before any of the European nations. It is also to be said that the display of pictures by American artists is in admirable taste, though showing no strong tendency toward the formation of a distinctively national school of American art.

It is no part of my purpose in these notes to make systematic mention of the general exhibits which occupy the great buildings of the Champ de Mars. The visitor will find innumerable maps, plans, and descriptive and illustrated Exposition guide-books, at all prices. On the other hand, the reader who will not visit Paris this year can find little profit in a detailed recital.

It is enough to say that the Exhibition is, above all things, suggestive and entertaining. It testifies with surpassing eloquence to the real progress of international peace and good-will; while—at a time when social discontent is thought to be rife and ever-increasing, with socialism as a dreaded cloud well above the horizon—this Exposition glorifies and dignifies modern labor as nothing else has ever done. It foreshadows a new century of delicate and marvelous mechanisms; of human skill rising superior to mere commercialism; of labor becoming the master, as it ought to be, with capital in its proper place as servant.

Many visitors will find the most significant part of the exhibition in the buildings devoted to French and foreign colonies, nearly all of which are located in the Trocadéro part of the Exposition grounds. The vast majority of the frequenters of the Exposition will, of course, be Frenchmen; and the Government has seized the opportunity to exploit, to the best possible advantage, its colonial policy. It is desired that Frenchmen should believe that the colonies are to have commercial importance to France, and that they are places of great picturesque interest and charm. Thus Madagascar has a great pavilion to itself, as have also Algeria, Tunis, the French Soudan, Tonkin, and numerous other islands or regions under French control.

The development of Russia's Asiatic policy is also most skillfully exploited; and hardly anything in the Exposition is more interesting than the building especially devoted by the Russian Government to Siberia, the Transcaspian or Turkestan regions, and the other oriental domin-



BUILDING OF ASIATIC RUSSIA.



THE SPANISH BUILDING.

ions of the Czar. Adjoining this building on one side is the pavilion devoted to the exhibit of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, with its prominent sign, "*From Moscow to Pekin*;" while next to it, on the other side, has been placed the building devoted to the exhibits of China. The whole grouping would seem intended to familiarize the world with the idea that Russia, by means of its imperial railway system, expects to become commercially, if not politically, dominant in China.

Canada has a suitable pavilion, and India makes some showing; but in general the British Empire is not well represented, and England is not prominent at the Exposition. Just the contrary is true of Germany. Having abandoned the project of an international exposition at Berlin, the German Emperor very cleverly indorsed the idea that it would pay Germany well to make a lavish appropriation for the Paris show. Thus the Germans determined to do everything possible to make German industry, art, and general progress appear favorably in comparison with any other nation represented. They have succeeded brilliantly.

Russia, naturally, plays a large part on the Exposition grounds. The Hungarian half of the Empire of Francis Joseph is represented with signal brilliancy, while the Austrian half has nothing to apologize for. France's neighbors, Italy and Belgium, have participated in the Exposition in a splendid fashion, while Spain makes an appearance that surprises all comers. Switzerland shows everywhere the gratifying evidence of her never-failing resources of vitality and high civilization.

A number of comparatively small kingdoms, principalities, and distinct provinces make characteristic exhibits that win universal sympathy and admiration. Among these are all the small states of Southeastern Europe, and notably Bosnia. Finland is charmingly represented. Far-off Iceland and Greenland have small but edifying exhibits that illustrate the life of their people. The Transvaal exhibit has been accorded unusual prominence—not so much for its intrinsic excellence as for the great sympathy and interest that the Boer cause has awakened through the European Continent.



THE TRANSVAAL BUILDING.

I have heard some Americans say that they preferred not to visit Paris this year, inasmuch as expositions always bored them, and they hated crowds. But Paris in an exposition year is simply Paris at its best plus many added attractions. The inconveniences are slight compared with the special opportunities. The present exposition, as a popular university, surpasses anything the world has ever seen before. To visit it will amply reward no little effort and sacrifice.

THE NEW YORK TENEMENT-HOUSE COMMISSION.

BY JACOB A. RIIS.

THE tenement-house commission picked by Governor Roosevelt has lost no time in setting about the work it was appointed to do. Within a week after it had organized by electing Robert W. de Forest chairman and Lawrence Veiller secretary, it was abroad among the tenements east and west, uptown and downtown, gathering data as to actual conditions as material for its summer work. Simultaneously a great increase of activity was observed on the part of the health officers and the factory inspectors. The board of health detailed 150 policemen to find out whether landlords observed the law ordering them to light up dark hallways—one of the urgently necessary reforms which, since the Greater New York came in, had been left to the "discretion" of the landlords themselves. A physician, whose daily labor is among the poorest, writes to me, under date of May 4: "A curious thing is happening just now. Some one is very active, and the factory laws are more vigorously enforced than I have ever known them to be before." The evidence of the sweat-shops to the contrary during the winter has been cause for discouragement.

This official compliment is suggestive of the kind of confidence reposed in the commission. There is little room for doubt that it will fully justify it. No body of men was ever appointed to do a great task that met with a heartier reception by the newspapers and by the public, and this is in itself no mean equipment for its performance. It is well that it is so. Governor Roosevelt declared his belief that the commission was fully as important as the Charter Revision Commission, because it would have to deal with "one of the great fundamental factors in the most difficult and complex of the industrial and social problems of the day." It is, in fact, the greatest. It involves the protection of the homes of more than two millions of toilers in our great cities. It is in the cities that government by the people is on trial. It will succeed only in proportion as the homes of the masses remain worthy of the name. The just charge against the bad tenement is that it injures the home, if it does not destroy it, and with it good citizenship. To grapple with such an evil requires all the backing which an enlightened and patriotic public sentiment can give.

The commission, as appointed, had fifteen members. It is a matter of public regret that Dr. E. R. L. Gould found himself unable to serve. Dr. Gould, as an authority on the housing of the working people here and abroad no less than as the president of the City and Suburban Homes Company, would have been a most valuable member. At the moment of writing this, the vacancy caused by his withdrawal has not yet been filled.

Robert W. de Forest, the chairman of the commission, is a well-known New Yorker, a lawyer of large practice, counsel to the Central Railroad of New Jersey, a rational philanthropist, and for years the president of the Charity Organization Society, which stands for sane methods in all it concerns itself about. Mr. de Forest took an active part in the agitation which led up to the recent tenement-house exhibition



Photo by Hollinger.

ROBERT W. D. DE FOREST.

(Chairman of the Tenement-House Commission.)

and bore fruit in the law creating the commission of which he has been made the head. He possesses, in a marked degree, the confidence of the business community as an able, thoughtful, conservative man.

Hugh Bonner is the well-known ex-chief of the Fire Department, recently crowded out of office by Tammany after a lifetime of service. during which he fought his way up from the bottom to the top of the best fire-fighting service in the world. He entered the service as a volunteer when he was a lad, in 1860, and was retired last year. As a witness before the last tenement-house committee he helped shape some of that body's most valuable work. Mr. Bonner is a man of calm judgment and invaluable experience for the work in hand. More than half the fires in New York are every year in the tenements, though they are hardly one-third of the city's buildings. Since he went out of the city's service, the insurance rates have gone up significantly.

Naturally we would look for a strong representation of the building interests upon such a commission. In fact, they claim half its membership. Raymond T. Almirall, J. N. Phelps Stokes, and William Lansing are architects, Otto M. Eidlitz a builder of the present day, while Myles Tierney and Alfred T. White have been builders on a large scale. William J. O'Brien represents the labor interests. Mr. Almirall is a Brooklyn man, of the firm of Ingle &



HUGH BONNER.

(Ex-Chief of the Fire Department of Greater New York.)



J. N. PHELPS STOKES.

Almirall. He is a graduate of Cornell and of the École des Beaux Arts in Paris, and brings to his work a mind open especially to the claims of the children, who must ever be the "way out" of our city slums. Paradoxically, the shortest cut out of the problems they raise is the longest way around—i.e., through the next generation. Mr. Almirall's plea is understood to be for playgrounds and a chance for the boys, and he will be sure to have hearty backing. Mr. Stokes is a young man with the time and means to devote to bettering the home conditions of the other half. He has given sharp attention to tenement-house building along lines which shall preserve proper landlord interests while affording the tenant a maximum, instead of a minimum, of light, air, and privacy. The model of a tenement-house block, as worked out by him, which he contributed to the recent exhibition, showed long strides toward an intelligent and humane solution of the vexed problem how to shelter the present crowds on the present allowance of land. Mr. Lansing is a Buffalo architect of repute. His colleague from the Western city, William A. Douglas, is a lawyer with a philanthropic point



RAYMOND T. ALMIRALL.



WILLIAM J. O'BRIEN.

of view. He is a trustee of the Charity Organization in that city, which has accomplished notable and gratifying results.

Otto M. Eidlitz, of the firm Marc Eidlitz & Son, is a builder of breadth of character and motive. Though a boss builder, he has the confidence of the labor element. He is for conservative, safe methods—an advocate of arbitration wherever it is possible without surrender of principle. Myles Tierney is a retired builder, concerned in the management of the New York Catholic Protectory. He too is a man of sound views—a useful man. Neither he nor Mr. Eidlitz is liable to clash with Mr. O'Brien, the labor representative. O'Brien was for years the chairman of the Board of Walking Delegates in the Building Trades, and is a fair man and a hard-headed one, as well as a hard worker. It is not likely that any revision committee of political builders will feel called upon hereafter to sneer at the "laughable results" of these men's work, or that any commissioner of buildings will arise to call them busybodies or "visionary theorists." This stage of the discussion, though very recent, may be considered to have been finally passed.



ALFRED T. WHITE.

Mr. Alfred T. White is not only a tenement-house builder and owner, president of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, and of large administrative experience; he is the man who at a meeting in Chickering Hall, held a dozen years ago to devise ways and means of laying hold of the mass of tenement-house dwellers who were slipping away from church influences, arose and cried out, "How shall the love of God be understood by those who have been nurtured in the sight only of the greed of man?" and promptly built the Riverside tenements, to show how he thought a Christian landlord ought to build. They are to-day the model for all such to follow, and they have proved for now eleven years and more that houses that are every way good can be built and made to pay a sound business interest. Mr. White's have yielded a good 6 per cent. It is upon this showing and upon testimony which has accumulated since that good houses can be made to pay, the demand is now made that speculative builders shall cease putting up bad houses and killing their tenants for the sake of making 15 or 20 per cent. If that is a revolutionary claim, why, it is time the revolution came quickly! But it is not. It is a plan of insurance of society and of the honest landlord's interests.

Mr. White is in Europe, recuperating his health. It is greatly to be hoped that he can see his way clear to serve. He could hardly be spared from the commission on any terms.

Mr. Paul D. Cravath, of the firm of Seward & Guthrie, is a lawyer, like Mr. de Forest and Mr. Douglas. He is a man of caliber and of good judgment. Between these three it ought to be possible to get the tenement-house laws in all their bearings upon past and present so digested as to furnish a sound and lasting basis for future progress.



OTTO M. EIDLITZ.



PAUL D. CRAVATH.

Dr. George B. Fowler was a health commissioner under Mayor Strong, and shared in the credit for putting his department on the very excellent footing upon which Tammany, returning to power and office, found, but did not keep it.

F. Norton Goddard is the energetic young merchant who has bearded the forces of reaction in their ancient stronghold on the East Side,



Photo by Wilhelm.

DR. GEORGE B. FOWLER. F. NORTON GODDARD.

Richard Croker's home ward, the Twenty-first, and has battled successfully with that meanest of frauds, the policy-gambling evil, that fed upon the scanty earnings of the poor to the extent, as he showed, of $250 a day the year round in the one ward. The most practical of work may be expected of him. James B. Reynolds, the head-worker of the University Settlement, completes the list. Mr. Reynolds has been six years in his present position, and knows the tenement-house population and its grievances as well as any one. He was the chairman of the Executive Committee of the Citizens' Union in the Low campaign of 1897, and has the confidence of the one half as of the other, now to meet in consultation as to what is best for both. To the energy of Mr. Lawrence Veiller, the secretary of the commission, the community owes in a very great measure the striking exhibit of facts which roused it to the present demand for relief. His training in the building department will stand the commission in good stead in the labors that are before it.

Governor Roosevelt has chosen well. Now, as to the problems before his commission. Perhaps the three pictures of tenement-house blocks measure it as well as anything could. They represent the old, the new, and the ideal, as far as the ideal can be embodied in tenement-house building. I do not think that is very far. However, it may be that even that ideal is unattainable upon Manhattan Island, where land is scarce and dear. The Riverside tenements are in Brooklyn. But equally are the others unendurable.

The old block is the heritage of a bad past. It is on the East Side, at Canal and Chrystie streets, and typical of hundreds. In it are housed, in round numbers, 2,500 human beings on 80,000 square feet of land. There are 500 babies in the block, and pretty nearly that number of dark rooms, but not a bathtub. Dark rooms and babies in juxtaposition fatten the undertaker's bank-account. The combination made the last tenement-house commission put the stigma of "infant slaughter houses" upon the rear tenements, and caused the board of health to destroy a hundred of them. There are some left in the block shown in the picture. Rear tenements are not necessarily shambles, but on general principles they are not fit to exist. Just now there is a shamefaced sort of disposition to excuse them, because the builder of the modern double-decker has grabbed more than his share of the lot for his one building. It happens that I have right before me the figures showing what the destruction of one nest of rear tenements meant to the tenants that remained and to the city. I refer to the barracks at Nos. 308–316 Mott Street. For seven years,—from 1890 to 1896, inclusive,—the annual death-rate of these houses, front and rear, had been 39.56. In some years it was over 45. That was with a population of 260, reduced by a mighty police effort from nearly twice that number in the eighties. At that time the murder of infants by the wretched slum went right on. I remember a year in which one-third of all the babies in the houses died—"by the will of God," said the priest. I sometimes wondered how the undertaker maintained his gravity, knowing, as he did, that a cemetery corporation held the mortgage on the barracks. It was a grim coincidence, to put it mildly. However, the death-rate came down to 39.56, while the general city death-rate was 24. Then came the wreckers, and tore down the rear houses. Where they stood the sun shines in now, and the children play. The tenants of the rear houses moved away. In the front houses there remain 143 Italians. In the three years of sunshine the death-rate has averaged 16.28, or less than the general city death-rate in those years!

It is just as well for the commission to go slow in countenancing rear tenements of any kind. They inevitably tend the way of the barracks. Anything does that is hidden away, and not under constant surveillance—saying which is in no way a plea for the double-decker abomination



TYPICAL EAST-SIDE TENEMENT BLOCK, WHERE 2,500 PERSONS ARE SHELTERED ON 80,000 SQUARE FEET OF LAND. ONLY PLAYGROUND FOR OVER 1,000 CHILDREN.

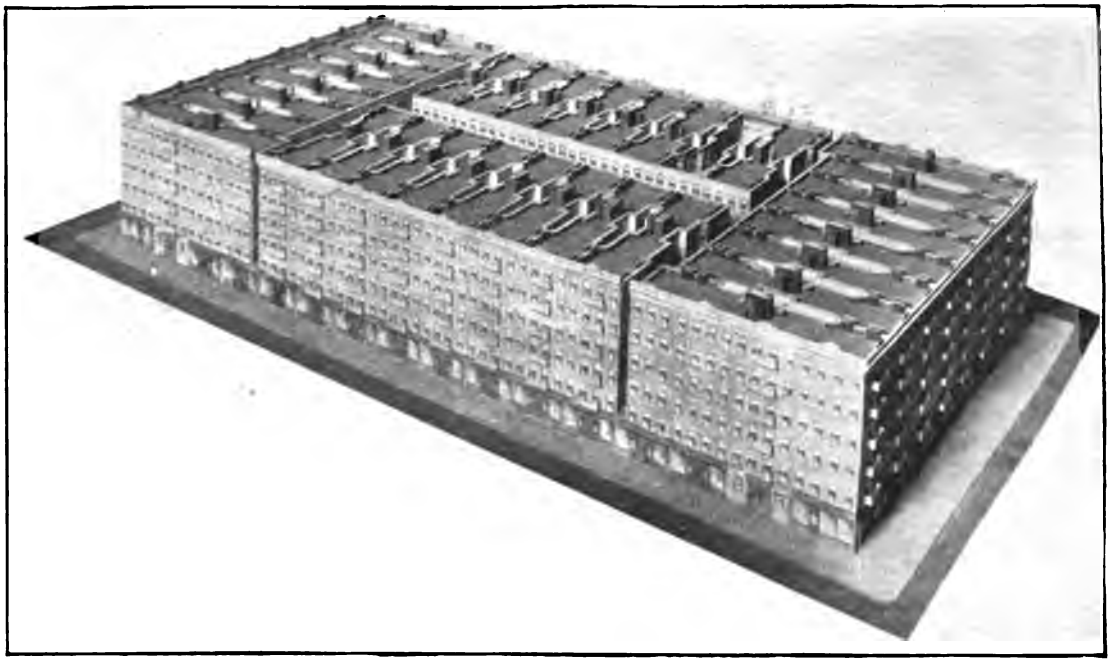
shown in the other picture. That shows what we are coming to—have come to already, to a large extent. As that block looks any tenement-house block may come to look under the present building laws. There are already many that are very like it; and all over the city the older houses are being torn down to make room for the tenement with four families on each floor, six and even seven stories high, if the builder puts iron beams in the two lower stories, and of any heights he chooses, if he makes it fire-proof throughout. That is the law, which the superintendent of buildings says is satisfactory. A block on the West Side, in the latitude of Sixty-first Street, which is almost identical with the one in the picture, contains 4,000 tenants to-day. Add two stories and you have 6,000. The question will present itself then, in a way not to be ignored, how those crowds are to be taken up by streets that were laid out when houses were built to contain two or three families and not thirty. It will be an easy question to answer.

The photographs of air-shafts give a suggestion of how life is lived within such a block, and of the quality of home feeling that may be expected to grow there. These air-shafts were built upon the charitable supposition that they would bring down light and air to the tenants. Some twilight they do bring, and they fetch up a good deal of foul air from below for general distribution. The daily papers have recorded, almost every day this past winter, their chief function—that of serving as chimneys for every fire that breaks out in a tenement. From being a very doubtful blessing, they become then the source of instant peril. The fire is communicated to every floor before the tenants can run for their lives. I have not kept an account of the number of lives lost through this cause since the beginning of the year, but it is shockingly large.

A comparison between this block and Mr. White's Riverside tenements strikes at once the keynote of the trouble with New York, in the 25-foot lot. So soon as that is got rid of, the tenement-house problem, as we now know it, at least, will cease to exist. But how is it to be got rid of? You cannot deprive a man of his property by law without compensation, and to say that he shall not build on his lot is to do that. The municipality cannot buy all the 25-foot lots in the city, for they are all of that size. It can, however, say that a man shall not do that with



BABY IN DARK TENEMENT HALL.
(Its only playground.)



A BLOCK AS IT WILL APPEAR WHEN BUILT UP SOLID WITH "DOUBLE-DECKERS."

his lot which makes of it a nuisance and a threat to all the rest of us. It can so restrict his building in the general interest as to take the usurious profits out of it, and so persuade him to be reasonable. And why, by the way, should usury in land and in houses be permitted, when it is punished in cash transactions? We shall hear from the "poor landlord," during the next six months. Landlords have their troubles, but they are well paid for enduring them The old block in the picture brings in, when it is full—and it is always full—over $113,000 a year in rents. Over on the West Side they are putting up fire-proof tenements to prove that they can be made profitable. The plea caught one East-Side landlord's ear, and he sent for the young architect superintending their erection. He was willing to build fire-proof houses; they might sell quickly, he thought; but when he learned that they were expected to pay 6 per cent., he turned up his nose and dismissed the architect. Nothing less than 20 per cent. would satisfy him; 30 per cent. was better.

The landlord has rights, but the commonwealth is not bound to respect them, if they do it injury. He has no more right to poison a citizen, or corrupt the morals of a voter, with a bad tenement than he has to kill him with an axe. The great gain we made by the work of the last tenement-house commission was that this was nailed as a fact not to be disputed. The community asserted its right to destroy property unfit to exist, and did destroy such property. It weakened at the last moment and compromised with the landlord, who took all he could get; but the principle was established. In Massachusetts they stood their ground, and the right of the commonwealth to protect itself was not questioned. The commission will advance no revolutionary proposition. It will draw the line sharper, and the line will stand. The Gilder Commission pointed out, five years ago, that the double-decker was bad. The community is ready to take the next step with the commission, and say that no more double-deckers shall be built.

What shall take its place? How shall its twenty or thirty families be housed on the 25-foot lot in any other way? These are questions for the commission to debate. The competition of 170 architects at the recent tenement-house exhibition furnished a wealth of suggestions, but few that took cognizance of the 25-foot lot. Perhaps the time has come for taking the bull by the horns by declaring that only so many and no more shall be housed on a given area. There used to be a provision in the law that the height of tenements should bear a certain ratio to the width of the street—the same, if I remember rightly, which Nero decreed in ancient Rome. Five stories became the maximum under that law; but when it paid the builder to go higher, the law died. It may be that the time has come

to set a limit to the height of tenements as well as to their length on the lot. The bad builder has had his day too long. Why should not the honest builder be encouraged by a rebate of taxes, for instance, as a premium on a good house? If the other followed in his steps for the sake of what there was in it, that would be cause only for congratulation. Would it not be a good stroke of business for the city to encourage the building of fire-proof decent tenements by remitting taxes, or a part of them for a season, at least? Thirty families under one roof is not decent.

There is an obvious suggestion of an entering-wedge in the proposition to license the tenements that now exist to hold so many tenants, and no more. The plan was advanced by the first tenement-house commission that considered the subject and put in the first tenement-house bill submitted to the Legislature; but it was stricken out, at the instance of the landlords. Since then, laws have been passed requiring the registration of all tenement landlords as a first step toward holding them to full responsibility; but the law remains a dead letter. The landlords are still unregistered. To license their houses would at once compel their registration, and so accomplish the beneficent purpose of the law. Incidentally, the license money, which at three or even two dollars a house, would amount to $100,000 or more, might be used to pay the salaries of the sanitary police, who exist solely to watch the tenements and their owners. It would be simply fair play.



AIR-SHAFT IN AN EAST-SIDE TENEMENT.

(Closed at both ends. Bedrooms pitch dark: sixty windows open on this air-shaft.)

In Manchester, England, tenement blocks have been built on a 40-foot strip inclosing a central park. The municipality bought the land and sold the strip to builders under restrictions. The result is houses in which there cannot be a dark room. They are not handsome; but they combine a chance for the children with homes for the workers, in a way that offers a very pertinent suggestion to New York. Our city has had to buy many blocks of late years for neighborhood parks, because of the congestion of the neighborhood. As that congestion increases with the taller buildings, the need for more parks will increase, too. It is not desirable that New York should become a tenement-house landlord at this stage, but it might not be amiss to try the Manchester experiment—at least for once. It would be much as if the back-yards in a tenement block had all been cleared and turned into a common garden, with openings on the cross-streets. Such a proposition has, in fact, been made; but it involves a readjustment of property interests that makes it hardly feasible.

In any event, there will probably have to be such a readjustment. Whichever way one turns, it seems to be unavoidable. The delicate task before the committee is to propose one that will do the least violence to the Anglo-Saxon reverence for property, which is one of the strong traits of the race, and so provoke the least opposition while accomplishing the most good. Signs are not wanting to show that such a proposition will get a respectful hearing. That it may not crystallize into law at once is of less moment. The thing is to get it up for discussion now. The proper function of a commission like this one is to register public opinion and nail it to the highest standard of its day, and, having done that, set up the standard upon a still higher peak, toward which it may labor and strive. That was the wise purpose of the Gilder Tenement-House Committee in urging the appointment of a new commission every five years. It took us a long way by getting us committed to parks and playgrounds and better houses, and left us where it had to, to wait till public opinion had made steam enough for another pull. It is that pull which the Roosevelt Commission is now about to give. That has been the history of tenement-house commissions since the first one declared

that the tenants were better than the houses they lived in. That was a discovery at the time. We have gone on making discoveries ever since, and we are not done yet.

The commission is empowered to examine into the houses not only, but their safety, rents, morals, and "all other phases of the so-called tenement-house question that can affect the public welfare." It will have enough to do. The sweat-shop evil lies right on the surface as a subject of inquiry. The factory law, good as it is, has not suppressed it. The commission has it in its power to powerfully aid the enforcement of this law, upon which the governor has set his heart. It can give another lift to the playgrounds cause, temporarily shelved or relegated to private philanthropy to foster. It is the business of the city to provide its children with a chance to play, if it wants clean men and clean citizens. It can put life into the health department, which lies withered under political rule. It was once the pride of our country. It may even be able to convince the Building Department that it is not the immaculate executor of a perfect building law, for one thing by banishing "discretion" from the enforcement of the law. Not long ago I viewed in a Western city the slum in all its pristine nastiness, and when I asked how it came to grow so quickly, I was told that there was not a law or an ordinance in that town that had not "discretion" tacked on to it. The result was that not one of them was enforced. Nothing was done. We have our full share of that sort of thing.

With the bridges and tunnels that are now coming to cross our rivers, and the efforts made to tempt factories and their hands out of town to suburban settlements, all of which together are going to give a new meaning to the old saying that the worker must "live near his work," the commission can help open a real "way out" of the slum by preparing public opinion to demand cheap working-hour fares on trolley cars and railroads, as they have them in England and elsewhere. All these things need to be done. When they are done and the fate of the double-decker has been sealed, or at all events a plane of reasonable settlement has been found, there will still be time to discuss the question whether the whole matter should be put into the hands of a separate commission, appointed by and backed by the State, or the responsibility for it settled more firmly upon a health department whose vast powers were judicially wielded, and patiently borne, when it was freed from the incubus and dictation of the district leader.



THE RIVERSIDE TENEMENTS IN BROOKLYN.

(Owned by Alfred T. White, a member of the Tenement-House Commission.)



HISTORIC OLD MOUNT KEARSARGE, WITHIN VIEW OF WHICH ARE CLUSTERED A DOZEN OR MORE BOYS' CAMPS.

SUMMER CAMPS FOR BOYS.

BY LOUIS ROUILLION.

FOR nine months of the year the city schoolboy is under careful supervision. His needs are studied, and are more or less adequately met. At any rate there exist definite arrangements, both at home and in school, for providing him a chance to express himself and to grow. But until the present decade no attempt has been made to organize the life of boys during the remaining three months of the year —those included in the long summer vacation. For many boys the coveted vacation-time is a period of wasted opportunities and disappointed hopes. The boy of the tenement district is turned loose on the streets with nothing in particular to do. The boy whose parents can take him to the country fares even worse. If he finds himself in the artificial and uncongenial atmosphere of a summer hotel, his case is pitiable. If he is intrusted to a private tutor or mentor, there is still something to be desired; for no older person, however much he may be liked, can take the place of boon companions equal in age. And if he is set adrift in a countryside to chum with whatever companions chance may throw in his way, he is still likely to fall short of the royal good time his soul hungers for. For boys in their teens cannot, as a rule, order their lives to their own satisfaction. As little in the summer time as in the winter can they get along without the initiative and the restraint of older leaders.

How to provide boys from nine to nineteen with the conditions that make for an ideal summer outing, is a problem deserving of as careful study as any other problem of modern education. Parents and teachers are alike interested in its wise solution: both have much at stake: for, as goes the summer, it may almost be said, so goes the year.

One of the practical solutions of this problem, a solution to which much attention has been given during the past decade, and which in the writer's opinion deserves much wider application than at present it has, it is the purpose of this sketch to describe.

The summer-camp idea thus conceives the problem and its solution. The aim is to afford



ON GUARD DUTY.

Rochester, N. Y., Junior Camp.



WATERMELON DAY IN THE ROCHESTER, N. Y., JUNIOR CAMP.

the boy a thoroughly wholesome outdoor life during the summer months, under conditions that will contribute, in the largest measure, to his spiritual and physical growth. The requirements are, that he should have the constant comradeship of other boys, the sympathetic companionship of strong men, the freest opportunity to wander over field and mountain—to swim, fish, row; to exercise every true impulse of his nature freely and without restraint. Aside from exceptional circumstances, as the necessity for making up school-work in which he may be deficient and for which no other time is available, he should be kept away from text-books. This does not include reference to books on geology, botany, or kindred sciences that should at this time be most meaningful to him, because of his natural and free contact with these sciences.

The conditions of the problems are, we believe, most nearly met by the summer camps for boys that are now established institutions in different parts of the country. These camps fall into three quite clearly marked groups: the natural-science camp, the camps conducted in connection with the boys' branches of the Y. M. C. A., and the camps for the sons of the well-to-do classes.

A type of the first of the above camps is the "Natural-Science Camp," situated on the shores of Canandaigua Lake, in the State of New York. This camp has just rounded out its first decade, and is in a flourishing condition. It is under the direction of an enthusiastic educator, assisted by a corps of college men—specialists in their particular lines, as botany, geology, taxidermy, etc. The camp is conducted on a military basis. The aim of the director, as expressed in the camp prospectus, is "to provide an ideal outing for young people." To quote further: "An institution for this purpose should be so planned that the student shall have a royal good time; that his health may be substantially improved, and that his love of Nature may be cultivated. . . . The departure from all that is artificial in our mode of living, and a return to the outdoor life of primitive man, produces the same vigorous vitality to-day that it did in the Indians and the early settlers who lived this way long ago. . . . The classes in the various sciences are not conducted on the text-book and recitation plan, as are those of the ordinary school, but are perhaps best described as walks and talks with the instructors. Each morning, at eight o'clock, the companies fall in on the color line; the various announcements for the day are made, after which, on each Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday, the campers report to their instructors, and



FILLING THE BEDS, FIRST DAY, ROCHESTER, N. Y., JUNIOR CAMP AT CONESUS LAKE.

start on their trips, returning to camp at eleven o'clock. On Wednesday and Saturday mornings a lecture takes the place of the regular expeditions for the day. No text-books are used." In this camp, as in those subsequently described, athletics are given a foremost place. The camp period covers the months of July and August. The charge is nine dollars per week.

The camps in connection with the boys' branches of the Y. M. C A. are quite numerous. The camp periods are of short duration, varying from one to four weeks, and the cost to the camper is but from three to between five and six dollars per week. The camps are of two kinds: those local in character and those under control of the State committees. There are many local camps in New England. A partial list is as follows: Camp Hartwell, on Narragansett Bay;



WHERE MEALS ARE SERVED. THE LODGE-CAMP, PENACOOK.

Camp Jennings, on Seaconnet River; Southbridge Camp, on Lake Pookookapog, Fiskdale, Mass.; Camp Sprague, on Mount Hope, Bristol, R. I.; Camp Buel, on Lake Buel, Monterey, Mass.; Camp Brooks, on Chebaco Lake, Essex, Mass.; Camp Peabody, on Suntang Lake, Lynnfield, Mass.; Camp As-you-like-it, on Swanzey Lake, Swanzey, N. H.; Camp Merrimac, on Ipswich Bluffs, Ipswich, Mass.; High-Rock Camp, on Norwich Pond, Norwich, Mass.; and the Watertown Boys' Camp, on the Charles River. The Massachusetts State Camp is situated on Silver Lake, near Plymouth, and is known as Camp Durrell.

In New York State there are fewer camps. The State Camp—Camp Dudley—is mentioned below. The Albany Association has a camp on No-Man's Island in Lake Champlain, and the Kingston boys camp on the shores of Twin Lake, in Dutchess County. A most successful camp is the Rochester Junior, on Conesus Lake. Boys from Geneva, Batavia, Lockport, Auburn, Fairport,



"CAMP SHAND," LANCASTER, PA.

and other towns in the neighborhood of Rochester are guests at the Junior Camp. This custom of having a single camp draw upon a more or less extensive area is quite general. Camp Shand, on Mount Gretna, Pa., is a flourishing camp of the boys of Lancaster, Pa. There are but a few boys' camps in the South. Mobile, Ala., has had one for several years.

The boys' camp idea is taking root in the West, and although there are fewer camps than in the States mentioned above, there is an abundance of enthusiasm that promises the establishment of many new camps when the idea is more fully understood. Cleveland and Cincinnati have camps, as have also the Indianapolis Juniors, under the name of the "Boys' Brigade." Camp Hope, on Lake Beulah, Wis., is a live, up-to-date camp, which justifies the allusion above to "enthusiasm." The publication of a daily paper, during the camp period, is but one of the



A UNIT GROUP OF COUNSELOR AND TENT-MATES AT CAMP PENACOOK.

many methods that these Camp-Hope boys have of giving expression to their intense activity. Michigan has Camp Gay, on Green Lake, eighteen miles southeast of Grand Rapids. Iowa claims two camps, one for the boys of Waterloo and one for those of Dubuque. The latter camp is situated on the banks of the Mississippi, at Armsworth Springs. Portland, Oregon, has an annual camp in the woods, where rumor has it that the boys kill bears. San Francisco boys pitch their tents on the beach. Among the camp pioneers should be placed the Winnipeg Association. The site of their camp is a most romantic one, being none other than the mystical "Lake of the Woods" of our boyhood's dreams. The association owns the island used for camping purposes. Another association similarly blessed is that at Montreal; and, last but not least, comes the Maritime Boys' Camp, which is so popular that it is carried on in two sections, in order to accommodate the hordes of spirited youngsters who appreciate a jolly outing. One section holds forth at River John, in Nova Scotia, and the other on Long Island, Kennebecasis River, in New Brunswick.

A typical camp of this class is Camp Dudley, the camp of the Associations of New York and New Jersey. It is delightfully situated on Lake Champlain, near Westport, N. Y. Its sixteenth season opens early in July, and closes early in August. The tone of the camp is distinctly religious. The campers occupy tents 12 by 14 feet in size, from 8 to 14 boys being accommodated in each tent. The tents are without floors, the boys sleeping on rubber blankets spread upon the ground. They arise at 7, have breakfast at 7.30, followed by Bible study from 8 to 8.30. The rest of the morning is devoted to outdoor sports. At noon comes the dip for those that can swim, followed by dinner. The afternoon is given up to having a general good time. At 4.30 there is a dip in shallow water for non-swimmers. In the twilight, games of a jolly nature are indulged in, in which the camp-leaders take a hearty part. As darkness approaches the camp-fire is lighted, college songs are sung; these giving way to those of a sacred character, and these again followed in turn by a ten-minute talk on some religious topic.

The whole question of camp government is very simple. There is one recognized head of the camp, known as the camp-leader, and under him are from 20 to 25 assistant leaders, each having a certain rank; and the ranking leader, at any time or place, is responsible for the party under him. The camp last summer numbered 153 boys and 25 leaders.

The camp idea has reached its best expression in the final group of camps in the above classification. In these we find most nearly fulfilled the requirements of the stated problem. Their general aims, as well as methods of attainment, are so nearly identical that they may advantageously be considered as a composite. The first requisite to a camp is its site, and in each case a happy selection has been made. They are all situated on or near a body of water, and without exception embrace mountain views. The proximity to mountains permits of hardy climbs, and delightful nights spent on the summits, with only the stars for canopy. The lakes permit of swimming, boating, and fishing. Another requisite is a body of young men to act as directors and leaders, who are thoroughly in sympathy with boys, who express in their own character the attainment of a healthful manliness, and who are possessed with an enthusiastic love for outdoor life. Here, then, we have the three factors of our problem brought together—the boy, his friend, and the right summer environment. The boys are a selected group. The camp is in no way reformatory in character; therefore, only boys of sound and clean minds are permitted as campers. The young men who act as counselors and directors are, with few exceptions, college men. They are generally specialists in some line of activity which it is the purpose of the camp to further. Thus, one is chosen to direct the field-



THE MARITIME BOYS' CAMP, NOVA SCOTIA, CANADA.



BOYS' CAMP, DUBUQUE, IOWA.

work in botany or geology, another to look after manual training, and still another to lead the camp singing, or, it may be, the sports. A many-sided activity is demanded by camp conditions. It has been found. as a result of experience, that a camp is successful and fulfills its purpose only in so far as it furnishes a definite mode for the expression of this activity. More than one camp has, for its fundamental working principle, manual training; another camp puts forward as its gospel the doctrine of the dignity of labor; and the pampered son of a railroad magnate here learns a valuable lesson by the simple process of washing dishes and doing police duty. But to the casual observer these camps all appear much alike, and as though actuated, as they are, by the same basal principles. He sees a group of jolly, hardy youngsters, scantily clad, without hats and many times without shoes, living a perfectly natural life, fulfilling the boy's own ideal.

The general plan of the camp's material equipment includes a large building, with a great open fireplace built of native rocks, furnished with tables and chairs, a piano, and a carefully selected library of up-to-date books for boys. A photographic dark-room is partitioned off, also a storeroom for boat-furnishings, fishing-tackle, etc. This building is the focus of the camp's interests. It serves as a dining-hall, and in the evening presents a picture of happy good-fellowship in its group of young men and boys gathered about the fire of blazing logs, telling stories, singing songs to the accompaniment of banjo, guitar, and piano, and sharing in the prevailing spirit of comradeship. Clustered about this building are the tents, each accommodating seven or eight boys and one of the camp counselors. The latter is the special adviser of the group in his charge, and the responsibility for their well-being rests primarily on him. The equipment further includes a number of boats, a dock, and a swimming-raft. Minor buildings are a kitchen and an ice-house. The government of the camps is invested in a camp-council composed of the director and his assistants. The question of discipline hardly enters into the problem, because of the naturalness of camp-life, possessing, as it does, none of the restrictions of the more artificial school-life.

The mornings are devoted to the more serious work of the camp, manual training, field-work in geology and botany, and, for the few, the study and recitation requisite to making up deficiencies in school-work, or for preparation for admission to college. One camp points proudly to a fleet of boats, a number of well-built huts, a wharf, and a swimming-raft as a partial result of its work in manual training. The afternoons are spent in various sports. A baseball nine is an important adjunct to every well-regulated camp, and receives most loyal support. Tramps to the numerous points of interest about camp are al-



POSING FOR THEIR PICTURES AT CHAMPLAIN CAMP.



NATURAL SCIENCE CAMP, CANANDAIGUA LAKE, N. Y.
THE SENECA SULPHUR SPRING.



NATURAL SCIENCE CAMP, CANANDAIGUA LAKE, N. Y.
THE MORNING WASH.

ways in order. These tramps frequently mean trips of from three to ten days, the party camping whenever overtaken by night. It is the law of the jaunt to take a dip in every lake and stream encountered. Imagine the joy of coming unexpectedly upon a stream or lake! One wild shout, a mad rush for the shore, clothes doffed in a jiffy, and the next minute a score or two of amphibious animals sporting in the cool water! A wagon accompanies the longer trips, but the only person privileged to ride is that most important functionary of all, the camp-cook. Swinging along in single file, keeping step to the music of their own rich young voices singing some popular air, the lads form a happy group. Never a care is theirs; they are, for the time being, one with the birds. A striking piece of their attire is the rough-rider's hat, worn with a boyish jauntiness. Two holes cut in the side serve as a receptacle for a tooth-brush. About the rim is marked in black ink the record of previous tramps, giving the date and the distance walked. During the winter months this hat adorns the wall of a boy's room, and is treasured as a souvenir of truly happy days.

Another source of keen enjoyment to camp boys is the building of their own huts in which to live. These are often quite picturesque, being built along the shores in the shadow of overhanging trees. Two boys at one of the camps made a radical departure from the time-honored method of hut-building. They built a raft of logs, securely fastened together, and floored with rough boards. Upon this they framed a hut of slabs with the bark on, and shingled the roof. The finished appearance was that of a log cabin. The raft was towed out into the lake and secured on a "sunken-island," so-called. Never was titled lord more proud of his castle than were these boys of their handiwork. A pennant upon a slender pole above the hut announced the fact that the proprietors were at home. As the music of the camp-bugle resounded across the water in the early morning, two frousy heads were poked out of the cabin windows, and a few minutes later two laddies are seen rapidly paddling their canoe toward camp to be in time for breakfast. For, be it known, a dire punishment awaits tardiness to meals—no less a punishment than compelling a hungry boy to wait until other

Camp Hope Boomerang.

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LAKE BEULAH, WIS.

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FRONT PAGE OF PAPER PUBLISHED BY BOYS OF CAMP HOPE.

hungry boys are through eating. And then there are the temporary huts of pine boughs that serve as shelter during the nights spent upon some mountain summit, or beside a distant lake. How sound and refreshing the sleep on a bed of fir-balsam, with the stars peeping in between the boughs of the hastily constructed hut! These typical instances of the joys of camp-days could be extended almost without limit; but let them suffice as suggesting camp possibilities in their line.

The camp period extends from eight to ten weeks, and the average charge is $150 inclusive of all expenses. A physician is generally included in the personnel of the camp; but his position is a sinecure, as a case of sickness is a rare exception.

At present there are about a dozen camps of this class, the majority situated within view of old Kearsarge Mountain in New Hampshire. Among the best known of them are: Camp Asquam and Camp Algonquin, on Squam Lake, Holderness; Camp Idlewild, on Lake Winnepesaukee; Camp Sunapee, on the lake of the same name; Camp Penacook, on Keyser Lake, North Sutton; Camp Pasquaney, on New Found Lake, Bridgewater; Camp Marienfeld, Chesham,—all of the above in New Hampshire; Champlain Camp, on Mallet's Bay, Vermont, and Camp 'Rondack, on Lower Saranac Lake, New York. Each issues an illustrated booklet descriptive of its aim and purpose. The keynote of the spirit of this boys' camp movement is aptly given in the introductory paragraph of one of the booklets above referred to: "A camp in the woods bordering on a beautiful lake, breathing the healthful, bracing air of the pines, viewing Nature in her ever-changing moods, living a free, outdoor life, and having at all times the sympathetic companionship of young men of refinement, experience, and character—is not this an ideal summer outing for a boy?"



ROCHESTER, N. Y., JUNIOR CAMP. A DESERTED CAMP—OFF ON A RAMBLE.

AUTOMOBILES FOR THE AVERAGE MAN.

SOME EVERY-DAY FACTS ABOUT HORSELESS CARRIAGES, WITH THEIR SEVERAL ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES.

BY CLEVELAND MOFFETT.

FOR some years now we have read much about the automobile and its great future. We have heard that horses must disappear from our streets ere long; we know that self-propelling



STEAM MOTOR STANHOPE.

(Weighs less than 500 pounds and costs from $650 to $750. Gasoline is the fuel producing the steam. Speed from 1 to 40 miles an hour. An expert has run this carriage 72 miles on average roads with 2¾ gallons of gasoline, at a cost of 17½ cents. One supply of water lasted 48 miles. Under favorable conditions the carriage has climbed a 36 per cent. incline.)

ambulances, fire-engines, army wagons, plows, trucks, etc., will soon be familiar as the trolley cars; we have seen amazing statistics of motor-carriage factories springing up on every side, with hundreds of millions invested. But, I fancy, until recently the average man has regarded all this as applying to some one else—not to him; to the world at large, to the rich. He has gone on riding in street-cars, taking cabs, or hiring livery turnouts, and never thought of blossoming forth with an automobile of his own.

But of late the average man has been stirred to a different kind of interest in this horseless invasion—a personal interest: for scarcely can he go forth of a Sunday afternoon but he meets his friend Jones or his friend Smith (and a lady) rolling complacently down the avenue on some trim, swift-moving contrivance that buzzes and flashes past to the general admiration. He wonders where Jones or Smith got that thing from; speculates on its cost and advantages; thinks he would like to try one himself; presently has a chance to try one, and, presto! the seed is sown. By the fact that he has marveled and yearned, this average man has joined the swelling army of those who would fain possess an automobile—nay more, who propose to possess one as soon as may be. How large this army of yearners is, one may judge from the fact that department stores are already announcing automobiles among their special attractions.

It is for this average man and his friends that I am writing now—for busy, non-scientific people, who are wavering on the edge of a resolve to buy an automobile, and would welcome a little light on the subject; would like some facts—not too many—about the various makes and motive-powers; about cost, weight, expense of running, efficiency, danger, advantages and disadvantages,—all told simply and, if possible, impartially.

At the start we may take it as true that only three kinds of self-propelling carriages are offered for our choice—electric carriages, gasoline carriages, and steam carriages. Other kinds, driven by compressed air, alcohol, acetylene gas, etc., may be disregarded as still in the experimental stage and not for us. What we want is something that has gone through the inevitable period of groping and mistakes, and developed the three essential qualities of safety, simplicity, and efficiency. Given these three, we may let cost or beauty decide; without these three, no automobile shall tempt us, be it ever so swift or cheap.

Safety, simplicity, and efficiency! As to the first-named, one may say that there is no reason for fear, whatever the choice be. Steam carriages will not explode, gasoline carriages will not take fire, and electric carriages will give no shock to the rider—at least, the chance of such accident is entirely remote, like the chance of a house falling.

I may add, however, that while all these carriages are safe from accidents caused by the propelling engine (as elaborate tests have shown),

there is an element of danger in driving an automobile due to the driver's lack of skill or lack of nerve. The one may be soon corrected; for it is a simple matter to manage an automobile of whatever kind—a lever to draw, a handle to turn, a knob under foot to press; that is the whole story, and two hours will give full mastery. But lack of nerve is another thing, and may constitute a very real danger inseparably connected with steering a swift-moving vehicle along crowded ways. No doubt there are men (and many women) quite unfit for such responsibility, just as there are men and women unfit for mountain climbing.



A STEAM-DRIVEN STANHOPE CLIMBING A STEEP COUNTRY HILL.

This I realized the other afternoon, as we automobiled down Fifth Avenue (I suppose we must have that verb), at the time of heaviest carriage traffic, and caught my breath as the young man steering threaded his way between wheels and horses, and shot down lanes of vehicles where an inch's wavering or a second's hesitation would have meant collision. His control of the carriage seemed marvelous—though only what bicyclists do daily. He stopped instantly, went ahead with a sudden rush; then stopped again within six feet, turned in a horse's length, went slow, backed, and did all with scarcely an effort. Any experienced driver of any good automobile would do the same (the machines all admit of it); but the man at the handles must keep his head, not only on crowded thoroughfares, but on suburban boulevards or fine country-roads, especially on down-grades, where bursts of speed may be indulged in. A man who boasts of no nerves may find some in him when four wheels jump forward under him (perhaps under wife or child, too) at the rate of forty miles an hour. To be sure of yourself, then, as well as of your carriage, is a good rule of the road for this new diversion.



A GASOLINE AUTOMOBILE.

(This machine will compete in the French International Contest June 14, 1900.)

Coming now to our second requirement of simplicity, there is no doubt the electric carriage shows marked superiority here over the other two. It is quite free from machinery; and, once the batteries that drive it are stowed away, there is nothing to do but steer by the handles—some simple movements of hands and feet that any one can know by heart in a single ride. The electric carriage runs smoothly without noise or vibration; there is no fire in it, no smell about it, nothing to break or get out of order; no gauges to watch, no tangle of oily, grimy parts—all of this in pleasantest contrast to both steam carriage and gasoline carriage, which call for no small mechanical knowledge and alertness on the driver's part. He must be versed, not only in



AN ELECTRIC DEMI MAIL PHAETON.

(Runs about 25 miles with one charge. Speed, 14 miles per hour. Will climb 8 per cent. grades. Costs 1½ cents per mile to operate, and $80 per year to maintain battery. Weighs 2,300 pounds, and costs $2,600.)

steering, but in practical engine-running; for under him, in the carriage body, are tucked away almost as many things as one would find in an engine-room. In the gasoline carriage, for instance, is a heavy iron flywheel, a gasoline tank, a set of cylinders where gasoline is continuously exploded (this produces the motion), an electric battery to give the sparks that explode the gas, a water-jacket to cool the cylinders during explosions, a pump to feed this water-jacket—all these connected by rods, cams, levers, gear-wheels, and valves that seem, I am sure, sadly complicated to the average man. In vain they tell him he will master it all in a couple of days;—he has grave doubts on the subject.

Nor is the steam carriage much simpler, though more compact. It contains a water-tank for the boiler-feed, a steam chamber to muffle the exhaust, a pair of steam cylinders of marine engine pattern, a tank of gasoline (not for exploding, but for fuel like coal in a furnace), a boiler with some 300 copper tubes, a burner under the boiler fed by vaporized gasoline, a tank of high-pressure air to drive gasoline into this burner, and the usual connecting parts with water-gauge, steam-gauge, air-gauge, safety-valve, throttle-lever, reversing-lever,—all the essential features of a locomotive here in miniature, and no toy locomotive, be it understood, but one that will hold its own with ordinary trains, and may be speeded up to forty miles an hour or more; the fastest automobile in the world is this, and therefore the man who drives it must take good heed that he be competent. Indeed, the New York law requires that any person who would operate a steam carriage in this city or State shall obtain an engineer's license, issued only to those who have passed a prescribed examination. Entirely proper is this law, and its application should extend to all motor carriages; for it is absolute folly for any one to go forth on one of these powerful and rapid vehicles (as some too eager amateurs have done) without completely understanding its mechanism.

Let it be understood, then, plainly that the running of an automobile, particularly one driven by gasoline or steam, is more than a matter of paying for the carriage—much more. The driver must learn to do the thing himself; cannot possibly pay some one else to do it for him. He (or she) must know how to fire up; how to leave the engine during a stop for luncheon; how to turn the starting-crank briskly in the gasoline carriage after a stop; how to blow off steam, and adjust the sparking-device, and test the air-pressure, and change the gear connections, and "hook her up," and reverse her, and pick dust out of her check-valve, and a dozen other things, besides interpreting every message of the gauges. He (or she) must have a practical familiarity with each working part, and know what to do if something goes wrong and what not to do; also be willing to face oil and grime with hands and clothes. It is emphatically true here, as in amateur photography, that no good results can be had without considerable taking of pains, and at



AN ELECTRIC STANHOPE, SUITABLE FOR A PHYSICIAN.

(Weight, 2,000 pounds. Speed, 16 miles per hour. Climbs hills of 15 per cent. grade, and costs $1,900.)

least a fortnight's careful study at the outset. I am speaking for the average man.

Beyond doubt, then, simplicity of operation would decide this average man (and nearly all women) in favor of the electric carriage, were there not other things to consider—things having to do with practical efficiency. The electric carriage is quite ideal for use in or about a large city. It is the handsomest automobile, the easiest to drive, the pleasantest to ride in; but it is not adapted for general use—say, in rural districts, nor for touring. In hill-climbing it is quite inferior either to the gasoline or the steam carriage, and it will not run at all without a recharging of its batteries every twenty miles, or so; and this recharging takes two or three hours, assuming a supply of electricity available, which is not the case in most small places. Consequently, if your batteries give out twenty miles from home, there is nothing to do but to tow back, which is no joke with a carriage weighing more than a ton, as these do. And if your electric carriage brings you to a 20 per cent. hill (easy for the other kinds), you must retrace your steps or make a detour. It may be pressure of demand will give more efficient storage batteries in the near future



AN ELECTRIC VICTORIA.

(Will run 25 miles on first-class roads, with one charge. Speed, 12 miles per hour. Weight 2,000 pounds, and price $2,200.)

and establish recharging stations all over the country (that is the present plan), so that a man may replenish his batteries as easily as he now waters his horse; but such is not the case to-day—quite the contrary.

Another point that weighs with the average man against the electric carriage is its considerable expense. Where a steam carriage costs from $650 to $1,500 and a gasoline carriage from $1,000 to $2,000, an electric carriage will cost from $1,250 to $3,500. To be sure, the electric carriage is much more a carriage than



ELECTRIC RUNABOUT.

(Will run 20 to 30 miles with one charge, at 15 miles per hour. Weighs 1,600 pounds, and costs $1,750.)

the other two—a better built, a better-looking carriage; yet the price may well be an obstacle; and this other fact, that cost of maintenance is several times greater in the electric carriage than in the gasoline carriage or the steam carriage. One cent a mile or less will cover the running expenses of the two last named as against two or three cents a mile for an electric carriage, unless one go to the large initial expense of building one's own recharging plant with a double set of batteries, so that one set may be charging while the other is working. This is most convenient, of course, but must be regarded rather as a rich man's luxury.

Let us come now to a comparison between the gasoline carriage and the steam carriage, for we must take one of these if we decide against the electric carriage on account of its limitations. The gasoline carriage has been on the market now for several years, while the steam carriage, in light road wagon form, is a baby born in the summer of 1899; the one is a French product, the other American. Both claim to do about the same work, and carry out their claims reasonably well. The steam carriage weighs much less than the electric carriage, is more compactly built, is capable of greater speed, is somewhat superior in hill-climbing, and costs less. On the other hand, the gasoline carriage is more widely used than any other in the world, and can show substantial reasons for its popularity. It is a carriage a man may put his trust in. For years now it has been tested over all sorts of road, under all sorts of conditions, and has stood the test admirably—perhaps developed more all-round good qualities than any other carriage. In spite of its clumsy and complicated mechanism, it does

not easily get out of order. It will climb all ordinary hills; it will run through sand, mud, or snow; it makes good speed over long distances —say, an average of fifteen miles an hour; and our friend, the average man, has found by repeated trials that he can drive it at that rate hundreds of miles across many States without mishap. It carries gasoline enough for a 70-mile journey, and nearly any country store can replenish the supply. In the matter of operating cost per year, there is practically no difference between this carriage and the steam carriage; with ordinary use and care, $200 or $300 will cover everything in either case.

The chief drawbacks to the gasoline carriage are the noise, vibration, and odor. Every visitor to Paris, where gas-driven automobiles swarm on all the boulevards, will remember how his nostrils have been offended, as these panting machines sweep past, with that sickening smell of imperfect combustion. In vain do makers affirm that there is no odor; it suffices for any one to drive along in the wake of a gasoline carriage to draw his own conclusions—and his pocket-handkerchief. True, this unpleasant feature affects those in the carriage less than those behind it; yet it is sufficient, alas! for all. One might expect the same odor in the steam carriage, since gasoline is burned here, too; but such is not the case, the reason being that in the latter gasoline is projected into the fire in vaporized form, giving perfect combustion, while in the former the combustion is imperfect. Besides, in the gasoline carriage much more gasoline is consumed than in the steam carriage.



SPECIAL ELECTRIC RACING-MACHINE.

(The winning vehicle in the road race of the Automobile Club of America, April 14, 1900. Time: 2 hours, 3 minutes, 30 seconds, over the 50-mile course of country road. Grades of this type of electric vehicle are sold as low as $1,250.)



ELECTRIC DOS-A-DOS.

(Speed, 15 miles an hour. Cost of operation, 1½ cent per mile. Climbs 12 per cent. grades. Weighs 2,000 pounds, and costs $1,650.)

As to noise and vibration in the gasoline carriage, these may be regarded as minor objections. Some people find them disturbing; others do not, and declare that once a rider is accustomed to the piston-beat and the rattle of gears, he minds them no more than the pounding of horses' hoofs in ordinary driving. At any rate, the steam carriage enjoys superiority here, for it moves almost as smoothly and quietly as the electric carriage. Another feature in the gasoline carriage that may justify objection, though a small thing, is this: that, when the carriage is brought to a standstill, the engine must go on with its noisy beating; or else, if the engine be stopped, it can be started only (as mentioned above) by the rapid turning of a crank, which necessitates the rider's dismounting. The steam carriage, on the contrary, will stand silently for an hour or more, and be ready to start in an instant—a low fire keeping sufficient steam up during this time.



ELECTRIC PHAETON FOR CITY USE.

(Travels 30 miles at 12 miles per hour, and weighs 2,500 pounds.)

Perhaps the chief advantage of the gasoline carriage over its steam rival is that on a long run it needs but one kind of replenishing—gasoline

for its engine; while the steam carriage needs two kinds of replenishing—gasoline for its burner-fire and water for its boiler. And as the steam carriage carries limited stores (being compact), this means frequent stopping to fill tanks (a stop every twenty miles), and, what is more serious, the chance of taking impure water aboard and fouling valves and boiler-tubes. What harm a little mud can do, to be sure, or a bit of grit in the feed-pipe! While one is enjoying some lovely panorama, the water-flow into the boiler has been cut off, and presently there are burned-out tubes to be reckoned with, and a dead carriage by the wayside. Again, it has happened that the slant of a long hill has tipped a steam carriage so that its water-tank is below the boiler-level, and the water-feed has stopped with the same lamentable result. Or, still again, on a cold day the water has frozen in tanks and pipes, and the boiler burned out. In a gasoline carriage the boiler never burns out, for the excellent reason that there is no boiler nor any troublesome water gauge to watch and worry over.

Summing it all up briefly, one may say that for use in cities the electric automobile stands without rival. It is made in all models—hansom, phaeton, brougham, victoria, brake, physician's coupé, delivery-wagon, and truck. No other automobile offers such variety of style and finish; and on good roads, in populous districts, no other can show such advantages. It is sufficiently rapid (has won prizes in road-races against all competitors), is clean, free from noise, free from smell, ideally easy to operate, and, although the most expensive automobile, it still shows a saving over horse-drawn vehicles on an estimate of several years' running. With perfected storage batteries, with a system of fine national highways, such as exist in Europe, and with widely distributed electric supply-stations (things sure to come), this would seem to be the automobile of the future.



AN ELECTRIC TRUCK.

(Capacity, 4 tons. Will run 25 miles at 10 miles per hour, on one battery-charge. Climbs 15 per cent. grades. Cost of operation, one cent per ton-mile. Weight of truck 8,500 pounds, and price about $4,000.)



ELECTRIC MAIL WAGON, USED BY THE UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE.

For the present, however, the electric automobile cannot offer the general usefulness of the steam carriage or the gasoline carriage; the man who would journey about the country in any direction on roads as they are must have one of these latter. The gasoline carriage has won its spurs; the steam carriage is rapidly winning spurs also, and owes much of its success to the fact that for generations now engineers have been working to improve and simplify the steam-engine, while the gas engine, a more recent product, has been less perfected. Therefore, it is not surprising that the machinery in a steam automobile takes up half the space and weighs half as much as equally effective machinery in the gasoline automobile. Still, this heavier machinery bears a broader stamp of approval than the lighter, because it has had time to win that approval. Hundreds will argue for gasoline where tens favor steam. Steam carriages are speedier; I myself have ridden at forty miles an hour in one of them: but there is, of course, that boiler to make trouble. Steam carriages are cheaper by 25 per cent., and lighter by 40 per cent.; but they do not equal the gasoline carriage in convenience for touring; indeed, only two models are on the market now—one a runabout (covered or uncovered), with small capacity, and a two-seated road wagon (uncovered), not much better off. The questions of odor, noise, and vibration have been sufficiently considered; and in operating cost, repairs, and trouble of running there is small choice: it is easier to see a future for steam, but the present is a toss-up.

Indeed, the greatness of the automobile lies chiefly in the future, as the greatness of the bicycle is drifting into the past. But the newer product has come to stay—we may be sure of that. Already freight lines are looking with apprehension at the splendid possibilities of the freight-carrying automobile, and trolley lines are wondering if automobile 'busses and coaches are destined to war against them, as they have warred against the railroads. Recently the New York Custom-house tested the automobile's freight-handling efficiency with impressive results. For years the carrying service between docks and custom-house had been done by three wagons, drawn by two relays of three horses, making six horses in all and six men. Instead of these, a single freight-carrying steam wagon was put on with two men, and all the work of the old service was done quite as well with this much cheaper force and an hour saved every day. Experts all agree that for hauling lumber, coal, stone, farmers' produce, etc., over reasonably good roads, the automobile insures a saving of from 25 per cent. to 40 per cent., as against horse and wagon. The movement for a network of automobile roads over the land is strengthening steadily. A well-conceived effort is now



ELECTRIC EMERGENCY WAGON.

(Used by the Metropolitan Street Railway Company in Washington, D. C. Runs 25 miles on one charge, at maximum speed of 16 miles per hour. Climbs 15 per cent. grades. Weighs 7,000 pounds, and costs $3,250.)

making for a transcontinental highway on which automobiles and bicycles may speed from ocean to ocean under best and pleasantest conditions. This is to be a great recreation highway for the public, the expense of building it to be divided among the benefiting States, counties, and cities along the line. Everything will be provided for needs and comfort of rider and driver, auto-



ELECTRIC DELIVERY WAGON.

(The type used by the department stores. Load capacity, 1,500 pounds. Will climb a 6 per cent. grade with this load. Runs about 25 miles with one charge. Maximum speed 10 miles per hour, and costs $2,000.)

mobile inns or club-houses, repair-shops, recharging stations, etc., and nothing will be allowed to interfere with the primary purpose of making this a great people's highway for self-propelling vehicles—the greatest and finest road seen in the world since Roman conquerors spread their marvelous paved ways across empires. At least, that is the plan, and it is so well thought of by engineers and army men (for of course the strategic importance appeals to them strongly) that a committee of some prominence has already been selected for the furtherance of this interesting project.

With the realization of this dream (and the day of its realization may not be so far distant) we shall probably find public taste changing so that many people will prefer to travel from place to place more slowly than at present, and will delight to journey along beautiful, smooth highways by their own conveyance and at their own will and pleasure, rather than to rush blindly along iron rails. And if the automobile does that for us (continuing the spirit born of the bicycle); if it makes us see more of our own country out of beaten lines, and see it more quietly and sanely,—it will have rendered a splendid service to our American life and character—a service second, perhaps, to none of its more material ones. But first, we must have the beautiful, smooth highways now only dreamed of!

THE REFUNDING LAW IN OPERATION.

BY CHARLES A. CONANT.

THE demonstrated ability of the Government of the United States to float a 2-per-cent. bond at par marks an epoch, not only in American financial history, but in the history of government finance throughout the world. This demonstration has been afforded by the refunding provisions of the new gold-standard law. Already, within two months after the approval of the law, about $272,000,000 of 2-per-cent. bonds have been issued by the Treasury, in exchange for other classes of bonds, and the quotations of the new bonds have ranged from 102 to 106½. The willingness of investors to take bonds paying so low a rate of interest demonstrates, not only the high credit of the United States, but the growing power of New York among the world's money markets. Only where there is an abundance of surplus capital seeking investment can the rate for capital be forced down to 2 per cent. even for the highest class of securities. In Germany, at the moment when the United States were placing their new 2-per-cent. bonds, the Imperial 3 per cents, which were at one time close to par, had fallen to the neighborhood of 85 per cent., and Great Britain was inviting tenders at a rate below par for 10-year bonds paying 2¾ per cent. While a part of the value of the bonds of the United States is derived from their special use as security for bank-note circulation, it may fairly be claimed that American credit is higher than that of any other nation; and that New York, with her great gold supply, her resources of surplus capital, and her command over the foreign exchanges, is taking her place in the front rank of the settling-houses of the world.

RECENT CONVERSIONS ABROAD.

The process usually called refunding in the United States is, in most European countries, called "conversion"—a word adapted from the French, but well established in English. It means, in the most general sense, a change in the terms upon which an outstanding public debt was issued—its conversion into a new form of obligation. Many such conversions are effected by the offer to redeem all the old debt in cash, and the direct offer of the new obligations for sale to all comers. The net result is that the cash obtained for the new loan is used in paying off the old. Conversion, in its legitimate sense, is not a violation of the original contract, but takes place only at the maturity of the old debt, or upon terms which the holders of the old debt are willing voluntarily to accept. There have frequently been operations, miscalled conversions, which have had the essential character of acts of bankruptcy.

Conversions not only of public debts, but of railway and industrial obligations, were carried out on a large scale a few years ago in Europe. A statement which is made up annually by the leading financial journal of Belgium put the conversions of old obligations into new at about $2,400,000,000 in 1894; $240,000,000 in 1895, and $1,500,000,000 in 1896. The amount was still large—$320,000,000—as late as 1898, but fell off materially last year. Recent important conversions of Government obligations began with Great Britain in 1888, when she reduced the interest on about $2,700,000,000 (£558,000,000) of her obligations from 3 to 2¾ per cent., with the right of reducing to 2½ per cent. in 1903. Then came, in 1894, the great French and Russian conversions. The French extended about $1,300,000,000 in obligations, which had been reduced in 1883 from 5 to 4½ per cent., and were now continued at 3½ per cent. Although the offer was made to redeem in cash the bonds of those who were not satisfied with the new rate, only about $250,000 were presented for redemption. The Russian conversion in April and May, 1894, was begun by offering to the public 750,000,000 rubles ($570,000,000) in a new 4-per-cent. loan, of which the proceeds were to be employed in taking up several old obligations paying 5 per cent. The loan was so successful that it was more than subscribed in the three days beginning with April 26, 1894, and a supplementary issue of 270,000,000 rubles was immediately made. One of the reasons for the promptness of the subscriptions was the offer of a graded premium of a few cents to those subscribing within the first few days.

CHARACTER OF AMERICAN REFUNDING.

When the rates for money began to rise in 1897, M. Georges de Laveleye, the eminent Belgian financier, declared that the period of conversions was closed for the present. This prophecy, which was verified by events so far as it related to European countries, makes more

markable the achievement of the United States in floating a 2-per-cent. bond at par. There was fear in some quarters, even while the new law was pending in Congress, that the new bonds would not be willingly accepted in exchange for the old. The operation undertaken by the United States left the option entirely to the holders of the old bonds whether they would exchange them or not for the 2-per-cent. bonds. It was necessary, in order to persuade the holder of a 5-per-cent., 4-per-cent., or 3-per-cent. bond to surrender it for one bearing 2 per cent., to offer him at least a part of the difference between the par value of the old bonds and the price at which they were actually selling in the market. All these bonds were selling above par—that is, for more than the value declared on their face. Their price was governed, not entirely by the rate of interest which they paid, but also by the period which they had to run before the Government would have the option of redeeming them at par. The market prices, with the amounts outstanding, of the three classes of bonds which were convertible under the new law, were as follows :

Class of Bonds.	Date of Maturity.	Price December 31, 1899.	Amount Outstanding December 31, 1899.
Three per cents ..	August 1, 1908.....	110¼	$198,679,000
Four per cents....	July 9, 1907.....	114	545,366,550
Five per cents....	February 1, 1904...	113¾	95,009,700
			$839,055,250

The total of these bonds does not represent all the bonded debt. Two classes of bonds were not brought under the terms of the new law—the extended 2-per-cent. bonds, outstanding to the amount of $25,364,500, and the 4-per-cent. bonds maturing February 1, 1925, outstanding to the amount of $162,315,400. The first class was not included under the refunding law, because these bonds are already due and payable at the pleasure of the Government. The other class was not included, because the long period before their maturity makes the price so high that it was not thought advisable to pay it to the holders of the bonds in order to secure them in exchange. These bonds were quoted as high as 134 at the close of 1899 ; that is, the Government, in order to persuade the holder to renounce his right to a bond for $100, running until 1925, with interest at 4 per cent., would be compelled to pay him $134.

The prices paid by the Government for the old bonds were such as to reduce their average annual return to 2¼ per cent. This price was somewhat below the market-price at the close of 1899, and averaged about 10 per cent. above par. The Government, or any investor, therefore, who paid $110 for a $100 bond yielding 4 per cent. a year until 1907, would receive back his premium, with interest on his principal at 2¼ per cent. a year.

THE DEMAND FOR THE NEW BONDS.

A large issue of bonds, even for the purpose of refunding, often involves disturbance to the money market, unless careful precautions are taken against it. Large amounts of money are accumulated in the banks for the purpose of making payments for the bonds and are diverted temporarily from any other use, with the result of causing stringency in the ordinary commercial supply. In the issue of the new 2-per-cent. bonds, however, there was little occasion to fear serious results upon the money market, because not a dollar in the new bonds was offered for sale by the Government. The pressure upon the market was not serious at any time, and did not call for intervention by the Treasury Department. The preparations of the Treasury for refunding were principally by way of increasing the clerical force and preparing blanks, explaining the terms of the exchange.

Most of these arrangements were made by Assistant Secretary Vanderlip, Treasurer Roberts, and Mr. A. T. Huntington, chief of the Division of Loans and Currency, who has handled several great loans without an error of a dollar. The new law took effect, by the signature of President McKinley, on March 14. Many inquiries had already reached the Treasury regarding the refunding process, but it was not until the next day that bonds were actually received for exchange. The applications on that day were about $6,000,000, and on the next day about $20,000,000. The following table shows the total amount of bonds received from the beginning of the refunding process up to the dates named, and indicates how rapidly they reached the Treasury :

Date.	Received to Date.
March 16	$26,221,150
March 20	87,010,000
March 31	195,468,250
April 10	228,920,800
April 20	250,061,300
April 30	260,020,750
May 10	268,578,400
May 15	271,348,850

Conservative judges predicted, before the refunding process began, that it would extend to nearly all the available bonds owned by national banks, amounting to about $300,000,000, and to perhaps $50,000,000 in addition. Assuming

this sum of $350,000,000 to be the ultimate limit of refunding for the present year, it is obvious that rapid strides have already been made toward the goal. The first two weeks brought in considerably more than half of this amount, and the month of April brought the total up to about three-fourths. The bonds for exchange are now coming in more slowly, but within a short time will exceed $300,000,000, and will probably reach $350,000,000 before the close of the year.

The inducement to exchange the old bonds for the new was not very different, from the standpoint of mathematics, for either of the three classes affected. There was some inducement to permanent investors, however, to prefer the 5-per-cent. bonds for prompt exchange, because of the early date of their maturity. It is interesting, therefore, to compare the proportions of the three classes of bonds, which had been settled up to the close of business on Friday, May 11, by Treasurer Roberts. This is shown in the following table:

BONDS EXCHANGED TO MAY 11, 1900.

Class of Bonds.	Amount Outstanding, December 31, 1899.	Amount Exchanged.	Per Cent. Exchanged.
Three per cents	$198,679,000	$61,747,700	.31
Four per cents	545,366,550	164,518,950	.30
Five per cents	95,009,700	42,175,250	.45
Total	$839,055,250	$268,441,900	

DESIGNS OF THE NEW BONDS.

One of the motives which may have delayed private investors in presenting their bonds for exchange is the fact that the new bonds have not been actually issued. A considerable time is required to make artistic drawings, engrave the plates, and prepare the bonds for distribution. Pending the preparation of the new bonds, dummy bonds, printed from ordinary type, have been issued, but have not been allowed to leave the custody of the Treasury. The effect of this situation is to prevent or embarrass tranfers of title to the bonds. Assistant Secretary Vanderlip has been pushing the preparation of the new bonds with his usual energy, and now expects to deliver the bonds for $1,000 by the middle of June. The other denominations will follow at intervals of a few weeks.

Handsome engraved portraits of prominent Americans will decorate the bonds of different denominations. The portrait of Thomas H. Benton, of Missouri, was chosen by Secretary Gage for the registered bonds for $1,000, which are the first to be issued. Benton was one of the first gold-standard men in the United States. His sobriquet of "Old Bullion" indicates how appropriate is the compliment paid him by putting his portrait on the first bonds of the United States which are redeemable, in specific terms, in gold. The other portrait which has been assigned is that of Alexander Hamilton, the first secretary of the treasury under Washington, who practically created the present treasury organization, and planted the public credit upon firm foundations. His portrait will go upon the coupon bonds for $500. The other portraits will be those of President John Adams, Commodore Bainbridge, Commodore Decatur, Gen. John A. Dix, Benjamin Franklin, William H. Seward, Gen. Philip H. Sheridan, and Secretary Stanton.

Bonds are issued either as coupon or registered bonds, according to the preference of the owner. Coupon bonds are those which are transferable without indorsement from holder to holder, and are named from the fact that they bear coupons which entitle the holder to the quarterly interest. Registered bonds are those which have the name of the owner officially registered at the treasury. Checks for the interest upon these bonds are mailed to the registered owner, and no other owner is recognized without due notice of a formal transfer of title. The coupon bonds are the more convenient for frequent transfers, while the registered bonds are safer for permanent investors. A registered bond cannot be changed back into a coupon bond, but a coupon bond can be converted into a registered bond. It is the usual rule, when a new loan is issued, that the larger proportion is taken in the form of coupon bonds, because the bonds are taken by brokers who desire to sell them; but the longer a loan is outstanding the larger proportion is transformed by permanent investors into the registered form. In the case of the new 2-per-cent. bonds, however, the report of the debt on April 30 showed that $254,311,000 was in registered bonds and $4,740,950 in coupon bonds. This unusual proportion of registered bonds is due to the fact that nearly all the new bonds are held by the national banks, and were registered from the start in their names.

SHARE OF THE BANKS IN REFUNDING.

It was well understood, by those familiar with financial operations, that the offer of the Government to exchange the old bonds for the new 2 per-cents would not be especially attractive to the great body of private investors, and would not be accepted by them at once. The most attractive feature of the offer, from the point of view of the private investor, was that he obtained a safe investment for thirty years instead of or-

maturing with a few years. The proposition was made attractive to the national banks, however, by the grant of certain privileges connected with their circulation. The notes of national banks are now issued upon the security of United States bonds, which have to be intrusted to the Treasurer of the United States as trustee. The old law permitted bank-notes to be issued only to the amount of 90 per cent. of the face-value of the bonds pledged. The new law permits the issue of circulation to the full face-value of the bonds. The difference between 90 per cent. and 100 per cent. does not measure, however, all the advantages of the new bonds as the basis of circulation. When a premium had to be paid, amounting say to 34 for the 4-per-cent. bonds, the man who desired $100,000 in bonds had to invest not simply $100,000, but $134,000. He then obtained in bank-notes, not 90 per cent. of $134,000, but 90 per cent. of $100,000. Thus there was a difference of $44,000 between the amount which he invested and the amount in notes which he received back for use in making loans. With the 2-per-cent. bonds at par, he would have obtained $90,000 in notes for an investment of $100,000, even under the old law. With circulation raised to par, he receives practically $100,000 in notes for an investment of $100,000. There are some deductions for the redemption fund and expenses, which need not be set forth fully, as they are substantially the same under the old and new conditions.

A weighty inducement for the banks to exchange their bonds was cast into the scale by another provision of the new law. This was the reduction of the tax upon circulation, from one per cent a year when circulation was based upon the old bonds, to one-half of this amount when it was based upon the new bonds. There is little doubt that this discrimination has had a decisive influence in leading the banks to exchange their old bonds for new. It has nearly the same effect as if a 2½-per-cent bond had been issued without any change in the tax on circulation. The result of these various provisions is to afford a "banking profit" of a little more than 1 per cent upon circulation. This means that if $100,000 loaned directly would pay 5 per cent., the same amount invested in bonds, and with the bonds used as the basis of circulating notes which could be loaned, would pay 1 per cent. more, or 6 per cent.

THE INCREASE OF BANK CIRCULATION.

The increased profits afforded the national banks, by the use of the new bonds as a basis of circulation, has had the expected effect in leading a large number of banks to increase their deposits of bonds and their circulation. Thus far, however, the increase has not reached excessive proportions. The face-value of the bonds on deposit in the Treasury to secure circulation on December 30, 1899, was $234,484,570. The total thus deposited on May 14 had risen to $272,708,740—an increase of nearly $39,000,000. This represents an increase of an equal amount in circulation, as soon as the new notes can be prepared at the bureau of engraving and printing, and issued from the office of the comptroller of the currency. The authority to raise circulation to par will add about $23,500,000 to the circulation upon the old bonds, without any increase of the bonds deposited. These two sources of increase, therefore, insure an addition of about $62,500,000 to the circulation. It is probable that further deposits of bonds for circulation will occur during the next few mouths, especially when a demand for currency arises during the crop-moving season in the autumn, and when the new bonds have been actually issued to their holders.

The actual bank-note circulation has not yet quite reached the figures indicated by the bond deposits, because of the necessary delay in engraving plates for the new notes, printing and seasoning the notes, and shipping them to the banks. The gap between the actual circulation and that to which the banks are entitled upon their bonds will soon be closed, however, and the total bank-note circulation, without further increases, would then stand at about $309,000,000. This includes about $40,000,000 in notes which the banks desire to withdraw from circulation. For these they have deposited lawful money—gold, silver, or greenbacks—with the United States Treasurer. Whenever one of these notes is received at the Treasury for redemption, the lawful money is paid in exchange and the note is canceled. Eventually, therefore, all these notes would disappear from circulation, but for the fact that withdrawals for various reasons are constantly taking place and keeping a certain minimum amount afloat.

PROBABLE INCREASE OF $100,000,000 IN NOTES.

An increase of nearly $100,000,000 in bank-note circulation is likely to result from the new law in the course of the present year. The total circulation on December 30, 1899, was $246,195,523, of which $209,759,985 was secured by bonds, and $36,435,538 was in process of retirement and covered by lawful money. The latter class of circulation is likely to fall, during the year, to about $25,000,000, if the new circulation can be kept out at a profit. If the total circulation then stands at $340,000,000 at the close of the year, the changes during 1900 will repre-

sent, in round amounts: Increase to par of the bonds at the close of 1899, $24,000,000; new deposits of bonds, $81,000,000; reduction of circulation in process of retirement, $11,000,000; net increase in circulation, $94,000,000. This allows for additional bond deposits, beyond those which have already taken place, to the amount of $42,000,000, which is probably above rather than below the mark.

An estimated increase of $100,000,000 in the bank-note circulation as the result of the refunding law has the sanction of several good financial authorities, and is justified by the rate at which bonds have been deposited during the two months since the new law took effect. The fear was expressed, in some quarters, that there would be a large inflation of the circulation under the attractions of the increased profit afforded by the new law. The bonds available for refunding, as set forth in the first table in this article, were $839,146,490, of which the national banks held, on February 1, as the security for circulation, about $250,000,000. This left nearly $600,000,000 in private hands, or held by the banks for other purposes. The amount of these bonds held in the Treasury to secure deposits of United States funds in the banks was about $76,000,000. The fear that any very large proportion of these bonds could be diverted into the hands of the banks, and used as a basis of circulation, was not well founded, in the opinion of prudent financiers, because many of them were held in trust funds, where the safety of the investment and the freedom of the trustee from criticism are more important than the rate of interest. Some were pledged by insurance companies under State laws requiring guarantees of their liability, and others were held by conservative investors, who would not be induced, by a slight rise in the market-price, to sell their bonds when no other equally secure investment was readily obtainable.

A conclusive reason for the belief that the banks would not draw, from private hands, a large amount of bonds for the purpose of increasing their circulation lay in the fact that a large demand would tend to raise the price of the bonds. The event proved that the demand for the old bonds which were available for refunding raised their prices materially during March and April, and the new 2 per-cent. bonds were quoted as high as 106½. The purchase of the bonds at such prices would reduce materially the net profit which might be derived from circulation, if the bonds could be obtained at par. Reduction of the profit would mean a diminution of the inducement to buy bonds and to increase circulation. The two tendencies—the demand on the part of the banks, for bonds because of the increased profit on circulation, and the pressure upon the supply, with its inducement to the owners of the bonds to advance their prices—worked at cross-purposes.

The case would have been different if the quantity of bonds had been increased, and there might be reason to anticipate a real danger of currency inflation, if at any future time a large volume of bonds should be put upon the market to meet the demands of war or other extraordinary expenditures. The bank-notes secured by bonds, although they have remained at par with Government money, are not related directly to the supply of metallic money in the manner which is desirable in a scientific bank-note currency. If a large quantity of bank-notes were suddenly infused into the currency upon the basis of new bond issues, the currency would become excessive in amount, and the excess would tend to go abroad in the form of gold. Thus, a given quantity of notes would replace gold in the domestic circulation, and if the process were continued too long distrust would arise regarding the ability of the banks to pay the notes in gold, and there would be danger of a depreciation of the notes below their face-value; or, what amounts to the same thing, a premium upon gold when expressed in notes. This would not be the case if the notes were issued upon the general assets of the banks, and were secured by a required proportion of gold coin on hand. The notes would then be related directly to the metallic supply of the country, and would be withdrawn from circulation when they became excessive in amount.

THE CREATION OF SMALL BANKS.

One of the features of the new gold-standard law having some effect upon the currency supply is a provision authorizing the creation of national banks with a capital of $25,000 in any place whose population does not exceed three thousand inhabitants. No national bank could be organized under the old law with a capital of less than $50,000. The result of the new provision promises to be a considerable increase in the number of banks in the national system. The number of banks reporting to the comptroller of the currency on February 15, 1900, was 3,604, with a combined capital of $613,084,465. The applications for national-bank charters received from March 1 to May 1, 1900, were 890—which would raise the whole number, if all these applications resulted in the creation of new banks, to nearly 4,500. A portion of the applications for new banks, to the extent of 129, are for capitals of $50,000 or more, which might have been incorporated under the old law.

The applications for new charters do not, how-

ever, by any means involve the creation of so many new banks. Nearly half come from small private and State banks which were not before able to enter the national system, but now find their capitals within the requirements of the law. They propose simply to transfer their allegiance from the State to the National system. In the case of the new banks, considerable time will be required for the necessary formalities of investigation into the solvency of the applicants, and some of them may voluntarily abandon their plans because of the discovery that the new projects are not so profitable as was at first supposed. A bank with a capital of $25,000, if it had only its capital to loan at 6 per cent., would earn only about $1,500 per year, subject to the deduction of all its operating expenses. It will require, therefore, a considerable volume of deposits to enable a small bank to do a profitable business.

The small national banks will not add so largely to the note circulation as might be supposed from their large number. If five hundred of them were organized with a uniform capital of $25,000 each, and the whole capital were represented by note issues, the circulation called for would be $12,500,000. But they are required to hold bonds only to the amount of one-fourth of their capital, and the course pursued by the small banks which have been actually incorporated shows that they will adhere more closely to the minimum than the maximum of their authorized circulation. The combined capitals of 81 national banks organized from March 14 to May 10, 1900—most of them small banks, and 55 with capitals under $50,000—was $5,245,000. The bonds deposited by these banks for circulation were only $1,554,600 in amount, or less than 30 per cent. of their capital. At this rate, 500 small banks would swell the circulation only about $3,600,000.

EFFECT OF REFUNDING ON THE TREASURY.

The refunding operations involve two benefits to the Treasury, besides the extension of the debt at a low rate for a long term of years. One of these benefits is the net saving in interest payments up to the maturity of the old bonds. This saving is obtained by deducting, from the total interest payments at the old rates up to the maturity of the old bonds, the payments at the new rate of 2 per cent., and deducting from this result the premiums paid in order to induce the holders of the old bonds to surrender them to the Treasury. This net saving was stated, by Senator Aldrich in December, at $23,303,710. These calculations were based, however, upon the assumption that all the bonds covered by the refunding law would be exchanged for the new 2-per-cent. bonds, and that the exchange would occur on the date of the passage of the law. It was obvious that these assumptions could not be realized. The actual saving in interest upon the bonds refunded up to May 1, amounting to $260,020,750, was $32,699,225. The premiums paid were $26,034,771, resulting in a net saving upon the bonds exchanged of $6,664,454. If $100,000,000 more of the bonds are refunded in the near future, there will be an additional net saving to the Treasury of about $2,600,000, raising the total saving to the maturity of the old bonds to a little less than $10,000,000.

While the immediate saving to the Government, therefore, is not large, a very material benefit has been afforded to the Treasury and the money market by the opportunity afforded for paying out in premiums a part of the excessive cash-balance which has accumulated from the war-revenue taxes. If all the bonds had been exchanged, the Treasury would have disbursed at once the sum of $88,668,953 in premiums, as shown by the estimate of Senator Aldrich for December. The exchange of only about 40 per cent. of the bonds will reduce these disbursements, by way of premiums, to about $35,000,000. When the gold-standard law took effect on March 14, Secretary Gage set aside the sum of $150,000,000 in gold as a reserve fund for the redemption of legal-tender notes, as required by the law. The remaining cash in the Treasury, not held in trust against outstanding certificates, was reported as $154,985,989. About $30,000,000 would suffice for a working balance, while receipts equaled ordinary expenditures, so that there was apparently about $125,000,000 needlessly locked up in the Treasury. Secretary Gage had already transferred $111,607,731 of this sum to the custody of the national banks, in order that it might be available for the use of the money market. It was thought, while the new law was pending, that it might be necessary to withdraw some of these bank deposits to pay the differences between the par value and present worth of the old bonds. It was determined, however, when the law took effect to make the first payments from the money actually held by the Treasury. This money has proved sufficient for the purpose, because a surplus of receipts over ordinary expenditures has continued for some time. Notwithstanding the payment of about $27,000,000 in differences, the cash-balance on May 10 still stood at $147,006,832, of which $111,722,839 was on deposit in national banks. The payment of differences has prevented, for a time, the accumulation of idle money in the Treasury; but with the completion of these payments the surplus is likely to accumulate again at a rate which will call for further action.

THE PASSION PLAY AT OBERAMMERGAU, 1900.

OBERAMMERGAU, the famous little village in the Bavarian Tyrol, has experienced two decided external changes since 1890 and the last performance of the Passion Play. The railroad takes the place of the post-carts that were formerly the only means of transportation between Oberau and Oberammergau. Although an electric one, the official train, that which conveys the guests from the junction with the Munich line at Murnau to Oberammergau, is drawn by two locomotives, as the electric plant has not yet been finished. For the first time the quiet valley in which the village of the Passion Play nestles hears the shrieking whistles of a modern engine, the huge surrounding hills covered deep in snow echoing the unaccustomed noise from side to side. The new station is a smart-looking building, some minutes' walk from the village. The railway will doubtless prove of great service to the crowds of visitors this summer, but it rather spoils the former primitiveness and simplicity of the village.

The other noticeable change is the new theater. In former years the auditorium and the stage were entirely uncovered. Until 1830 the performances always took place before the church; but then as the spectators increased, the theater was moved to a meadow at the end of the village. The railway station is now not far from the spot. In 1890 part of the auditorium was covered in, but most of the spectators were soaked when it rained. This time the whole has been roofed over. The hall holds close on 4,000 seats, all numbered. It slopes steeply up, so that a good view can be obtained from every seat. The stage, which is open to rain and sun, stands framed in a background of fir-clad hills and blue sky. In summer, at any rate, it will appear thus to the spectators. In consequence of the stage being uncovered, the auditorium has only a rear and two side walls—the front, near the stage, being quite open from the floor to the roof. This roofing-in caused a good deal of adverse criticism, it being argued that it deprived the play of a great part of its special character. The new building cost $50,000. It consists of huge iron girders, which span the auditorium in a gigantic arch. On to these girders boards are fastened, which in turn are covered with canvas painted yellow. From a distance it looks like stone, but the illusion vanishes as one approaches the entrance.

The whole village has been in the hands of the builders. Every hotel has been added to, every clear space has been the site of some new building. Rooms have been enlarged and finished on every hand. The snow covered everything, but still the workmen labored away incessantly. The reason for this haste was that accommodation for 4,000 people must be provided before May 20—the day of the dress rehearsal. The Oberammergauers do not intend to let visitors stay anywhere except in the village. To this end the tickets for the play, which should be ordered beforehand, are only issued in connection with rooms in the village; that is to say, you order a room and a ticket at the same time, and cannot get a ticket without a room. Each room has been inspected by the committee appointed for the purpose, and it has had a certain-priced ticket allotted to it. This makes it impossible for visitors to stay anywhere save in Oberammergau, if they desire to see the play. As the performance starts at 8 A.M. it would be difficult to do anything else. The new railway, however, runs a train leaving Munich at 4 A.M., which will deposit visitors in time for the performance; but they will be unable to get any tickets. Any that remain over are given out at six o'clock on the morning of the play.

Oberammergau is run on most democratic principles. The householders elect the Burgermeister and the council. These, together with the parish priest and six men elected by the people, form the *Passions Comité* which arranges all details connected with the play and selects the players. The nominations took place on December 21 last. There is a good deal of rivalry between the different candidates, but the selection is final. In 1890 it was expected that Peter Rendl, the *John* of that year, would have been *Christus* in 1900; but *Christus* must have a flowing beard, and Mr. Rendl's beard will not grow. He is acting *John* once more—almost the only important part which is taken by the same actor who performed it in 1890. Josef Meyer, the *Christus* of 1870, 1871, 1880, and 1890, is too old to take the part again, his grizzled beard making it quite impossible. In order that he may have a prominent position still, the part of *choragus* has been divided. Gakol Rutz, the village smith who acted *choragus* in 1890, still has the title, but does not recite the Prologue, Meyer coming on the stage in his place. *Joseph of Arimathea* was the part Mayer wished to act, but the *comité* did not con-

sider it important enough ; besides, they did not desire to have the veteran actor of *Christus* on the stage at the same time as the novice Anton Lang, who takes the principal part this year. He is a potter, and works with his father, who acts *Herod*, in their large white house near the theater. Opinions differ as to his performance. He is only twenty-five. The Burgermeister, who in 1890 acted *Kaiphas*, has also aged too much to act the same part, which is taken by Sebastian Lang, the heir of Daisenberger, who wrote the present text of the play. Mr. Lang is publishing the official text for the first time. The dresses worn are the same, and the tableaux and scenes are exactly similar every year.

At the official opening of the railway the long-haired players were much in evidence. As there are only 1,400 inhabitants, and 700 of these are acting in the play, it is small wonder that nearly every other man has long hair and often a flowing beard. Both beard and hair are allowed to grow untouched for several months before the commencement of the play. Very handsome many of them look with their wavy black hair resting on their shoulders. The little boys playing marbles in a corner have nearly all long, curly hair. Since 1890 Mr. Rendl has married, and has a little son. His wife is the daughter of Mayer, who was *Christus* while Rendl was *John* ten years ago. Since that time Peter Rendl has set up a shop of his own, and this year will supply some of his exquisite carving to visitors. All the more important players are carvers ; in fact, that is the chief industry of the village. Mr. Rendl lives in a pretty little villa on the left bank of the rushing Amner. Anton Lang resides just over the bridge, on the opposite side of the stream. Old Jakob Hett, who has acted *Peter* every time since 1860, is too infirm to do anything this year. His place has been taken by Peter Rendl's father, the *Pilate* of 1880 and 1890. Naturally both father and son are pleased, and their acting of *Peter* and *John* should be extremely good. The Burgermeister's daughter, who took the part of *Mary* in 1890, has since retired into a convent. Anna Flunger, the daughter of the local postman, will find it extremely difficult to follow such an actor ; but reports say her performance of *Mary* is very good. As the mother of *Christus*, however, her face cannot for a moment compare with her predecessor's. She is only nineteen years old.

It is curious to see these people about their daily tasks. On a recent visit to the village, the first long-haired man to be seen was the *Apostle Thaddeus*, who was clearing the snow from the road. The *choragus* works away amid showers of sparks, in his smithy, and *Nicodemus* is the owner of the baker's shop at the corner. All work at their various vocations during the day



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ANTON LANG.
(The "Christus" in 1900.)

and rehearse regularly every night. The chief performers assemble in the Rathhaus, and are coached by the Burgermeister. The chorus and the crowd meet in adjoining buildings. The first rehearsal in the new theater was to have taken place on Sunday, March 25, but the snow prevented it.

Everything has been rapidly pushed forward. rehearsals, choir practice, and costumes. Builders have worked with feverish haste, in order that on May 24 the first performance might be a success. The villagers expect an immense attendance during the year, and indeed few pleasanter trips could be suggested than a visit to the Bavarian Tyrol and the village of the Passion Play. The play began on May 24 and ends on September 30. The performances take place every Sunday and on several intervening Wednesdays. There are 27 in all ; but, if ever the crowds are excessive, additional performances are given.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE DANGER OF WAR BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

BARON PIERRE DE COUBERTIN is one of those Frenchmen who know and love England almost as well as they know and love their native country. He has traveled much in America and in Great Britain: he has friends everywhere; and he is quite justified in maintaining, as he does in his article in the *Fortnightly Review*, that there is no one better qualified to speak than he as to the dangers of the present position. He is no pessimist; on the contrary, few men have a more cheery, optimistic outlook on the world and its affairs; and when such a man feels constrained to tell us, as he does, that there are signs of a forthcoming conflict between England and France, his warning should be heeded. Why, then, it will be asked, is there any danger of a war between these two countries? What ground of quarrel is there which could possibly embroil the two Western nations? Baron de Coubertin admits at once that "there is no matter in dispute between France and England which could legitimately lead to war."



BARON PIERRE DE COUBERTIN.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Of all the outstanding questions, he thinks that of Newfoundland is the only one which threatens a serious difference of opinion. Even in Egypt, he thinks that the French will not object so long as French savants are allowed uninterruptedly to carry on their researches—a very optimistic view, characteristic of the man; but the Newfoundland question seems to him a grave one. He says:

"It is really a very grave problem, and no settlement can be hoped for unless the two countries are first convinced, one of the legitimate nature of the Newfoundlanders' grievances, and the other of the great difficulty confronting France when she tries to discover any form of compensation which would benefit the French fishermen. That is the only question which could put a match to the train, and it ought not to issue in any such catastrophe, if the argument is conducted on both sides with a sincere desire to avoid such a calamity. But is there such a desire? Certainly one would think not, after perusing many French and English newspapers; they seem to be deliberately trying every means of hurrying on war. Nor is this any new attitude on their part; it dates from a very long way back."

THE REAL DANGER.

Thus we have it that the real *causa causans* of trouble is the existence of the journalist. He is rapidly becoming the enemy of the human race. Of course Mr. Chamberlain would have us believe that the French caricaturists are the only people to blame in this matter; but, as Baron de Coubertin says, the English press is by no means blameless. He says:

"It must not be thought that the three or four offensive caricatures of the Queen (that was the sum total) which appeared in Paris made at all a good impression outside the circle of boulevardiers, who have no respect for anything. Such manifestations were very severely condemned by French public opinion; and I met with more than one Frenchman, by no means friendly to England, who had been roused to indignation. But this indignation was much diminished when it was seen that, though the English press was angry with France, it affected complete ignorance of the more numerous and serious attacks issuing from Germany."

He complains that the English attacks on France

in the English press have been much more virulent and bitter than any that have appeared in France upon England. He says:

"I have myself noticed that in every English-speaking country the press habitually uses insulting terms in speaking of France; both in the United States, and still more in Australia, its pronouncements have been absurdly malevolent."

AN ANTI-FRENCH SYNDICATE?

Why the newspapers should deliberately set about goading two nations into war, he frankly declares he does not understand; but he makes a suggestion which is very curious. He says:

"There is really no possible explanation, except mere force of habit, for the bitterness and insult indulged in to such excess by the press of both countries. Lately these attacks have grown so violent, especially in England, that we have begun to credit the English press with obeying a word of command, or with having been bribed to incite France to war. The idea is absurd enough, yet it might have this much truth in it. There are certain English merchants and manufacturers who would have an interest in war, or who might, any way, make some profit out of it. There is nothing to prevent these men from forming a syndicate, in view of their future business interests, when war should really have been declared. Such syndicates would naturally be open to the proprietors and shareholders of leading newswapers; then insensibly, almost unconsciously, these papers would come to defend the idea of a war, to be familiar with it, to think it natural and normal, to speak of it as a thing inevitable. That is a very real danger."

IGNORANT OF EACH OTHER'S STRENGTH.

The mischief which the newspapers could do would be slight, if it were not for another reason which Baron de Coubertin does well to point out. France and Germany will not be goaded into war by any amount of newspaper campaign, because both countries know each other's strength; but it is different in the case of England and France. He says:

"Nations, like individuals, show a tendency, more widespread than noble, to harry the weak, to take their goods, and to reduce them to servitude. Now, by a most unfortunate aberration of mind, both England and France imagine that neither could resist the attack of the other."

France, he says, has never been stronger than she is now:

"England is, therefore, the victim of the strangest and most unfortunate illusion if she believes in the decay of her neighbor. Thirty years of peace, internal tranquillity and prosperity, during which she has steadily looked to her defenses, have made France a power to be reckoned with. She scarcely knows it herself; she is ignorant of her own strength, and of the weight of the blows which she has it in her power to deal. But she is equally ignorant of the might of England, and there is nothing in the world so hard to bring home to a Frenchman's mind as the nature of that power.

A MOTIVELESS WAR.

Hence great danger. France despises the military power of England. England is utterly ignorant of the enormous resisting power of France. The Jingoes who precipitated England into a war with the Transvaal in the belief that it would be a walk over to Pretoria are possibly capable of precipitating her into a war with France, which might easily result in imperial catastrophe. To avert such a disaster is the object with which Baron de Coubertin has written the admirable article which he concludes as follows:

"Here, then, is my conclusion. There is no motive for war; yet war is possible, and even probable, if the two nations continue to cherish such illusions about each other—if they make no serious efforts toward mutual comprehension; if they are not firmly resolved to respect each other, even where comprehension fails; if French opinion does not silence the caricaturists and national faddists; and if, on the other hand, English opinion does not call upon its government and its newspapers to confine themselves to the proper limits of international courtesy, which have been too often overstepped."

THE DIVISION OF ASIA.

MR. C. E. D. BLACK contributes, to the *Nineteenth Century* for May, an article on "The British Sphere in Asia," in which he complains of the neglect of the British Government to take any step to consolidate its influence in Southern Asia, as Russia is doing in the North by means of the Trans-Siberian Railway, now approaching completion.

GERMANY A FRIEND TO ENGLAND.

The chief factor in Western Asia at present is the growing influence of Germany in Asia Minor and Mesopotamia, and her proposed railway from Bagdad to the Persian Gulf is one which, Mr. Black holds, should meet with no opposition in England. England's real rival is Russia, and if the British Government wishes to counteract her influence it can only be by establishing a southern Trans-Asian transit from

Egypt to China. This could be effected by the construction of a railway from Alexandria across the isthmus of Sinai and northern Arabia, to the head of the Persian Gulf, traversing eastern Persia and Baluchistan to the frontier of British India, thence to Burmah, and following the line of the Yang-tse-Kiang to China.

RUSSIA AND PERSIA.

Capt. A. T. Mahan is quoted as saying that "The division of Asia is east and west; movement is north and south." The effect of Russia's getting a foothold on the Persian Gulf would be to drive a wedge between the eastern and western possessions of Great Britain, and this will prevent the construction of a British railway across Southern Asia if Russia's advance is not promptly checked. "If Lord Salisbury is correct in saying that Western policy in China is a policy of railways, the same is certainly good of Western Asia."

Mr. Black holds, with Lord Curzon, that a definite sphere of British interests should be demarcated in China, and that any Russian advance to Benda Abbas or Chakhbar should be resisted tooth and nail. He says:

"The coincidence of these Russian moves in Persia and Afghanistan—one fiscal and one strategic—is ominous. It shows clearly that Russia is determined to take Herat on very small provocation, and it also shows that she is preparing to spread her net over as much of Persia as she can cover. At present the provinces in the south are exempted from the lien of the customs imposed by the new loan, in virtue of an old understanding (though it cannot be called a definite agreement) between Russia and Great Britain that southern Persia lies within the sphere of influence of the latter. Our great object ought to be to insure that this cardinal point in our policy is never lost sight of."

AFGHANISTAN AND BALUCHISTAN.

In Afghanistan there is no danger—at any rate, so long as the Ameer survives. The recent opening up of the Quetta and Leistan trade is the result of coöperation between the Indian and foreign offices, and a telegraph line to follow this route and reach Baluchistan and Persia is under consideration. But a great trunk railway from the Nile to the Yang-tse-Kiang would do more than anything else to consolidate British interests; and, indeed, the difficulty is that so many departments would profit by it that it is difficult to reconcile all their interests. Mr. Black concludes by saying that such a railway would cost not more than forty millions of pounds, or less than the capital expenditure of the London and South-western Railway. He urges that a commission of inquiry should be appointed to consider the matter.

JAPAN AND RUSSIA IN THE FAR EAST.

IN the *North American Review* for May, Prof. James Murdoch, a British scholar who has lived for many years in Japan, writes on Russia's recent movements as concerning the Island Empire and its place among the powers of the far East. This writer explains Russia's energy in strengthening the fortifications at Port Arthur, whither stores and munitions have been sent in great quantities during the past two years. In fact, Port Arthur seems destined to become the most important of all the naval stations of Russia:

"From Port Arthur alone is there free and ready egress to the open ocean at all seasons of the year. This circumstance in itself makes it easy to understand why Russia proposes to add so greatly to the strength of her Pacific fleet. At present, vis-à-vis to Japan, that fleet is decidedly weak. Her three battleships would be no match for the *Fuji*, the *Yashima*, and the *Shikishima*. The *Petropavlovsk*, of 10,960 tons, and the *Navarin*, of 10,200 tons, steam only sixteen knots against the eighteen or nineteen knots of the Japanese line-of-battle ships, while the *Lissoi Veliky*, of 8,800 tons, is no faster. As regards first-class cruisers, the Japanese *Tokiwa* and *Asama* are fully a match for the *Rossia* and the *Rurik*; and the *Azuma* and *Yakumo* (sister ships to the *Asama*), expected here by the end of June, will go a long way toward offsetting the much older, slower, and smaller *Vladimir Monomakh*, *Dmitri Donskoi*, *Pamiat Azova*, and *Admiral Nakhimoff*. As regards second-class cruisers and smaller ships, the superiority of Japan is simply overwhelming, as indicated by the comparative total tonnage already given. But if the report be true that Russia is to send several of the eight battleships and six first-class cruisers now in hand to the far East, the disparity will cease to be on her side.

"Russia is not waiting for the completion of her great railway to reduce her military inferiority in the East. In 1898 and the four preceding years, 58,000 troops were dispatched to that quarter by the vessels of the volunteer fleet, while only 20,000 returned, and lately the rate of dispatch has been greatly increased. At present, a trustworthy authority puts the number of Russian troops of all arms in Eastern Siberia and Manchuria at nearly 110,000 men. In addition, there is a large immigration of settlers and of laborers for the construction of the railways in Manchuria. These are being pushed on vigorously; Port Arthur is already connected with Mukden, and altogether over 500 miles of track have been completed. It is only the heavy tunneling through the Chingan and Klite Amon ranges that will defer the opening of the whole

system till 1902. Thus, if all this be taken into account, it will readily appear that Russia, in temporarily effacing herself in Korea and so avoiding friction with Japan there, was the very reverse of ill-advised."

JAPAN'S PURPOSES IN KOREA.

Professor Murdoch does not seem to attach much importance to the recent rumors of Russia's renewed activity in Korea, but he says that Japan is fully determined to maintain her position there.

"One thing, however, is certain, and that is that the present Japanese Cabinet, while by no means eager for war, will not tamely submit to any infraction of the terms of the Nissi-Rosen Protocol. That document is Japan's charter for the peaceful, economic, and industrial conquest of Korea, which she evidently contemplates. The energy with which she has been pushing this purpose and the development of her commercial interests in the little empire have of late been very remarkable, and stand forth in marked contrast to the apathy with which she has regarded most of the commercial advantages in China acquired by the Treaty of Shimonoseki. So long as she remains free to develop her legitimate interests in Korea, so long as the Nissi-Rosen Protocol is observed, Japan will be satisfied. The average Japanese is, indeed, very prone to be swayed by emotion—even by that spurious emotion called sentimentality. But hitherto the foreign policy of the nation has been conducted by the cold, clear light of reason, and the statesmen at the head of affairs will not be likely to engage in armed strife without the amplest justification for doing so."

THE JAPANESE PRESS AND THE BOER WAR.

THE Japanese monthly magazine called the *Orient* comments, in a recent issue, on Japanese public sentiment in relation to the Boer war as voiced by the native press. The *Orient* says:

"The Japanese journals, with a few exceptions, side with Great Britain with regard to the war in South Africa. Some of them receive the news of the reverses of the British army with almost as keen regret as they would exhibit on hearing a defeat of the Japanese army. However, they speak in high terms of the spirit shown by the people of Great Britain in this time of stress. The motive of their warm sympathy with Great Britain appears to have nothing to do with the rightness or wrongness of the war, but to emanate from the impression that Great Britain is the best of friends Japan possesses, and time may come when her sympathy will be greatly wanted by us. In plain words, they say that our sympathy for Great Britain at this time will call forth *her* sympathy for *us* when we go to war with a certain power in future. (And what that power is, all seem to know without mentioning its name.) To us it appears that this is rather a business-like sort of sympathy. The few journals which sympathize with the Boers, among which the *Yorodzu Choho* is the most prominent, take a decidedly different view of the question. They do not differ from others in regarding the friendship of Great Britain as indispensable to this country, but are convinced that in this war Great Britain is wrong, and therefore do not hesitate to publish severe articles against her."

MAX MÜLLER AND THEODOR MOMMSEN ON THE BOER WAR.

THE May number of the *Deutsche Revue* brings a continuation of the correspondence between Prof. Max Müller and Theodor Mommsen in regard to England's rights in the Transvaal question—a correspondence that has excited a widespread interest, both in England and in Germany, on account of the eminence of both historians in their respective fields of activity. Max Müller once more goes back to the origins of English paramountcy in South Africa. The Congress of Vienna and the treaties made in 1813 and 1814 serve as the basis of present international politics. Through them England obtained direct sovereignty over Cape Colony and Natal, protectorship over the native states, and "a sphere of influence" as far north as the twenty-fifth degree southern latitude, which marked the boundaries of the Portuguese possessions. The Cape of Good Hope Punishments Act of 1836 declares that any crime committed by a white person south of the twenty-fifth degree falls under the jurisdiction of the courts of Cape Town. The Boers knew this very well; and they were told, when they set out on their Great Trek, that if they settled on British territory, they would remain British subjects. The present war, therefore, Professor Müller considers simply a rebellion, although he admits that the Boers suffered much wrong—as, for instance, in the affair of the Kimberley diamond mines, and in other matters where the interests of British and Boers conflicted.

WHO BEGAN WAR?

As to the question, Was the war justified? Professor Müller thinks that no war ever is justified, even if it seems unavoidable. But who declared war? Who invaded the enemy's territory with fire and sword? Not the English, but

the Dutch. Should the English, then, still hesitate? Should they not protect their colonies, as they had promised? Even arbitration they could not accept, for that would have meant to renounce British paramountcy, and the rebellion of the Boers would then have become a war between equal sovereign states. The Boers have entered upon a war of conquest against the British Empire. Incredible as it may sound, it is a historic fact. With the help of the Afrikander Bund, which was founded in 1881 by Du Toit, the Boers hoped to sweep the British into the sea, and made no secret of it. The Boers cried, "To Cape Town!"—just as the French had cried in 1870, "*À Berlin!*" Professor Müller explains why he did not sign a certain petition to stop the war at once. In the first place, he never saw it; and, in the second place, he never would have signed it, for when war has once been declared, every man must stand by his flag. He thinks "My country, right or wrong." He asks why the English soldiers are stigmatized as hirelings. They receive their pay, as any other soldiers. The Englishman serves voluntarily; the German *must* serve. Conscription has its good sides, but also much that is evil. As long as there were plenty of volunteers in England, they hesitated to call out conscripts; but now members of the royal family, dukes, the nobility, millionaires, professors, gentlemen of every description, are willing to lay down their lives in the service of their country.

THE TRANSVAAL'S PREPARATIONS FOR WAR.

Professor Mommsen briefly but severely criticises this letter of Max Müller, which "treats of unimportant and minor matters at some length, but [which] in the vital points, repeats the stock arguments of the British and ignores the objections." Then he returns to what he thinks the cardinal point of the question at issue—how and when the Transvaal began to prepare for the war, and whether this preparation was defensive or offensive. This will also definitely settle the question as to the reputed plans of conquest by the Boers. Most likely there were not lacking boasters among the Cape Dutch, who bragged of driving the British into the sea; but what the serious-minded and industrious Boers of the Veldt were striving for can be clearly demonstrated. The dependence of the Transvaal on England is a fact proved even more by the existing circumstances than by any treaties or conventions; and this dependence carried with it certain duties toward the British Empire, which the Transvaal never ignored, however irksome they were. In the Sand River convention of 1852, which is the basis of the relations between England and the Transvaal, and which was simply modified by the conventions of 1881 and 1884, British paramountcy was recognized, but also self-government of the Boer territory. British interference in the internal affairs of the republic has caused the war; the South African republics have never been accused of violating the terms of the conventions.

STATISTICS OF ARMAMENT.

As to the preparations for war, Professor Mommsen cites from the *Manchester Guardian* the figures of the Transvaal budget for the years 1882–98.

He finds that up to 1894 the Transvaal conscientiously kept within the limits of ordinary military precaution. But in 1895 there is a sudden change; the military expenditure is trebled, the Transvaal begins to arm against England. Jameson's raid took place in December, 1895; the preparations, therefore, began many months before. But the raid itself was not unexpected. Already, in January, 1895, munitions of war were purchased for the Chartered Company, and from October to December great quantities of arms were imported by the conspirators. These things must have been known, for Professor Mommsen quotes Mr. Bryce as saying that, in November, these arms were shown to whoever wished to see them. To prepare against events, large purchases were made, but apparently only in the latter months of 1895, for Pretoria. Only in this sense can it be admitted that the Boers began to arm before the Jameson Raid. The figures prove that at that time, in expectation of an attack, they formed the desperate resolve whose consequences are shown on the battle-fields of to-day. Professor Mommsen thinks that, had the British Government then done its duty and dealt effectively with the instigators of the raid, the government in Pretoria would have begun to disarm. As the opposite happened, they prepared for a renewal of the attack, and the consequence was the declaration of war of October 9, 1899. It takes a degree of courage, says Professor Mommsen, to ask, in the face of these facts, "Who first invaded British territory with fire and sword?" Professor Mommsen takes no pleasure in proving a man like Max Müller to be wrong; he regrets to see him in company with Beit and Rhodes—the man who is destined to hand down to posterity, on future maps of the world, England's shame. Still less does he contemplate with pleasure the future which this war opens up to us. The terrible danger of England is clear to many of its friends, and to all its enemies. Everything is uncertain about the Boer war, except that it will be a protracted struggle. Every

strongest objection to wearing birds' feathers or anything else involving suffering or cruelty. She sets her own fashions and wears what she pleases."

A PRETTY STORY.

"A pleasing little story illustrates her love for animals and birds. When arrangements were being made for Mr. Krüger's statue to be erected in Pretoria, Oom Paul insisted on being represented in his familiar top-hat; and when the drawings came, Tanta gazed on them with delight. She had never been so proud of her husband as when they were carving his statue in marble. But she had a modest request to make. She was thinking not only of her husband, but of the birds that would flutter about the statue; and she begged that the crown of the hat might be left hollow, so that the birds might drink from it! The request was, of course, granted; but one cannot help wondering how long this friendly hat will be left undisturbed."

THE SISTER OF THE COLOSSUS.

By the side of another great South African stands a female figure less known to fame. Says Mr. Mee:

"It is not generally known that Mr. Cecil Rhodes has a sister living in South Africa. At Groote Schuur, Mr. Rhodes' beautiful home, a few miles from Cape Town, Miss Edith Rhodes entertains her brother's guests. She is said to dislike men as much as her brother dislikes women. She dispenses hospitality on the most lavish scale. Miss Rhodes is of masculine appearance, and has been described as resembling 'the English squire of sporting prints.' She is rich, generous, and businesslike, and her impulsive nature wins her many friends. Miss Rhodes has many peculiarities, but as she has an ample fortune a good deal is forgiven her. On board a steamer not long ago she gained herself a tremendous popularity by regulating the handicaps for the running matches and acting as umpire in the tugs-of-war. Away from home she is thoroughly masculine, and takes her part with men in any sport; but at home, where she has a lady companion in constant attendance on her, she is as feminine as any woman can be, and makes a genial hostess. She is greatly interested in the Zoo at Groote Schuur, upon which Mr. Rhodes has spent a fortune, and is fond of driving about the estate, which comprises six miles of splendid drives. Miss Rhodes has a better grasp of South African politics than some members of the Colonial Office, and it is needless to say that she is the loyal champion of her brother Cecil and all in which he is concerned."

THE FORTS AT PRETORIA.

IN *Harmsworth's* for April, there is a paper on the forts of Pretoria and how they were built, by one who has been over them. This is his description:

"There are in all seven forts around Pretoria. Of these, five are complete, or practically so; the other two are mere shells, and are not to be reckoned with as defenses, unless, in an emergency, they were heavily sandbagged and otherwise temporarily fitted up. The general scheme of the forts is alike in each case. The outer walls are of solid masonry, many feet thick, flanked by earthworks on the outer faces. The original armament consisted of fifteen cm. guns; but a good many of them were taken to the front, and most, if not all, of the forts are now dismantled. The interior of the fort is a large quadrangle, containing a house, or rather a few rooms, for the gunners, an office, a telegraph-shed, and an armory. There is also a bomb-proof magazine, partly underground."

How these facts were obtained, the writer does not scruple to inform his readers:

"Being fluent in German, I succeeded in passing myself off as a German officer, and, unmolested, made my way right into the Daspoort fort. I succeeded in finding out the password from an inebriated artilleryman the night before (the word was *Fuckelzug*), and had leisure to examine everything carefully. I verified the fact that there was a telephone to Pretoria, a powerful searchlight, and a very large stock of mealies (maize).

"In another instance, it is related on very good authority that two officers of the Royal Engineers disguised themselves as laborers, and were employed in the actual building of the forts. They continued at this work for some weeks, and were enabled to gather a very good idea of the building and plan of defense, which they duly reported to the authorities in Pall Mall."

THE UNITED STATES OF AFRICA.

PROFESSOR CESARE LOMBROSO, of the University of Turin, contributes to *Nuova Antologia* for April 16 an article, "The United States of Africa and of America," in which he draws a parallel between the colonial period of the United States of America and the colonial period of the anticipated independent nation, the United States of Africa. The recent progress of the British army into the territory of the Boers has not shaken in the least Professor Lombroso's confidence that the Boers will ultimately achieve their independence. After stating his reasons for the belief—reasons which, for the most part, are fa-

miliar to our readers—he sets about establishing the parallel indicated above.

A MIXED RACIAL ORIGIN.

First of all, the two colonial peoples were of mixed origin. The ancestry of the Boers, though mostly Dutch, had a considerable mixture of French and Scotch elements, and some others in a less degree. The colonial ancestors of the Boers were almost wholly religious exiles. The early American colonists had a considerable percentage of such settlers, though smaller no doubt than that of the Boer colonists. In both, after their removal from the mother-countries, there was a retrogression in civilization, owing to the changed conditions of their lives. And at this point Professor Lombroso directs attention to the fact that a falling back toward barbarism is incident to the early periods of colonial settlement. Owing to the primitive conditions in which the settlers find themselves for a longer or shorter time, as the case may be, a lapse from the standards of the older country whence they came is unavoidable. But if the colonists are of good stock, especially of good mixed stock, they recover the level from which they descended, and, Professor Lombroso thinks, make more rapid progress toward still higher levels than their kinsmen of the old country. The Boers have not yet regained the level of civilization which their forefathers left—at least, they have not in some things. But that the lapse is not permanent Professor Lombroso argues from the kindness and magnanimity with which the Boers have treated their wounded and captive enemies, their success in founding self-governing States, and their aptitudes for the higher principles of military strategy.

LOVE OF LIBERTY.

The three points of resemblance indicated above, Professor Lombroso illustrates and supports by particulars drawn from a large variety of sources. To these three resemblances a fourth is added—love of liberty and readiness to fight for it. No doubt the disparity between the resources of the British Empire and the resources of the Boers is far greater than the disparity between British and American resources during our revolutionary war; but in the situation of the contest the Boers are in many respects much better off than the rebel Americans, and, in the opinion of Professor Lombroso, the advantages which the Boers have in the situation more than compensate for their inferiority of numbers and resources. Later—the professor does not indicate clearly when—the Afrikanders will, he thinks, unite with the Boers, and the nation that will spring from the united people promises to form "a center of liberty and culture superior, most probably, to all the other races of Europe."

BALLOONS IN WAR.

GEN. A. W. GREELY, our chief signal officer, has a picturesque article in the June *Harper's*, on the modern use of aëronautical devices in war. He notes that this is simply a return to the original idea, since the inventions of balloons was directly due to the exigencies of war:

"Impressed with the importance of capturing the fortress of Gibraltar, which British valor was defiantly defending against the combined forces of France and Spain, Joseph Montgolfier, in 1782, sought to advance by a novel method the success of this bloody siege, which was unexpectedly turning the scales of war against France and Spain. He said: 'I possess a superhuman means of introducing our soldiers into this impregnable fortress. They may enter through the air by a gas produced by the combustion of a little straw. By making a bag large enough, it will be possible to introduce into Gibraltar an entire army, which, borne by the wind, will enter right above the heads of the enemy.'"

As early as 1794, the French were attempting to organize a system of captive balloons, and at the battle of Fleurus their utility was plainly demonstrated, the enemy's movements being



THE BRITISH BALLOON DETACHMENT ON THE MARCH IN SOUTH AFRICA.

studied by its aid for ten hours. From that time till this, France has occupied a leading place in such experiments:

"The most successful application of ballooning to field maneuvers in the French army was by one of its most brilliant and forceful officers, Marquis de Galliffet—the dashing cavalry general who led the heroic charge at Reichshofen, and who, in the present critical condition of his country, emerges from his well-earned retirement to become minister of war. In 1891 there were assembled, for the autumnal maneuvers, four army corps, consisting of an enormous force of 100,000 men, and divided into two opposing armies, whose tactical operations were viewed as of the highest value. In exercising command of one army, Galliffet, appreciating the immense importance of time, decided to use the balloon-basket for his temporary headquarters. Ascending with the chief aëronautical officer to the height of about 1,200 feet, Galliffet occupied the basket for two and one-half hours, receiving reports and sending orders by telephone and telegraph both to his staff and to his corps commanders. Following with the greatest clearness the deployment of his troops and of every important movement of his enemy over a front of more than seven miles, and at distances varying from two to six miles, Galliffet brilliantly regulated the movements of his own army by this knowledge, and at critical junctures even directed the fire of his artillery."

The Germans did not begin balloon experiments till long after their Gallic rivals, but their balloon service is now the best-drilled and probably the most effective in the world.

"In Great Britain, military ballooning may be said to have fairly commenced under Major Elsdale, R. E., in 1879, at Aldershot; and, though it has not been as spectacular as the French or German, its operations have practically revolutionized military ballooning. It has devised a smaller and handier balloon, and has diminished its permeability by the use of gold-beater's skin; and by the use of pure hydrogen-gas, compressed up to 1,800 pounds to the inch and stored in steel tubes, it has revolutionized the gas-supply. The tubes are transported in specially constructed wagons, so that it is possible to inflate and put up a balloon in half an hour. The remodeled English valves absolutely prevent the outflow of hydrogen, except under great and extraordinary pressure; then an automatic arrangement permits the expanding gas to escape until the pressure becomes normal."

In the Soudan, Afghanistan, and in Bechuanaland the British have found the balloon of the greatest utility.

The American development of the war-balloon was one of the many results of the ingenuity called into play by the Civil War, Mr. T. S. C. Lowe being the leading figure among the aëronautists of that day. Although this remarkable organizer, inventor, administrator, and specialist demonstrated the strategic value of balloons in extended military operations, it was not till 1892 that General Greely thought it possible to form a balloon-train; and the first actual work under the appropriation then begun was at Santiago, during the war with Spain. Major Maxfield's balloon here was hit thirteen times by musketry fire without immediately descending of itself.

Balloons are to-day recognized, by all military authorities, as indispensable in forest or prairie regions, and wherever the visual outlook is limited; and even in the present state of the science, they can be used to distribute and set off high explosives. Pending the perfection of airships, attention is chiefly turned to dirigible balloons—that is, those capable of coming and going at pleasure through mechanical means controlled by the aëronaut.

HOW SHALL WE FEED OUR SOLDIERS IN THE TROPICS?

AN experienced army surgeon, Capt. Charles E. Woodruff, contributes to the Philadelphia *Medical Journal* for April 7 an exhaustive study of the American soldier's life in the tropics, with special reference to hygienic conditions. In his discussion of the army ration, Dr. Woodruff says:

"There is one change which I have long advocated, and which is perfectly practicable. As far as is known we are the only civilized nation which makes a pretense of feeding the soldier everything he needs. Every other nation gives the soldier a something called a ration,—sometimes only bread, or bread and meat,—and in addition gives him a small money allowance to buy the rest. England actually takes this money out of the soldier's pay. The ration will just keep body and soul together, in the few occasions in the field when, for a short period, the soldier cannot buy. We have never done this, because, unlike armies in thickly settled Europe, our army is usually situated on the frontier, where it cannot buy anything. We supply everything we can, but the things most needed at home and almost essential in the tropics—fresh green vegetables and fresh fruits—cannot possibly be supplied in large quantities. They would rot before they could be distributed, and must be purchased in small lots and used at once. As long as our troops were at home, and had gardens for vege-

tables and an income from the canteen to buy fruits and other extras, it was all right. We have rested in a fool's paradise. Now that there are no gardens and no funds, we find that every soldier is using his own money to piece out his ration, just as every European soldier does. What a howl there was in Cuba, because the men could not get their pay, to buy food formerly supplied to them at home!

"I am firmly convinced that each company should receive a trifle per day for each man, with which to buy extras whenever he can. Many companies of volunteers did this with private funds, but the poor regular has no enthusiastic State Legislature or local-aid society at home to help him out. The beginning of this change was in the regulation giving to each surgeon 60 cents per day for each patient—one of the grandest improvements our hospitals have ever experienced. Formerly we had to sell the sick man's ration and buy him food. As the ration is worth less than 16 or 18 cents, it is evident how difficult it was to buy food for a convalescent without stealing money collected from some one else. The chief use of such funds would, of course, be for the purchase of green vegetables and fresh fruits. As a rule the company commanders can buy these articles in small lots, when it would be entirely out of the question for the commissary department to handle them. The new law giving to each regiment a commissary officer, who has nothing else to do, would of course facilitate and systematize such small purchases. As almost every civilized nation in the world uses some such system, there must be good in it, and it must be practicable for us also."

LIBERAL EATING.

The conditions produced by tropical heat make it necessary, in Dr. Woodruff's opinion, to have a liberal diet, in order to counteract the increased wastes.

"Our troops in the Philippines last fall had the lean and lanky appearance of well-seasoned soldiers—that is, appearance of men whose wastes had been greater than their food; and this in spite of everything that was done to feed them liberally. I have particularly watched regiments at parade, and was painfully impressed by the large number of thin, yellow faces. They needed more food and less work; indeed, it really seems as though they needed more food than at home. One can well see, then, that it is not wise to restrict eating, but to encourage it—of course, restricting the fats as the foods which produce the most heat, but really the amounts usually consumed make but little practical difference.

"There is no doubt whatever that in the tropics those who are liberally fed are, from their greater resisting powers, far less liable to disease in general than the underfed and half-starved, in whom natural immunity is destroyed and bacteria find a natural culture-field. In no disease is this better shown than in *beriberi*—a veritable curse to all the underfed tropical nations, and so very prevalent among the emaciated and starved Spanish soldiers in the Philippines. We know that this disease attacks the underfed only, and is probably due to bacterial invasion in these non-resisting unfortunates. Japan acted on this hint, and after she changed the navy-ration from rice to a liberal ration of meat and vegetables, the number of cases was reduced to one-tenth their former number."

Dr. Woodruff thinks it probable that the greater susceptibility of the natives of tropical countries to infectious diseases may be due in great part to their feeble, underfed condition.

SHOULD THE RATION BE CUT DOWN?

In the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* for May appears the thesis on "The Ideal Ration for an Army in the Tropics," which won for its writer, Capt. Edward L. Munson, assistant-surgeon, U. S. A., the prize offered in 1899 by Dr. Louis A. Seaman. In this paper Dr. Munson argues as follows for a reduction of the present ration:

"Prolonged heat exerts an unfavorable influence upon the digestive and assimilative functions. Hence work should not be imposed upon the alimentary tract in excess of its powers, and the diet should be restricted as compared with that of temperate climates; particularly since both diarrhœa and dysentery are known to be favored by the presence of a large amount of undigested food in the intestines, while tropical anæmia may be hastened by mal-assimilation resulting from overtaxation of the digestive powers. The respiration, as has already been shown, is much less energetic after arrival in the tropics; and this, combined with rarefaction of the atmosphere and other factors, results in a much less amount of oxygen being introduced into the blood than is the case in temperate climates. If the reduced quantity of oxygen available finds in the organism an excess of alimentary substances it is evident that oxidation of the latter will be delayed even if ultimately complete, and metabolic equilibrium is thus disturbed. Further, according to Foster, the amount of heat evolved by the internal organs depends largely on their stimulation. In the case of the salivary gland the temperature of the saliva during irritation of the chorda has been found to be 1° to 1.5° higher than that of the blood in the carotid

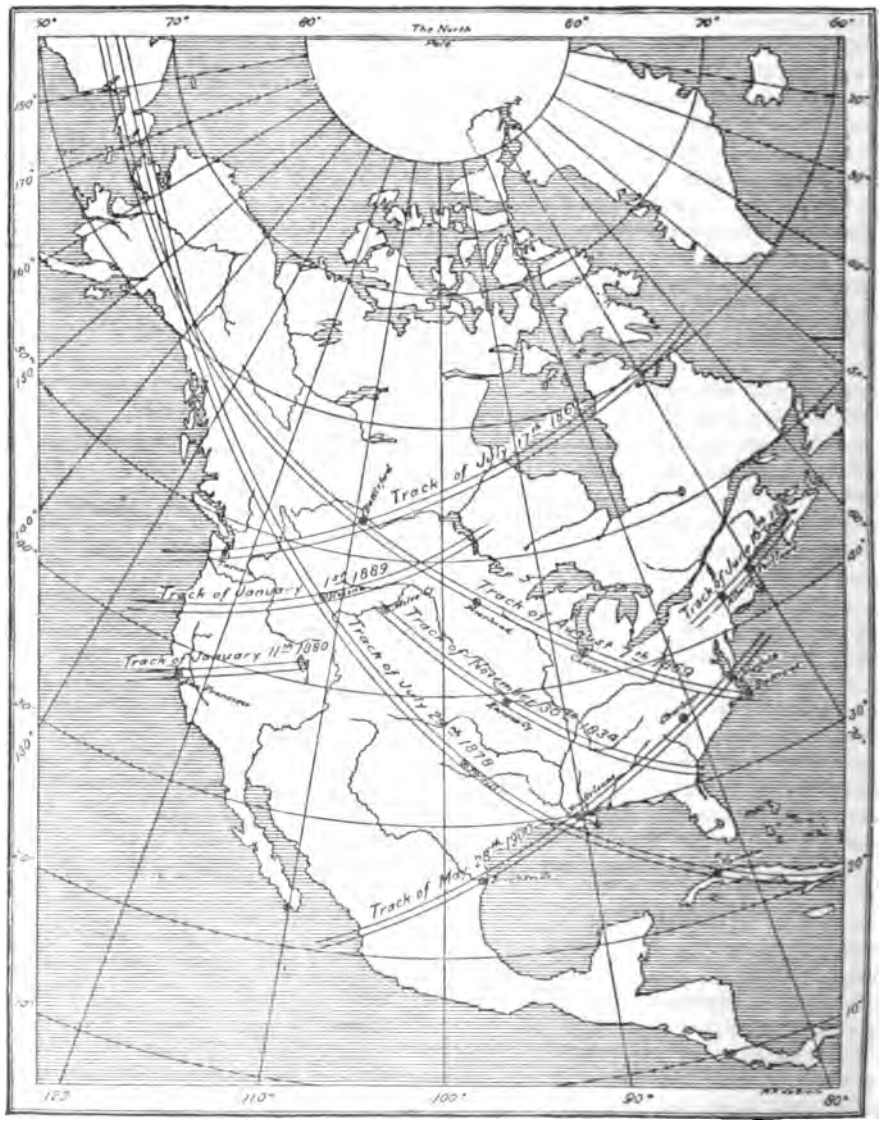
artery at the same time; and the same author states that, in all probability, the investigation of other secreting glandular organs, under excitement, would yield similar results. Particularly is this true of the liver, an organ in which a large amount of heat is produced, as is shown by the fact that a temperature of 40.73° C. has been observed in the hepatic vein, while that of the right heart was 37.70° C., and that of the inferior vena cava 38.35° C. Hence the excitation of the liver, either through the improper selection of foods or an excess of nutritive material requiring disposal, is to be avoided in hot climates. It is obvious that the consumption of any considerable amount of food for the production of internal heat is here as unnecessary as it is undesirable; while the nutritive needs of the organism require a smaller amount of material to repair the systemic losses resulting from the decreased oxidation and normally less active life of the tropics."

SOLAR ECLIPSES.

APROPOS of the eclipse of the sun on May 28, much interesting material relating to the solar eclipses of the past has appeared in the May numbers of the magazines. Prof. Simon Newcomb has written on the subject in *McClure's*, Prof. Frank H. Bigelow in *Appleton's Popular Science Monthly*, and Prof. William H. Pickering, Prof. H. C. Wilson, and Prof. W. B. Featherstone in *Popular Astronomy*. Nor do these names by any means exhaust the list.

One of the most interesting historical surveys is that by Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd, in the *Club Woman*. Mrs. Todd recalls America's past experience with these celestial phenomena.

"In 1860 the Pacific States were traversed by the moon's shadow, and other important darkenings occurring within our borders were in 1869, when the line extended from Bering Strait through Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, and Kentucky to North Carolina; and in 1878, when the track lay from Texas to Wyoming, crossing Pike's



Courtesy of *Appleton's Popular Science Monthly*.

TRACKS OF THE EIGHT NORTH AMERICAN ECLIPSES SEEN SINCE 1800.

Peak in its appalling but magnificent onward rush. From that superb vantage-point, over 14,000 feet in air, the observers noted the tremendous onrush of the shadow, and involuntarily bent away from the black wall, though knowing it but an intangible fate which seemed so relentlessly enveloping them ; and there the great outer streamers of the sun's corona were for the first time discovered, extending more than 11,000,000 miles into space, so faint as to be almost beyond the reach of photographic capture, but no less well defined and full of mysteriously cosmic significance.

"Again, in 1889, on New Year's Day, the friendly sun was once more eaten by the great monster Rahu, his temporary annihilation witnessed along a line crossing California and extending to Manitoba."

ADVANCES OF ASTRONOMICAL SCIENCE.

"The subject of total solar eclipses is a fascinating one ; and hardly any study compares, in intense human as well as celestial interest, with tracing the history of these spectacular occasions, beginning with the famous one in 2158 B.C., when an eclipse suddenly appearing in China, the Emperor demanded of two unhappy ministers, Ho and Hi, why he was not informed of its coming. Receiving no satisfactory answer, he immediately had the heads of the unfortunate courtiers struck off, thus illustrating the danger of allowing eclipses to spring upon monarchs unawares. The picturesque prediction of a solar darkening in 538 B.C., like ours on the 28th of May, by Thales, when two contending armies were brought to sudden halt by its impressive influence, and a peace was at once declared cemented by two marriages ; that of 1780, when America sent her first eclipse expedition, two professors from Harvard, to Penobscot, the wonderful occasion in 1806,—all these were but the prelude to the great spectacular drama of eclipses, of which the scientific golden age began in 1842, when, in France, even soldiers and ignorant peasants were deeply affected by the sublime sight. Since then specialized study has constantly increased. In 1851 methodical observation began in earnest, and the earliest photograph of a total eclipse was made on this occasion. Since 1860, when photography was first systematically employed, the strides have been constant and amazing toward that paradoxical study of the sun when the sun is hidden, characteristic of our closing and divinely interrogative century."

For the purpose of observing the eclipse of May 28, Professor Todd established himself, with a fine collection of instruments, in Tripoli, which offers inducements of greater dryness than other spots.

THE LESSONS OF EXHIBITIONS.

TO the *Fortnightly Review* for May, Mr. F. G. Aflalo contributes a paper on "The Promise of International Exhibitions," in which he maintains that exhibitions have utterly failed to fulfill their promise, and that, indeed, most of the benefits which they are supposed to confer do not exist.

EXHIBITIONS AND PEACE.

Of all the moral benefits of exhibitions the binding together of the nations in peaceful rivalry is the most frequently mentioned, and, according to Mr. Aflalo, with the best reason. It is quite evident that a country in the preparatory stage of exhibition-making will make a great many sacrifices to preserve peace. But no exhibition has done anything to guarantee peace after its conclusion. The exhibitions of 1862, of 1867, and of 1878 were all either preceded, accompanied, or followed by war.

EXHIBITIONS AND TRADE.

Trade, indeed, gains ; but it is not the industry of the country which holds the exhibition, but that of her competitors. Mr. Aflalo holds that the loss of the present exhibition will be that of France alone, even if its immediate result should be a considerable surplus :

"Who that remembers previous Paris exhibitions can overlook the immense preponderance given to French exhibits ? I do not want to be misunderstood. From the standpoint of the commercial visitor, who goes to learn, this is as it should be. The loss is that of France herself. The selected foreign exhibits, instead of showing her the dangers of competition, come humbly, as vassals to a court, to do homage before her unveiled splendor, but also to learn the secrets of her beauty. Learning nothing, she teaches the stranger within her gates of her resources. There is not, in fact, the equality in these collections that would put the world's great cities on one footing and enable self-analysis or comparison from without. These Paris exhibitions resolve themselves into so many demonstrations on the part of the least tottering of the Latin nations—a continuous protest against the waxing might of the rival stock. Even considerations of a political nature prejudice the value of any serious attempt to equate the exhibitors of the world on the basis of their exhibits ; since Germany, which is this year to exhibit in lavish style, was unrepresented in both 1878 and 1889 by so much as a cheap knife."

NO INDUSTRIAL PROFIT.

The English Fisheries Exhibition of 1883 is quoted by Mr. Aflalo as a case of financial suc-

cess, but industrial impotence. It produced a considerable surplus. But he holds that the result of the exhibit of foreign improvements in fishing was absolutely *nil* on England's own fishing class. In 1878 the Society of Arts sent 200 working men to Paris, and a valuable report was compiled from their experience ; but everything it contained was obtained outside the exhibition, in the shops and factories of Paris, and might have been done equally well in any ordinary year. It must be acknowledged that people, as a rule, do not attend immense exhibitions with a serious purpose of studying along any particular line, but that they go mostly for pleasure. In this age of travel and telegraphy, even the non-commercial reader is already aware of the natural products of every corner of the earth, of the industrial standing of the nations, of the weakness of the strong, and of the strength of the weak.

THE DEMORALIZATION OF PRIZES.

Of the stimulating influence of the prize system, Mr. Aflalo is equally skeptical. He thinks it would be better to pass the claim over in discreet silence—"for there would have been no need, had such challenge not compelled, to recall all the very degrading claims and counter-claims, the open charges of bribery, and undue influence. The main objection, however, to the great exhibitors themselves being judges is that it unfairly debars them from competing. Yet the whole system has in it something rotten. That the great function of any exhibition, viewed from the standpoint of the exhibitor, is to advertise those who lend it their support, is a thesis that it would be worth no one's while seriously to contest. Nor against such purpose have I any prudish desire to protest. Journals that strive honestly to raise the moral tone of the masses have before now paid dividends out of the advertisements of usurers and turf-agents. This may be a regrettable necessity, but it cannot for one moment be rationally regarded as affecting the moral standing of their articles. It would in analogous case be absurd to condemn exhibitions on no better ground than the incidental uses to which those who guarantee the deficit may quite legitimately put them. Unfortunately, however, the greed of advertisement transcends the period of the exhibition itself, and there must needs be prize awards and diplomas of merit to keep alive the more ephemeral glories. Then follow insinuations of petty injustices, and of others less petty, with undignified recrimination that may survive the exhibition by months. If it is impossible to conceive of exhibitions getting the necessary support at their inception without some inducement of this nature to attract competing firms from all parts of the world, then these prize awards constitute anything rather than praise of such gatherings. Nor does it suffice that these shows advertise their clients. They must also be huge marts, wherein the exhibitors are, under the peculiarly advantageous conditions of their tenure, enabled to undersell the ordinary retail traders of the town and to compete very seriously with them at the finest and busiest season of the year. The petty drawbacks, even from the standpoint of the exhibitors themselves, are innumerable. Competition will not allow them to stay away, as many among them would prefer, so they have to exhibit, for the benefit of rival manufacturers, methods that would otherwise have been kept from all eyes but those of their own customers."

COLORED LACE: A NEW INDUSTRY.

FEW subjects are more fascinating to the feminine mind than lace, and it is therefore pretty safe to predict a considerable success for M. Engerand's article, in the first April number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, on "The Lace Industry of Normandy."

He begins by telling us that this industry was for a long time the most flourishing in Lower Normandy, especially in the Department of Calvados, where, as far back as 1851, 50,000 lace-makers were employed. Pay ranged high; children made from 10 cents to 15 cents a day, while the average of the working-women made 40 cents, and there were some who attained to 60 cents, 80 cents, and even $1 a day. From these figures it follows that in this one department the lace industry brought not far short of $2,500,000 a year. In addition to this material advantage, the industry has an excellent social effect. It does not necessitate the separation of the worker from her family ; entails no excessive fatigue ; can be done anywhere, whether in the house or in the garden, according to the time of year ; and can be practiced from childhood up to old age. The best of the Norman lace-workers are from 60 to 80 years old, and M. Engerand has seen nonagenarians whose work showed no falling off in beauty and accuracy. Altogether, it would be difficult to imagine a more convenient kind of industry, embracing as it does youth, middle life, and age. Moreover, it is an occupation which can be dropped without loss—at the time of harvest, for example, and then resumed during the long winter months.

A CRISIS IN THE INDUSTRY.

In view of all this, it is particularly distressing to learn that the industry has undergone a most severe crisis ; and it is, says M. Engerand, an

extraordinary testimony to the force of habit and the persistence of tradition that there are still any lace-makers left in Normandy. There are hardly a thousand left in Calvados who have regular employment, and the wages have fallen considerably; even the cleverest can only make a franc by working 12 or 13 hours a day. Before the war, there were in this department some 50 lace-houses, employing a regular army of workers; but now there are only three or four firms left.

What are the causes of this extraordinary failure? Chief of all are the competition of machine-work and the triumph of imitation; and M. Engerand asks whether this brutal invasion of machinery in the domain of art is not a sort of sacrilege? A single machine can make in ten minutes as much lace as a clever lace-maker can make in six months, working 12 hours a day. Mechanical competition, however, is not the only cause. Imitation lace has existed ever since 1839, and even under the second empire the output of it was considerable, although that was also the period when hand-made lace was most prosperous. M. Engerand cites another factor—namely, the change in fashion and the vulgarization of dress under the influence of modern ideas of equality and democracy. Hand made lace must always be a luxury for the well-to do, and there must be fairly numerous occasions on which it may be worn. Obviously a monarchy affords these occasions, while a republic lacks them. The effect of the absence of a court in France is largely to throw the direction of the fashion into the hands of the actresses, and this has an unfortunate effect upon artistic dress. Why should an actress buy handsome lace at all? Her toilette is only to be seen at some little distance, at which an imitation looks quite as well as the real. Moreover, the fashions now change much more quickly than they did, and real lace is too expensive to be worn for a season and then thrown aside.

THE REMEDIES.

The situation requires much tact. Obviously such a remedy as a trade-union of lace-workers formed to obtain a rise of wages would complete the ruin of the industry. Moreover, it is clear that, as lace-making is so slow, the finished article must command a high price if the worker is to be properly remunerated; but people will not pay a high price, unless they get in exchange a really remarkable and precious object. Consequently, hand-made lace must be a real work of art; and this has, perhaps, not been sufficiently realized by those who have embarked their capital in this industry.

M. Engerand suggests that the new parti-colored lace of Courseulles-sur-Mer, in the department of Calvados, will afford a solution of this difficulty. As is well known, lace has hitherto been produced by complicated crossings of threads all of the same color; but in this new invention of MM. Georges Robert and Félix Aubert silks of varied colors are employed, which afford an opportunity to the individual worker of displaying her taste and her decorative instinct. There is a certain severity and monotony about the old plain laces; but this new colored kind is full of charm and variety, and is capable of the greatest artistic development. It seems as if this work could never be imitated by any machine, however ingenious, for the intelligence and skill of the individual worker are required at every turn. This is notably the case in the selection of the silks; the decomposing action of light has to be continually kept in mind, and the combination of delicate *nuances* of color gives much greater scope for taste and skill than the old plain hand-made lace. Thus, to make up a durable green, the worker must use three different shades; while for violet it is necessary to combine the ordinary violet with a reddish and a whitish tint of the same color. The greater difficulty of the work may be estimated when it is explained that even the breath of the worker might spoil a delicate piece, and an error which would be of little or no consequence in ordinary lace is fatal in this new kind. Lace-makers who are capable of working in colors are comparatively rare, and they can command quite 50 per cent. more wages—an increase which they certainly earn.

OTHER MEANS OF SALVATION.

The essential thing is to find something which is at once a novelty and full of artistic merit. The crisis in the lace industry, he says, has not been confined to France. In Italy it underwent in the seventies a serious check, and then the usefulness of a monarchy was demonstrated; for the Queen made hand-made lace fashionable, and the condition of the workers instantly improved. In Austria, too, much the same thing happened. The late and deeply lamented Empress put herself at the head of a movement for the encouragement of hand-made lace, and schools were established all over the empire for teaching the art. The result was magnificent, and the wealthy Austrian aristocracy made it a point of honor to wear only these beautiful and expensive products of individual industry. M. Engerand relegates to a footnote the successful efforts made by Queen Victoria to revive the Honiton lace industry in England. As regards France, he recommends the creation in Paris of a central committee to foster the hand-made lace industry.

THE TWELFTH CENSUS.

FREDERICK H. WINES, Assistant Director of the Census Bureau, tells, in the June *Munsey's*, a great many interesting facts about the taking of the census of 1900—an operation which will begin on the very day when this issue sees the light. Mr. Wines first of all corrects the impression that, when the gatherers of statistics begin to come around, the census has begun: "As a matter of fact, at that time the twelfth census of the United States will be entering on the second stage of its progress towards completion. The first stage, that of organization and preparation, began more than a year ago—in fact, as soon as the director of the census was appointed."

"The census, in its essentials, is simply a great publishing enterprise. The publisher is the United States Government, and the publication is one of vast proportions. The data which it is to contain are to be drawn from nearly 4,000,000 square miles of the earth's surface. To collect it will require the services of some 40,000 men.

"At the central office in Washington, a force numbering upward of 300,000 will be employed in compiling, editing, and arranging these data; or, in other words, in preparing the 'copy' for the dozens of large volumes which are to contain the results of the enumeration.

"Looked at in this light, the census enumeration is purely a business undertaking. It is so regarded and administered by the director and his associates. It is, moreover, an enterprise of vast scope and requiring thorough and extensive organization. Clerks, enumerators, and superintendents must be carefully instructed and thoroughly drilled in their respective duties, if the work is to run smoothly to a prompt and successful completion. This is the consideration which the census officials have had constantly in mind in making their preparations." In the Eleventh Census, the final volume of the report on population was not off the press until seven years after the beginning of the work; while the last volume of the census of 1880 did not come out until 1889!

Congress, however, has expressly stipulated that the four principal reports—those on population, mortality, manufactures, and agriculture—of the Twelfth Census must be out by July 1, 1902, so there is a formidable problem before the director and his army of assistants.

HOW THE INFORMATION IS COLLECTED.

"The actual work of the census divides itself into two parts—collecting the information and compiling it for publication. For the former purpose, something like 40,000 enumerators will be employed. It will be their duty to visit every family in the country and to obtain the answers to a set of specified questions regarding every resident. They will gather all the information relating to the subject of population, except that concerning persons in public institutions, where special enumerators will be appointed from among the officials of the establishments.

"The data relating to manufactures and mechanical industries will be gathered by special agents, whose work will be of a higher grade, and will receive more liberal pay than that of the enumerators.

"The third method of gathering information will be by correspondence, and the examination of printed documents of all kinds. This will be carried on in the central office."

These enumerators have been chosen with the utmost care, since on their accuracy depends the trustworthiness of the census, and each of them receives, for his two or three weeks' work, from $50 to $150.

TABULATION OF FACTS.

"In compiling the results of the enumeration, every person in the United States will be represented by a card. The facts recorded concerning each person are shown by holes punched in the cards. Experience has shown that the average number of records that can be transferred from the schedules to the punch-cards by each clerk in one day is 700. It is the intention of the census authorities, as soon as the schedules are received, to set 1,000 clerks at work with the punching-machines. This will mean something like 700,000 punched cards per day, and should exhaust the entire number of 70,000,000, or thereabouts, in approximately 100 working days. Of course, delays may occur which will require it to occupy a little longer time than this."

These cards are run through 140 electric tabulating-machines, each one capable of taking the information from 5,000 cards a day. From them 1,000 clerks and copyists prepare the "copy" for the printers.

COST OF THE CENSUS.

"It is impossible to estimate beforehand the outlay involved in taking the census. The salaries of the 3,000 clerks in Washington will amount to nearly $3,000,000 per year. The pay of the enumerators will foot up $5,000,000, or more. Add to this the expense of publishing the reports, the cost of materials, and the pay of special agents, and it seems likely that, with the most economical administration, it will cost us upwards of $15,000,000 to learn how great we have become."

THE PRESIDENT'S RIGHT OF REMOVAL.

THE opening article in the June *Atlantic* is the first of ex-President Cleveland's papers on "The Independence of the Executive," from the addresses delivered by him at Princeton University in April.

Mr. Cleveland traces the formation of the Confederacy of the Thirteen States and the growth of those articles in our Constitution regarding the Executive. The Presidency, he says, is "pre-eminently the people's office."

"I mean that it is especially the office of the people as individuals, and in no general, local, or other combination, but each standing on the firm footing of manhood and American citizenship. The laws passed by Congress are inert and vain without executive impulse; and the federal courts pass upon the right of the citizen only when their aid is occasionally invoked; but under the constitutional mandate that the President 'shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed,' every citizen, in the day or in the night, at home or abroad, is constantly within the protection and restraint of the executive power—none so lowly as to be beneath its scrupulous care, and none so great and powerful as to be beyond its restraining force."

In spite of this fact, it was seriously proposed by the deliberating representatives, with the king's tyranny hot in their minds, that the President should be elected by Congress. With the remembrance of the dread of a too strong executive in mind, it is noteworthy that, when the debate of 1789 brought up the question of the President's power of removal, a decided majority of the House agreed that he should have this right—many holding that the Constitution's direct implication already conferred it on him. The bill which finally passed both House and Senate was so worded that it was "universally acknowledged to be a distinct and unequivocal declaration that, under the Constitution, the right of removal was conferred upon the President."

"OFFENSIVE PARTISANSHIP" IN 1886.

"This was in 1789. In 1886, ninety-seven years afterwards, this question was again raised in a sharp contention between the Senate and the President. In the meantime, as was quite natural, perhaps, partisanship had grown more pronounced and bitter, and it was at that particular time by no means softened by the fact that the party that had become habituated to power by twenty-four years of substantial control of the Government was obliged, on the 4th of March, 1885, to make way in the executive office for a President elected by the opposite party. He came into office fully pledged to the letter of civil-service reform; and passing beyond the letter of the law on that subject, he had said: 'There is a class of government positions which are not within the letter of the civil-service statute, but which are so disconnected with the policy of an administration, that the removal therefrom of present incumbents, in my opinion, should not be made during the terms for which they were appointed, solely on partisan grounds, and for the purpose of putting in their places those who are in political accord with the appointing power.' . . . The declaration which I have quoted was, however, immediately followed by an important qualification, in these terms: 'But many men holding such positions have forfeited all just claim to retention, because they have used their places for party purposes, in disregard of their duty to the people; and because, instead of being decent public servants, they have proved themselves offensive partisans and unscrupulous manipulators of local party management.'

"These pledges were not made without a full appreciation of the difficulties and perplexities that would follow in their train. It was anticipated that party associates would expect, notwithstanding executive pledges made in advance, that there would be a speedy and liberal distribution among them of the offices from which they had been inexorably excluded for nearly a quarter of a century. It was plainly seen that many party friends would be disappointed; that personal friends would be alienated; and that the charge of ingratitude, the most distressing and painful of all accusations, would find abundant voice. Nor were the difficulties overlooked that would sometimes accompany a consistent and just attempt to determine the cases in which incumbents in office had forfeited their claim to retention. That such cases were numerous no one, with the slightest claim to sincerity, could for a moment deny.

"With all these things in full view, and with an alternative of escape in sight through an evasion of pledges, it was stubbornly determined that the practical enforcement of the principles involved was worth all the sacrifices which were anticipated. And while it was not expected that the Senate, which was the only stronghold left to the party politically opposed to the President, was to contribute an ugly dispute to a situation already sufficiently troublesome, I was in a position to say that even such a contingency, if then made manifest, would be contemplated with all possible fortitude."

THE TENURE-OF-OFFICE ACT.

Mr. Cleveland next summarizes the causes and results of the Tenure-of-Office Act, passed in

1867, for the express purpose of preventing President Johnson from making removals during the bitter quarrel that raged between him and Congress. This radical law was virtually nullified by the act of 1869; and although President Grant objected strenuously to the law, even as left by this statute, as "being inconsistent with a faithful and efficient administration of the Government," the fact that he made six hundred and eighty removals or suspensions in the first seven weeks succeeding his inauguration, and also that he never subsequently recommended the repeal of the law, shows that it did not hamper him—indeed, "that at no time since its enactment has its existence been permitted to embarrass executive action prior to the inauguration of a Democratic President politically opposed to the majority in control of the Senate."

The more specific discussion of the events of Mr. Cleveland's own administration is reserved for the concluding paper, which is to appear in the next issue.

WHAT KIND OF A SOVEREIGN IS QUEEN VICTORIA?

"THE Queen reigns, but does not rule," says Mr. William T. Stead, in the June *Cosmopolitan*: "Constitutional monarchy reduces the element of personal sovereignty to a minimum. For two hundred years, no British monarch has ventured to refuse to accept every law passed by both houses of Parliament. The Queen is as much bound to obey the law as the meanest of her subjects. She cannot interfere with the courts of justice, great or small. On the advice of the home secretary, she can exercise the royal prerogative of mercy; but as the home secretary must approve, even this lingering remnant of royal power is more of a shadow than a substance. Everything is done in her name; but the whole authority nominally vested in the Crown is really exercised by ministers who are absolutely dependent for their continuance in office from day to day upon the support of a majority of the House of Commons. These constitutional truisms lead many people to imagine that, as the Queen has no authority, she is therefore of no account. They could not make a greater mistake. The Queen has no power by virtue of her throne; but she has immense influence, owing to the opportunity which her position gives her, of counseling, persuading, and sometimes even coercing, her ministers to adopt her view of a question. Owing to her unique experience, her extraordinary memory, and her keen interest in all affairs of state, Queen Victoria is probably more influential than any of her subjects, not excluding either her prime minister or her colonial secretary. She has become the balance-wheel of the Constitution. This extraordinary position is due solely to her personal qualities and the use she has made of her unique opportunities."

After giving some "inside history," in the shape of stories, telling how the Queen really forced Mr. Gladstone and the cabinet, in the face of the evident mandate of the country, to cause the evacuation of Candahar by the British troops, and how consistent and powerful has been her influence for peace in South Africa, Mr. Stead sums up as follows:

"I venture to submit that, although I have made no attempt to claim for the Queen the possession of infallible wisdom or of political sagacity beyond that of other mortals, I may modestly claim to have shown that the Queen is a sovereign who brings, to the discharge of the responsible duties of her exalted position, a keen political instinct which, combined with a deep sense of her obligations, impels her to take an active part in the handling of all the great questions of state. Anything farther removed than the Queen from a mere royal puppet, immersed in trivialities of etiquette and pageantry, can hardly be imagined. She may not be, as the present Czar affirmed, 'the greatest statesman in Europe;' but, among all contemporary sovereigns and statesmen, you may search in vain for any one who possesses to the same extent immense experience, unfailing memory, steady judgment, unwearying industry, and intense consciousness of personal responsibility. These qualities, combined in Queen Victoria, have given her a position of influence in the British Empire of to-day which, although purely personal, could never have been wielded by any woman if she had not inherited a throne."

THE MUNICIPAL VOTERS' LEAGUE OF CHICAGO.

MR. EDWIN BURRITT SMITH gives, in the *Atlantic* for June, an account of the work for municipal reform now going on in Chicago, under the leadership of the Municipal Voters' League. The league was formed in January, 1896, when the city government had "touched bottom," 58 of its 68 aldermen being organized into a "gang" for the service and blackmail of great corporations, and three-fourths of the voters being of foreign birth or parentage and apparently inaccessible to reform. Two representative citizens met together to decide what was to be done; the outgrowth of this was the Municipal Voters' League of 100 members, which met but twice, appointing a small executive committee, and giving it power to perpetuate itself.

"The executive committee is composed of nine members. The terms of one-third of these expire each year. Their successors are elected by those holding over. The committee selects the officers from its own membership. Their duties as officers are administrative, no final action being taken without the vote of the committee. Advisory committees, of from one to five members, are appointed in the wards. Their duties are to furnish information and advice, especially when called for, and on occasion as directed to start movements for the nomination of independent candidates."

"The general membership of the league is composed of voters, who sign cards expressing approval of its purposes and methods. No general meetings of the members are held; but circular letters advising those in a given ward of the local situation are frequently mailed during aldermanic campaigns to secure a wide coöperation. At the opening of its second campaign, the league mailed a pamphlet to every registered voter in the city, giving the history for some years of franchise legislation by the council, with a full report on the records of retiring members."

WHAT THE LEAGUE HAS DONE.

The net results of the league's five campaigns, in the face of most powerful opposing influences, are decidedly encouraging:

"Of the 58 'gang' members of 1895, but four are now in the council. The 'honest minority' of 10 of 1895 became a two-thirds majority in 1899. The quality of the membership has steadily improved. Each year it is found easier to secure good candidates. To-day the council contains many men of character and force. A considerable number of prominent citizens have become members. The council is organized on a non-partisan basis, the good men of both parties being in charge of all the committees. It is steadily becoming more efficient. No general 'boodle ordinance' has passed over the mayor's veto since the first election in which the league participated. Public despair has given place to general confidence in the early redemption of the council. It is no longer a good investment for public service corporations to expend large sums to secure the reelection of notorious boodlers. It is no longer profitable to pay large amounts to secure membership in a body in which 'aldermanic business' has ceased to be good. It is now an honor to be a member of the Chicago Council. Any capable member may easily acquire an honorable city reputation in a single term of service."

THE NEW SLAVERY QUESTION.

IN the May *Forum*, Dr. Henry O. Dwight, whose residence in Mohammedan countries qualifies him to speak with authority on the subject, treats of the slavery question in Sulu under the title of "Uncle Sam's Legacy of Slaves."

Dr. Dwight shows that the system of slavery is deeply rooted in the traditions of all Mohammedan peoples, and he shows how difficult it is to make headway against the institution as established among those peoples. He says:

"Our arguments on the injustice of slavery, or our proofs of its ruinous effects upon the people who maintain it, cannot even be heard by Mohammedans. We may by force stop slave-raiding in Sulu; and the Moros will admit that we have the right to do so, as we have the right to stop other forms of war, if we have the power. But any attempt to release by force, from the houses of the people, slaves whom these Mohammedans have obtained in regular conformity to their religious law, and who form part of the family life which that law has consecrated, would be an attack upon the Mohammedan religion itself, to be resisted with the fiercest wrath of fanaticism by a general appeal to arms, whether made in Central Africa, in Turkey, or in the Sulu Islands.

THE NATURE OF MOHAMMEDAN SLAVERY.

"Clearly, then, a large army will be needed if we seek to coerce the Moros into freeing the slaves now in their hands. But some who have had dealings with the Moros say that all this anxiety to clear ourselves from reproach is needless. Mohammedan slavery is not slavery as we understand it. Much can be said in favor of this opinion. Glimpses of slavery in Mohammedan lands are far from repellent. I once asked a Turkish friend with whom I was walking to point out to me some specimens of slaves in the crowd on the streets. We met a party of veiled Turkish women. Walking behind them was a girl of ten, plainly but comfortably dressed, and carrying a bundle wrapped in an embroidered cloth. The bundle was so large that the slender little arms could hardly encircle it, and there was a sense of relief when the ladies hailed a cab, and entered it—little girl, big bundle, and all. 'That little girl is a slave,' said my friend. 'It is the cheapest way of getting help for the house. She is treated almost like a daughter; does what work she can about the house; carries parcels in the street; runs errands to the baker and the grocer, and goes to school when she has nothing else to do. Her work pays for her keep; and when she has grown there is sure to be some one willing to buy her.' The lot of that little slave

was certainly better than that of many a child of the slums in our cities.

"A carriage came whirling by, drawn by a pair of noble horses, and with two servants riding on horseback behind. It stopped a little in front of us. The coachman leaped to the ground, and the servants hastily dismounted, one of them opening the door of the carriage. A negro stepped out and passed into a shop, profoundly saluted by passers in the street as well as by the three servants. He was black as ebony, with very high cheek-bones, very small eyes, and very thick lips. But he was tall, and held his head like a field-marshal. 'That man is a slave,' said my friend. 'Which one?' I asked, looking from one to the other of the three servants. 'Why, the negro who came in the carriage,' said my friend. 'These fellows are his servants, but he himself belongs to some very high personage, and has charge of the women; probably he is chief of the slaves in some very great house.' One cannot find much to pity in the lot of a slave who rides about in his coach."

WHAT CAN UNCLE SAM DO?

It must not be inferred, from the paragraphs just quoted, that Dr. Dwight has blinded himself to the harshness and injustice of Mohammedan slavery, especially in its dealings with women. On the contrary, he exposes unsparingly "its heartless disregard of the most sacred feelings and rights of women." While he believes that Sulu slavery has alleviations never found in the system as it formerly existed in Christendom, still he considers it "at best a slightly modified form of a well-known wrong too criminal to be ignored." How shall we deal with this evil? Dr. Dwight does not outline any policy, but he concludes his article with a suggestion:

"The Moros are a people apart, not as yet amenable to influences which will weigh with other inhabitants of the Philippines. Let them be treated as such. Let the Sulu Islands be classed in the same category as our Indian reservations, to be surrounded by a wall of steel for the safety of neighboring peoples, but to be managed internally by their own chiefs under existing laws and usages. Such a course would accord with the views of General Bates, with the policy of the Spaniards, and especially with the expectations of the Moros themselves. But—and this is important if our consciences are not to be burdened by the acts of these people—until some such system of moral quarantine has educated them to new ideas of justice and equity, let not these tribes be employed (as possibly they have been used in Mindanao) to apply their peculiar methods to the subjugation of insurgents."

THE FIRST WORLD-CONQUEROR.

IN *Ainslee's Magazine* for May, Mr. Theodore Waters gives an interesting account of the excavations made on the site of ancient Nippur—the "Calneh in the land of Shinar" of Genesis—in Mesopotamia, under the auspices of the University of Pennsylvania. These excavations have been ten years in progress—for the first two years under the direction of the Rev. John P. Peters, and since then of Prof. H. V. Hilprecht and J. H. Haynes.

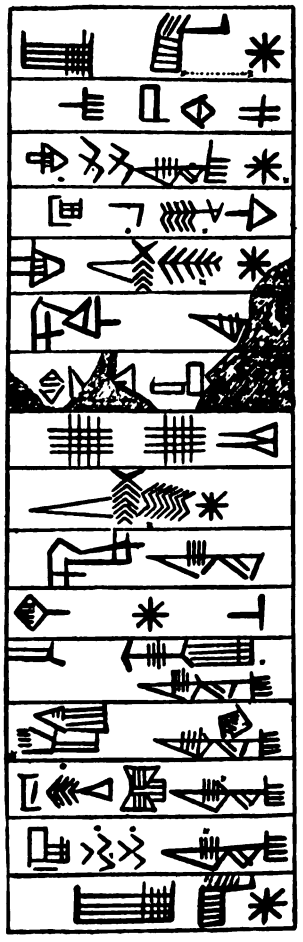
Some notion of the nature and importance of the discoveries that have resulted from the excavations at Nippur is conveyed by the following paragraphs from Mr. Waters' article:

"Professor Hilprecht has been constantly finding fragments of tablets, of vases, of urns, of sarcophagi, etc., each fragment inscribed with some enlightening fact, or perhaps with some puzzling statement, the meaning of which was not ascertained until later. He was able, at times, to corroborate many historical statements concerning kings before Christ, and at others to fill completely many gaps in the long line of succession, until they traced back to the days of Ur-Gur, 2800 B.C., Narim Sîn and his father, Sargon I., 3800 B.C., and to fifteen kings who lived previous to Sargon. It was in the temple area that the fragmentary evidence of these rulers was found. The temple was the Temple of Bel, or Inlil, around which the religion of Nippur had centered. It is curious, however, that in the three or four strata marked by the successive platforms of the temple everything was in such a fragmentary condition. It was some time before the investigators succeeded in learning that this damage was the result of a raid by the Elimites, who came down from the north about 2200 B.C. and sacked Nippur. They carried away to Elim every article of value which they could take. What they could not take they broke into pieces and scattered. The proof of this is that some of the spoil of this ancient raid is to-day being dug up on the site of old Susa.

"Among the fragments of pre-Sargonic times is one which told of a king, Enshagshurana, and his achievements in defending Kengi from the enmity of the city of Kish. The significance of this and other fragments of similar character, however, was never realized so much as when they were collated with that great find which revealed the existence of one of the greatest men of ancient time—King Lugalzaggisi, the conqueror of the world. The fragments were found in the sanctuary of the temple. The fragments were parts of vases scattered and broken, sometimes into the very smallest of pieces. But when properly placed together they revealed the

longest inscription yet deciphered concerning the fourth and fifth millenniums, B.C."

This inscription was restored by Professor Hilprecht from 88 fragments of 64 different vases. Professor Hilprecht has said that the work was just as much a mathematical task as it was a palæographical and philological problem. On the basis of palæographical evidence 150 pieces were selected out of a heap of 600 fragments and particles. Professor Hilprecht then succeeded in placing five fragments together. By this means he obtained the beginning and ends of each column. It remained to arrange the little fragments and determine their exact position. In many cases there were only a few traces of the original characters left to guide in the work of reconstruction.



Courtesy of Ainslee's Magazine.

THE OLDEST DOCUMENT IN THE WORLD.

King Lugalzaggisi's account of his triumphs.

A DOCUMENT 7,000 YEARS OLD.

"This document is perhaps the most wonderful in existence. Certainly it is the oldest of any length; and, taken in connection with other fragments of the time, it tells a marvelous story of human life as it existed between six and seven thousand years ago. Here it is briefly, as compiled from the findings of Professor Hilprecht:

"'The first king of whom there is any record was Enshagshurana, lord of Kengi. Kengi was the ancient name of Babylonia. It signified "Land of the Canals and Reeds," so that the general character of the country at least must then have been very similar to that of the present time. Kengi was then in an advanced state of civilization, and was inhabited partly by Semites and partly by Sumerians. The Sumerians were the cultured class. In a manner they were to the Semites what the Greeks were to the Romans, but the cultural difference was greater, perhaps. The capital of this early kingdom is not yet known, though in all probability it was the city of Erech (Gen. x. 10). But the religious center of Kengi was the temple of the god Bel, or Inlil, in Nippur, which was Calneh. Nippur was under the especial care of the kings of Kengi, each of whom was called a *patesi*—a title which signified that the king was great, sovereign, lord of the temple, and chief servant of its god. "*Patesi-gal-Inlil*, or Great Priest-King of Bel," meant that the king was ruler by divine right. Other temples had their *patesis*, who were not kings, but who enjoyed privileges which virtually made them rulers of the cities and towns in which the temples were located.

"'At this early time Kengi was greatly harassed by the people of Kish, a nearby city. Kish enjoyed a cult of its own, and its *patesi* was an ambitious man, who desired to extend his influence outside of his own city or kingdom. Nearly every city was a kingdom in those days. Kish lay in the north of Kengi, and the people of the latter place called it *gul shag*; that is, "wicked of heart," and *ga gull*, or "teeming with wickedness." Once, indeed, Utug, the *patesi* of Kish, encroached so far on Babylonia or Kengi that he obtained possession of Nippur, for there is a record showing that he presented a large sandstone vase to the god Bel, in the temple of Nippur. But vase fragments have been found on which was recorded the fact that Enshagshurana, that most ancient king, marched against Kish with an army, and defeated its *patesi*. The spoil of this expedition was presented to Bel, the god of Nippur. Later on, another king of Kengi marched against Kish, and not only invested the city, but captured its ruler, En Bildar, carrying home victoriously "his statue, his shining silver, the utensils, his property," and depositing them in the temple of Bel. But this success of the Sumerians, who were the natural rulers of Kengi, was evidently short-lived; for presently another king of Kish, Ur-Shulpauddu, is found to have offered several inscribed vases in the temple of Nippur to Inlil, lord of lands, and to Ninlil, mistress of heaven and earth, consort to Inlil.

NORTHERN HORDES.

"'It is quite evident, from the inscriptions, that Babylonia, or Kengi, was being steadily encroached upon by the foreign hordes who dwelt to the north. The Sumerians represented the culture of the world, and Kengi was their ancestral home. How far back into the par

their civilization extended is, of course, unknown; but it was very old, even at that time, for they had already apparently reached that stage of martial enervation which seems to have been the fate of most advanced civilizations. The invaders, on the other hand, were Semites, and they carried on their conquests with the vigor of a younger nation. Kish, which originally formed part of Kengi, became their most southerly outpost, and from it they sapped the strength of the Sumerian civilization. The victory of Ur-Shulpauddu was apparently complete; but, whether it was shortly wrested from him, or whether he ruled a long time, the fragmentary record does not reveal. Perhaps the end of the Sumerian supremacy was inevitable; for at last, when the moment for their suppression was at hand, Lugalzaggisi appeared.

"'Lugalzaggisi was the son of Ukush, *patesi* of gish-Ban, or, as it is written in the Scriptures, Haran (Gen. xii. 4), and he was the chief commander of the invading army. He was the Alexander of the time, sweeping everything before him, from the Mediterranean Sea to the Persian Gulf—a remarkable corroboration of the historical certainty of many of the facts recorded in Genesis. Negative critics have endeavored to resolve the account of the four Eastern kings who marched against the kings of Palestine into a myth. They contend that an invasion of such proportions as is mentioned in Gen. xiv. would have been impossible in Abraham's time. Yet Lugalzaggisi (4500 B.C.), who lived 2,500 years before the time of Abraham, says in his inscriptions that he had extended this conquest to the Mediterranean. It might also be said, in passing, that Sargon (3800 B.C.), who flourished long after Lugalzaggisi, and yet long before Abraham (2100 B.C. or thereabouts), left inscriptions which show that he carried on four campaigns to the Mediterranean, until at last he subdued the Amorites, of whom records have been found in Cyprus. Lugalzaggisi's inscriptions also tend to prove the biblical statement that the Semites came from the north to be correct, and that we must look for the origin of the race in Armenia. Ukush, the father of the world conqueror, and priest-king of Haran, was a Semite, as his name indicates.

"'Lugalzaggisi made Erech (Gen. x. 10) the capital of his world.

"'He can hardly have been the first Semite who adopted the Sumerian pantheon of gods and their whole religious cultus. The worship of Jehovah may have been generally supplanted by the Sumerian religion long before his time. However, the Semites appreciated the evidence of cultural difference between their own more or less barbarous habits and those of the Sumerians, who were Hamitic; for they followed the traditions of the latter to such an extent that little or nothing of that which is purely Semitic has come down to us. In language, writing, manner of living, etc., Lugalzaggisi made the whole world Sumerian. Probably he raised the standard of the world higher in proportion to its previous condition than any ruler before or since—this, of course, with the single element of religion left out. He carved his achievements on vases of stone, and placed them in the sanctuary of the temple of Bel, where they remained intact until that famous Elimitic raid, when they were smashed into the fragments found and deciphered by Professor Hilprecht.

"'The language used by the ancient king was even poetic:

"'When Inlil, lord of the lands, invested Lugalzaggisi with the kingdom of the world; when he filled the lands with his renown and subdued the country from the rise of the sun to the setting of the sun,—at that time he straightened his path from the lower sea of the Tigris and Euphrates to the upper sea and granted him the dominion of everything from the rise of the sun to the setting of the sun, and caused the countries to dwell in peace.

"'Yet after Lugalzaggisi died he was quickly forgotten. The Bible does not mention him, and Bible scholars heretofore have even spoken of Sargon, who built his temple on the ruins of Nippur after the lapse of thousands of years, as mythical.'"

THE NEW UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

IT is a suggestive coincidence that the reconstitution of the British Empire now proceeding at so rapid a pace should synchronize with the municipal reconstitution of the metropolis of the empire and the formation of a real University of London. There seems to be, as there ought to be, a close if subtle connection between the imperial constitution, the imperial capital, and what one may hope will prove to be the imperial university. These are considerations which add to the interest of the article in the April *Quarterly Review* on the statutes and regulations made by the commissioners appointed under the University of London Act, 1900. The scheme is described as quite unique in the history of universities.

A TRI-PARTITE SENATE.

The senate is the supreme and governing executive. Besides the chancellor and chairman of convocation, and four members appointed by the Queen in Council, "the senate may be said to be composed approximately as to one-third of repre-

sentatives of institutions and corporations, as to one-third of representatives of the teachers, and as to one-third of representatives of the graduates." The first third mentioned is intended to include two members each from University and King's Colleges, two members each from the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons, four members from the four Inns of Court, and two from the Incorporated Law Society, three from the City and County Councils, one from the City and Guilds Institute.

THREE STANDING COMMITTEES.

There are three standing committees of the senate: the academic council, mainly composed of representatives of the teachers, and empowered to advise on all that pertains to the internal side; the council for external students, chiefly appointed by the graduates, to advise as to the external side (or side concerned with students examined as at present by the university, but not in attendance on its schools); and the board to promote the extension of university teaching.

EIGHT FACULTIES.

External to the senate, two classes of bodies are created:

"The leading teachers are arranged in faculties, which, in the language used in the commissioners' report, is understood as meaning a body of persons charged with the teaching of a group of subjects in the university. The faculties thus constituted are eight in number: theology, arts, laws, music, medicine, science, engineering, and economics and political science (including commerce and industry). But apart from the faculties, which deal generally with the groups of subjects in which the several degrees may be taken, boards are to be appointed to attend to the claims of each separate branch of study. These boards are to be composed of teachers and examiners."

TWENTY-FOUR SCHOOLS ADMITTED.

The senate will obtain reports on its associated schools; it may aid them with money grants; it may select from their teachers persons to teach under its own direct control. But "it has no power of interference in any matter other than the courses of study there provided for internal students." In all other matters these schools retain their autonomy:

"Twenty-four institutions are thus admitted. They are University and King's Colleges, London, in all the faculties in which they respectively afford instruction: five Nonconformist colleges in the neighborhood of London, together with a Church of England college at Highbury, in the faculty of theology; the Royal Holloway College and Bedford College for Women, in the faculties of arts and science; the Royal College of Science, London, in the faculty of science, and in agriculture only, the college for that subject at Wye; the ten Metropolitan Medical Schools (other than those connected with University and King's Colleges), in the faculty of medicine; the Central Technical College at South Kensington, in the faculty of engineering; and the London School of Economics and Political Science, in the faculty so named. To these the senate may hereafter add such other institutions as may be deemed properly qualified."

FIVE HUNDRED TEACHERS.

Teachers belonging to other institutions, notably the polytechnics, may also be recognized, and matriculated students pursuing an approved course of study under them will be able to enter for internal degrees.

The commissioners have recognized, as teachers of the university, upward of 500 persons on the teaching staffs of various institutions within the appointed radius of 30 miles from the central office.

The "external" work of examining all comers will still go on; but it is expected that "with the increase of provincial and colonial universities the external students may tend to disappear."

The reviewer regrets that the Inns of Court have declined to enter the new university.

THE CRUCIFIXION AND EVOLUTION.

ONE of the most remarkable papers in the May magazines is the second part of Mr. Peyton's *Contemporary Review* paper on "The Crucifixion as an Evolutionary Force." It is an article full of suggestion, but it leaves upon the mind of the reader a somewhat confused impression. There is a certain mystical vagueness about his argument which, perhaps, was unavoidable; but it is a difficult paper to grasp, and still more difficult to summarize. Mr. Peyton's thesis is stated in the following sentence:

"The self-sacrifice of Christ, as transformed into a supersecular pressure, as a conditioning force of Western evolution, is literally unknown to historians, though indisputably it is a determining force of modern history."

In order to justify this contention, he passes in review the history of Christendom. He maintains that the real significance of the Reformation movement has been missed, and asserts that the key to the revolt against the Roman Church is to be found in the fact that "the men of the

both its arms. But these are only trifles compared with what the late Sir Isaac Coffin saw on the coast of Nova Scotia; for it is given, on his authority, that he once witnessed a terrible battle between two armies of lobsters, and that they fought with such fury that the shore was strewn with their claws."

They are not, however, cannibals, and evidently possess chivalrous instincts, for they never bite or strike below the head and claws. One of their dreadest enemies is the octopus.

HOW THEY ESCAPE.

"To evade them, the lobsters can, according to the grounds they are on, assume all the colors shading between a dark blue, through brown, to a whitish cream-color, mostly by a mottling process; and as in deep water the bottom is much spotted in some places with quantities of dead-white sea-shells and cream-colored corallines, the utility of these colors in this form, in the lobster, is apparent, as it puts them in harmony with the above conditions. Near the shore the umbrageous palm-like laminarian forests cover the dark rocky bottom; under this shade, at midday it is only twilight, and in the caverns and caves it has the darkness of night; here in the day their dark-blue color beautifully blends with their surroundings; and in the night we are certain they are safe from the eyes of their pursuers."

IRELAND: THE LAND OF GLORIOUS FAILURE.

THE Queen's visit to Dublin will open the hearts of many a reader to Lady Gregory's prose elegy in *Cornhill*, on "The Felons of Our Land." In Ireland, she says, a "felon" has come to mean one who has gone to death or to prison for the sake of a principle or a cause:

"In consequence, the prison rather lends a halo than leaves a taint. In a country that is not a reading country, 'Speeches from the Dock,' the last public words of political prisoners, is in its forty-eighth edition. The chief ornament of many a cottage is the warrant for the arrest of a son of the house framed and hung up as a sort of diploma of honor. I remember an election to a dispensary district, before which one candidate sent round certificates of his medical skill, the other merely a statement that several members of his family had been prosecuted by the Government. And it was the latter who won the appointment. I have known the hillsides blaze with bonfires when prisoners were released, not because they were believed to be innocent, but because they were believed to be guilty. It has been so all through the century.

"So they sang and still sing:

> 'A felon's cap's the noblest crown
> An Irish head can wear.'"

In closing, Lady Gregory contrasts the outward forms in which religion appears to the peasant of England and to the peasant of Ireland:

"To the English peasant the well-furnished village church, the pulpit cushion, the gilt-edged Bible, the cosy rectory, represent respectability, comfort, peace, a settled life. In Ireland the peasant has always before his eyes, on his own cottage-walls or in his white-washed chapel, the cross, the spear, the crown of thorns, that tell of what once seemed earthly failure; that tell that He to whom he kneels was led to a felon's death.

"In England the poet of to-day must, if he will gain a hearing, write of the visible and material things that appeal to a people who have made 'The Roast Beef of Old England' a fetish, and whose characteristic song is—

> "'We don't want to fight, but by Jingo if we do,
> We've got the ships, we've got the men, *we've got the money too.*'

In Ireland he is in touch with a people whose thoughts have long been dwelling on an idea: whose heroes have been the failures, the men 'who went out to battle and always fell'—who went out to a battle that was already lost; men who, whatever may have been their mistakes or faults, had an aim quite apart from personal greed or gain."

So Browning's canonization of failure lends a new meaning to the old name of "the Isle of Saints."

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY.

NEARLY a quarter of the June *Century* is taken up with a voluminous article by Nikola Tesla, on "The Problem of Increasing Human Energy," with many extraordinary photographs of the author's electrical experiments. He discusses first the three ways of increasing human energy—(1) by increasing the human mass through observance of the laws of hygiene, and by making the soil produce more food (Mr. Tesla claims to have discovered a means of indefinitely increasing its productiveness by means of nitrogen compounds, secured from the oxidization of atmospheric nitrogen with cheap mechanical power and simple electrical apparatus); (2) by reducing the force retarding the human mass—the greatest obstacle being ignorance (Mr. Tesla thinks that universal peace is the first step toward this—a consummation he is to obtain through an extraordinary invention of "automatons" which carry out of themselves a great variety of intelligent acts. These automatons are to do the fighting in the future; (3) finally, by harnessing the sun's energy. It is impossible to give, in a limited space, any real idea of Mr. Tesla's most extraordinary presentation. Almost the least of his prophecies is that we shall probably "soon have a self-acting heat-engine, capable of deriving moderate amounts of energy from the ambient medium. There is also a possibility, though a small one, that we may obtain electrical energy direct from the sun."

GOVERNOR ROOSEVELT AND THE REFORMERS.

Governor Roosevelt (whose championing by Mr. Steffens in another magazine we notice elsewhere) runs a tilt with the reformers who have been criticising him in a paper called "Latitude and Longitude Among Reformers"—in which, while acknowledging heartily the efforts of all brave and intelligent men to improve existing conditions, he is severe enough on "the men whose antics throw discredit upon the reforms they profess to advocate."

OUR CONSULS AGAIN.

Mr. Richard Whiteing writes entertainingly about "The Life of the Boulevard" in Paris; Harry A. Garfield, late president of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, has some scathing strictures on the disgraceful inefficiency of our consular system in its relations to the business man—one friend of his stating that, out of twenty consuls he had had to come into contact with, "fully one-half were unfit for the position, and some of them disreputable." The writer seems to think that since the "consular debauch" of 1893, when the consuls, good and bad, were turned out wholesale, a dozen really capable men out of the eleven hundred is not far from a fair estimate.

HARPER'S MONTHLY.

WE have selected, for special notice from the June *Harper's*, Gen. A. W. Greely's paper on the "War Balloon."

E. E. Easton has a second installment of his experiences "Inside the Boer Lines," carrying his story from the outbreak of actual hostilities to the middle of the battle of Dundee. For the first two months of the war, he says, he was the only foreign correspondent inside the Boer lines, and he gives some interesting details regarding the supplies carried by the wonderfully mobile forces of the Boers:

"While the horse was being shod, the affable Boer assisted me in selecting my commissariat supplies for the front. This is the itemized list of ten days' supplies for the field, similar to that taken by most of the burghers: Three pounds of game biltong; five small loaves of hard bread; five cans of corned beef—bearing an American label; a two-pound can of ground coffee; two pounds of hard chocolate; a small can of sugar; a few ounces each of salt and pepper. For my horse I secured three sheaves of oats as feed on the train. In the veld he would thrive on the grass. The biltong had the appearance of gnarled sticks cut from cliff cedars, and the old Boer explained that it was cured in the sun. After the deer has been dressed, the meat is hung up in the shade for a few days, until the outer surface is dried, and afterward is placed in the sun, where every particle of moisture is quickly extracted from it. It will then keep indefinitely, and experience has proven that it is most satisfying and nourishing when one is extremely hungry and exhausted by hard riding. The biltong, hard bread, and chocolate were placed in the saddle-bags. A veteran Boer would never think of taking any considerable ride in the veld without carrying thus a few pounds of these articles. The rest of my supplies were placed in a wheat-sack. In addition I had a Kafir blanket, a mackintosh, a big cup in which to boil coffee, and my photographic apparatus."

PHENOMENA OF SPIRITISM.

Dr. James Hervey Hyslop, of Columbia University, who has attracted a good deal of attention lately, particularly from the skeptics, by reason of his championing of Mrs. Piper (the medium whom, it will be remembered, Prof. William James cited as his "white crow," that proved all crows were not black; i. e., all mediums not humbugs), contributes a second paper on this subject, which he entitles "Life After Death." Dr. Hyslop declares that the Society for Psychical Research, ten years ago, excluded the hypothesis of fraud in the case of Mrs. Piper, so that the phenomena observed, many of which he cites, can be explained only through telepathy, or spiritism. He then proceeds to show why the former position is untenable.

"I must say to the reader, however, that I shall not remain by the spiritistic theory, if a better can be obtained to explain the phenomena. I advance it simply as a hypothesis that will explain, and not as one that is demonstrated, by the facts. It is all very well to say telepathy to explain coincidences, but at best that process is but a name for our ignorance of the real *modus operandi* in the production of the phenomena. It is, in fact, only a name for the necessity of a cause for a coincidence that cannot be explained by chance; and though we assume that it is some direct process between mind and mind, independent of the ordinary channels of sense, yet it has displayed no other powers in its experimental form than access to the active state of consciousness of the agent at the time, and exhibits no tendency to play *ad libitum* with the memories of living

LIPPINCOTT'S.

THE complete novel in the June issue of *Lippincott's* is a story of Manila, called "Ray's Daughter," by Gen. Charles King. It is a characteristic romance, dealing with the fortunes of a young American soldier, sent out to the Philippines, whose love-story comes to a happy ending amid the fierce fighting of a "memorable February day," when the Americanos ended by driving the Tagals out of the Guadaloupe woods by San Pedro. In fact, a punning double meaning of the word "engagement" brings about the great event of Stuyvesant's life, and makes him forget the wound he has just received as completely as the hat he has been looking for.

Stephen Crane seems to be adopting the rôle of "serious" historian. Besides his account of the Great Trek, noticed in another magazine, he has here a paper on "The Battle of Bunker Hill," which constitutes the fourth in a series on "Great Battles of the World."

Elizabeth Patterson, the famous Baltimore belle, is the subject of a little sketch by Virginia Tatnall Peacock, who describes the dramatic events of her life—from the time when Jerome Bonaparte saw her at the fall races, fell in love with her, and married her out of hand, to the days of her dignified old age, when she made a triumph of her difficult position by sheer force of character and ready wit.

THE PASSION PLAY OF SELZACH.

Christine Terhune Herrick tells of the little-known Passion Play of Selzach, hitherto overshadowed by the great Oberammergau performance. She says:

"Selzach is on the very border between Switzerland and Germany. . . . The inhabitants are chiefly farmers and mechanics; yet among these there are enough young people to support and conduct a thriving dramatic society, while the musical clubs are marked by unusual activity. The village is fortunate in possessing a public-spirited mayor and a schoolmaster of unusual musical ability; and it is due to them that the idea of the Passion Play, first conceived by a few citizens in 1890, was successfully put into execution, and it has been given now for five years."

"There are seventeen performances in the course of the summer, most of them taking place on Sunday. The play is so deeply devotional in its character, and is viewed with such reverence by the actors and other villagers, that it impresses the spectators as a solemn religious function rather than a dramatic representation."

"We had rather dreaded the scene of the 'Crucifixion.' In some respects the *Christ* had disappointed us, as any representation of the Saviour of men must fall short of the ideal of that Divine Personality which each one carries in his soul. The 'Crucifixion,' however, solemn though it was, was not harrowing, either in the first appearance, when the sufferer had just been hung on the cross, or in the second, when He was shown in death, the head drooped to one side, the whole form relaxed.

"'The Resurrection,' with the risen *Christ* issuing from the rock-hewn tomb, the Roman guards falling back in affright, a beautiful light falling upon the person of Jesus, was the real climax, and far more impressive than the scene of the Ascension, which followed, or the vision of the glorified Christ in Heaven surrounded by angels, with which the representation ended."

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

FROM the June *Atlantic*, we have selected for special notice President Cleveland's article on "The Independence of the Executive," and an account by Edwin Burritt Smith of the work done by "The Municipal Voter's League of Chicago."

COMMERCIAL EXPANSION.

Charles A. Conant writes of "Recent Economic Tendencies," showing how the events of the last few years have required a readjustment by economic thinkers of many preconceived points of view upon important subjects relating to industry and capital. The expansion of trade and widening of the field of competition opens a vast market to the most efficient producer—a market little affected by home legislation; the great accumulation of saved capital and the consequent decline in the rate of interest; the appearance of special nations whose preëminent functions seem to be those of lenders, bankers, and carriers,—these and many other causes are analyzed in their effect upon the individual and upon the state as a competitor in the struggle for commercial supremacy.

THE POET, THE GENTLEMAN, AND THE SCHOLAR.

Under the title of "The Poetry of a Machine Age," Gerald Stanley Lee starts with the definitions of a poet and a gentleman as both meaning "a man who loves his work," and traces the poet's place in "this dazed, tired, stumbling, broken, humbled old hero of a world." Maurice Thompson tells of himself as "An Archer on the Kankakee," and relates some truly surprising feats: as, for instance, his transfixing a heron in a side wind at forty-five yards; and Ephraim Emerton, instead of linking gentleman and poet, inquires into the meaning of that good old phrase, "gentleman and scholar," and its lesson for the men of to-day.

WHAT WILL TAKE THE PLACE OF GREEK?

William Cranston Lawton, in an article called "A Substitute for Greek," starts with the following fundamental theses:

"(1) Every study should contribute, in a large sense, to good citizenship. That is the true common bond, *commune vinculum*, which Cicero saw uniting all culture. (2) Every study should be preparatory, not loading the memory with accumulated facts, but strengthening the reasoning faculty, so that it may apply universal principles through a lifelong educational experience. (3) Therefore, though the subjects, the materials, may vary somewhat, the methods of instruction must be essentially the same, whether we graduate our students into the machine-shop, the counting-room, or the university."

He comes to the following conclusions regarding the discarding of Greek for the history of civilization:

"Latin should remain as the chief alien-language study in high schools and other secondary institutions. On its purely linguistic side it should be frankly affiliated with the vital study of English. At the same time, German should at least be used enough so that it shall not be lost. But there should appear prominently, in all our curricula, a study whose text-books are not yet written; whose competent special teachers we have hardly begun to train—the true history of civilization. . . . A day may come when no schoolboy shall know the five Homeric variants for the infinitive *to be*, provided every boy and girl has a living realization that

the 'Iliad' created the consciousness of kin among Hellenes; that Helen is, from Homer's day to Tennyson's, in all civilized lands, the type of treacherous beauty, Penelope of wifely devotion, Achilles of short-lived valor, Odysseus of self-preserving craft."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

IN our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," we have quoted from Prof. James Murdoch's paper in the May *North American* on "Japan and Russia in the Far East."

THE EASTERN SITUATION.

Other papers in this number dealing with Oriental subjects are: "The Great Siberian Railway," by M. Mikhailoff, a Russian official interested in the work; "The Powers and the Partition of China," by the Rev. Gilbert Reid, D.D., president of the International Institute of China; and "The American Policy in China," by Sir Charles Dilke. Dr. Reid holds that through mutual jealousies of the different nations China may be held together, while Sir Charles Dilke predicts that the action of the United States, in conjunction with that of Great Britain, will be strong enough to check disintegration.

SHOULD ENGLAND STOP THE WAR?

M. Jean de Bloch endeavors to show that England has everything to gain and nothing to lose by stopping the war with the Boers at once, and submitting the dispute to arbitration; and he bases his arguments not merely on moral obligations, but on considerations of material and political well-being as well.

SCIENTIFIC AID TO UNCLE SAM.

The aim of Prof. Simon Newcomb's paper on "Science and the Government" is to show that our Government at Washington might profit much more than it does from the advice and assistance of scientific experts who are not in the Government service. A striking confirmation of Professor Newcomb's thesis is afforded by the valuable aid rendered to the Government by the National Academy of Sciences in the matter of organizing the survey of the Territories, and also in mapping out a policy of forestry administration.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Charles Sydney Clark writes on the future of the National Guard, while the Rt. Hon. Earl Brownlow describes the British volunteer system; Sir Henry M. Stanley contributes an article assigning an Asiatic origin to the Negro race; Mr. J. St. Clair Etheridge outlines the history of what is termed "Americanism" in the Roman Catholic circles of Europe; Mr. Montgomery Schuyler writes an appreciation of Mr. George Alfred Townsend's poetical works; and Mr. W. B. Yeats contributes a poem entitled "The Shadowy Waters."

THE FORUM.

ELSEWHERE in this number we have reviewed Dr. Henry O. Dwight's article in the May *Forum* entitled "Uncle Sam's Legacy of Slaves," and in our May number we quoted from the advance sheets of Mr. Louis Windmüller's "Plea for Trees and Parks in Cities."

THE CONSTITUTION AND THE FLAG.

The Hon. Charles Denby, of President McKinley's first Philippine Commission, discusses the question whether the Constitution in every case follows the flag. To sustain his contention in the negative of this proposition, Mr. Denby cites the procedure of our consular courts in foreign countries and, nearer home, the status of the "guano" islands over which we exercise sovereignty. Mr. Denby prefers to confine himself to the statement of facts, rather than to indulge in constitutional hair-splitting; but he makes out a strong case.

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1900.

Mr. Henry Litchfield West writes on the unfolding possibilities of the coming Presidential campaign. Mr. West scouts the idea that Mr. Bryan's candidacy is any longer to be viewed with indifference by the Republicans of the country. The reëlection of President McKinley, which a year ago was very generally conceded, is now a debatable question. As the more important factors threatening President McKinley's success, Mr. West names these three:

"The hostility created by the Administration's friendly attitude toward England.

"The fact that the enactment of the gold-standard law removes the fear of the free coinage of silver.

"The widespread resentment against the injustice of a tariff between the United States and Porto Rico, with which is coupled the question whether our Constitution follows our flag to our new possessions."

OUR TRADE RIGHTS IN CHINA.

an article on "The United States and the Future of China," Mr. William W. Rockhill, formerly Assistant Secretary of State, explains what is meant by the "open door" in that country in distinction from the proposed granting of free trade in the Philippines.

"In China we asked simply that commercial rights already secured to us by treaties with a sovereign nation, within territory over which no other power claimed jurisdiction, should be respected. Should any portion, however, of the Chinese Empire be ceded in absolute sovereignty to any other power, then our rights under previous treaties with China within such ceded territory would lapse. Chinese sovereignty in such territory being extinct, that of the country acquiring it would be substituted in its stead, and our treaties with the new sovereign power would define our rights in its newly acquired territory."

THE PUBLIC-LAND QUESTION.

Mr. Samuel E. Moffett, writing on "The Remnant of Our National Estate," advocates the following radical changes in our methods of dealing with Government lands:

"1. The immediate and absolute repeal of all laws authorizing the permanent alienation of any portion of the remaining Government lands.

"2. The appointment of a commission to classify these lands according to the purposes for which they are best adapted.

"3. The substitution of leases for patents in all grants to individuals or corporations; the conditions of the lease to be regulated by the character and situation of the land.

"4. The opening of the entire public domain to actual settlers, with assured possession during compliance

with the terms of occupancy; all lands below a certain margin of cultivation to be free from rent until such time as the progress of settlement makes them substantially valuable."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Gavin P. Clark, M.P., reviews British policy towards the Boers from the Boer point of view; Mr. William P. P. Longfellow writes appreciatively of Ruskin; Mr. S. T. Willis describes the system of free lectures maintained in connection with the public-school system of New York City; President Henry Wade Rogers defends the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty; Mr. T. J. Nakagawa describes Japanese journalism; and Mr. Gustav Kobbé writes on "Some Recent Plays and Players."

THE INTERNATIONAL MONTHLY.

THE first of the five essays which make up the contents of the *International Monthly* for May is a treatise on "Fine Art as Decoration," by Mr. Russell Sturgis. This writer has made an exhaustive study of the subject; and his remarks on the relative importance of decorative art work, and especially of mural painting, are instructive. It is interesting to note that the list of American artists who are decorators is a considerable one.

A PLEA FOR STATE-ENDOWED MEDICINE.

Dr. St. John Roosa, of New York City, makes an apparently conclusive showing of the need of state endowment for the advancement of medical science. State-supported medical colleges are by no means unknown in this country; but it is a singular fact that, in such a center of population as New York City, all laboratory investigations, which are demanded by the present conditions of medical science, can only be carried on by means of private endowments.

PHOTOGRAPHY IN ASTRONOMY.

Prof. Harold Jacoby, of Columbia University, summarizes the achievements of recent years in the field of astronomical photography. In the observation of total solar eclipses, such as that of May 28, 1900, photography has proved itself especially useful; in a word, observational astronomy has been revolutionized.

KENTUCKY'S POLITICAL MORALITY.

Senator Lindsay, of Kentucky, writing on social conditions in that bucolic commonwealth, declares that those conditions are in no sense abnormal:

"Political morality, bad as it may be, is not worse than in the States in which craft takes the place of force, and cold-blooded and brutal party management accomplishes ends more permanent in their evil consequences than those that follow the most intemperate appeals to passion, prejudice, or greed, though attended by fraud or sporadic acts of lawless violence."

ELECTRICITY AND NERVE-ACTION.

The subject of nerve-transmission, in its relation to electro-motive force, is discussed in an able paper by Prof. Oliver J. Lodge, of Liverpool, a physicist of high rank. Professor Lodge's paper is entitled "Modern Views of Matter," and presents theories that are likely to attract much notice among students of physiology and physics.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN *Gunton's* for May, President David Starr Jordan, of Leland Stanford, Jr., University, discusses the control of the tropics by the four methods of slavery, imperialism, democratic federation, and "permeation." It is needless to say that the two latter methods are the ones on which President Jordan looks with favor. Although, in his opinion, this country has made great blunders in its short experience in the tropics, he believes that a saner policy will prevail in the long run, and that the present Philippine Commission will do much to accomplish that end. His view of "permeation" is that the native people should develop their own institutions without interference from outside, but that the tropics should be permeated by missionaries, commerce, railways, manufactures, industrial corporations, and consular offices. As an example of control through permeation, President Jordan cites our peaceful conquest of Mexico. So rapidly is that country coming under American influences, that another century may see Mexico a genuine American republic in fact as well as in name; and that mainly because of her friendly relations with her sister republic of the United States.

In American expansion, the editor of *Gunton's* reads the doom of the protective-tariff system. The increasing demands of foreign interests arising from the expansion of our territory in tropical lands will gradually cause us to relax our interest in the building-up of domestic manufactures. Professor Gunton foresees the growth of a national patriotic sentiment in behalf of the maintenance of our prestige abroad. This, he thinks, will but invite free-trade propaganda, and the very ideal for which free traders so long struggled in vain seems now likely to be accomplished.

THE POOR PAY OF OUR HIGHER OFFICIALS.

Mr. Adelbert H. Steele contributes a sensible article, entitled "Shabby Salaries of Our Public Officials." He shows that the salaries paid by England, Germany, France, and Russia to their executives, cabinet officers, judges, and diplomatic representatives are in every instance very much greater than those now paid by the United States; in addition to which, all of these nations furnish official residences for the chief officer of the cabinet, and in every instance for their ambassadors and ministers. England, Austria, Germany, Mexico, Corea, and Japan own the official residences of their ambassadors or ministers at Washington. He further shows that the existing salaries of the Vice-President, members of the cabinet, and of our ambassadors and ministers are largely insufficient to pay the annual rents of their residences, and enable them to live in accordance with the reasonable demands and requirements of the society of the present day at their respective posts of duty, leaving them no compensation for the valuable services they render to their country. It is stated that one of our recent ambassadors to Russia could not obtain a suitable residence in St. Petersburg for his entire salary. Mr. Steele suggests that it would be a wise policy for each State to own and maintain the residences of its Senators at Washington.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Charles Burr Todd describes the excellent work of the City History Club of New York City, giving interesting accounts of several recent historical pilgrimages made by the club.

Some of the topics editorially treated in this number of *Gunton's* are Admiral Dewey's candidacy, "Why the Sherman Law Was Passed," "The Porto Rico Tariff Law," "The New Carnegie Corporation," and "American Training for Cuban Teachers."

THE COMING AGE.

THE opening article of the *Coming Age* for May is an account of "The Lyceum Platform," by Dr. James Hedley, the well-known lecturer. Portraits of many of the most eminent and successful lyceum lecturers of the past forty years accompany the text of Dr. Hedley's article.

THE REAL VALUE OF THE KINDERGARTEN.

Dr. Baker Smith writes on "The Citizen's Interest in the Kindergarten." Testing the kindergarten from the point of view of every-day citizenship, Dr. Baker finds that it helps each child to "see for itself, think for itself, and then to take the responsibility of acting in accordance with its own final vision of judgment." Furthermore, the kindergarten tends to develop intellectual and moral courage by helping a child to develop its own latent powers and possibilities in a way that will conduce to the best interests of both self and others later on.

WHAT MEN HAVE DONE AFTER FIFTY.

An interesting paper entitled "After Fifty Years," by Mrs. C. K. Reifsnider, gives many instances of men who have done their best work after having passed the so-called "dead-line" of fifty. Mrs. Reifsnider says:

"We have conclusive evidence that, if a man has lived an orderly life, his mental faculties are more vigorous after the age of fifty than before; that is, he can accomplish more in a given time on account of his mature judgment and acute perception—proofs of which we gather from every century in the history of man, beginning before the Christian era and down to the present day."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Under the title "The Wolf at the Door," Mr. Leigh H. Irvine advocates a system of Government colonies for such citizens as need employment.

Emma Griffith Lumm writes on "Music of the Speaking Voice;" Mr. Henry Wood of "The Economy of Evil in the Moral Order;" the Rev. T. E. Allen of "The City of God;" Mr. Charles Malloy of "The Poems of Emerson," and the Rev. R. E. Bisbee contributes a study of a Western city—Spokane.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly Review* for May contains no article of very striking interest, with the exception of Baron de Coubertin's paper on "The Possibility of a War Between France and England." We have dealt elsewhere with this, as also with Mr. Aflalo's paper on "International Exhibitions."

THE STATUS OF THE ACTOR.

Mr. H. B. Irving republishes a paper on "The Art and Status of the Actor," read by him in April at the Playgoers' Club. Mr. Irving enters very minutely into many questions dealing with the position of acting as an art, and the relationship of the public to actors in their private lives. He says:

"The public discussion of the mean level of morality in any profession, if pushed to inquisitorial lengths, is a highly undesirable and dangerous proceeding. I would only suggest a few considerations, which should be preliminary to any investigation of this kind in relation to the theater. In the first place, it is commonly believed by persons who have never entered a theater, or at least passed behind the curtain, that the tender emotions and sentiments portrayed by actors and actresses towards each other in the course of a play seldom stop short on the fall of the curtain. The words of Molé, the French actor, are sufficient answer to that. He writes: 'I am dissatisfied with myself this evening; I let myself go too much; I was not master of myself; I was the character itself, not the actor playing it.' The actors or actresses worthy of the name are not the slaves, but the masters, of the emotions they portray. As Voltaire pointed out, there is, or should be, no greater moral danger to the dramatic artist who portrays the passions of the human heart than to the painter or sculptor who paints or models from the nude."

Mr. Irving holds that the number of persons prejudiced against the theater is ever on the decrease, and he thinks the position of the actor in England is higher than in any other country.

STOCK COMPANIES AND INDUSTRIES IN ENGLAND.

Mr. J. B. Kershaw writes an article on "Joint-Stock Enterprise and Our Manufacturing Industries," in which he discusses the English "company laws" and their effect on the manufactures of the country. He thinks that the amendment bill now before Parliament should be itself amended by fixing the share qualifications of directors at some definite proportion of the total capital of the company, the rule being enforced that shares standing in the names of directors must be paid for by the holders. Another change which he recommends is that "the board of trade ought to receive an annual statement of the assets and liabilities of every registered company, and ought to be empowered to take legal action when fraudulent conduct upon the part of promoters or directors is suspected. Both of these objects could be most simply achieved by a clause making compulsory the registration of the president of the board of trade, *in his official capacity*, as the holder of one share in every company registered. This change in the law would give the board of trade a *locus standi* in cases of suspected fraud, and would relieve the private shareholder of a duty which he rarely accepts. The cause of this unreadiness of the private shareholder to prosecute under the existing law is due to the fact that he can gain nothing financially by the suit, even if successful; while, if he fail to prove the charge of fraud, he may have to fight a countercharge of libel or slander. As a preliminary to 'legal action' on the part of the board of trade, it might be advisable in many cases to make a local investigation of the company's affairs, and whenever fraud is suspected to call in the aid of professional accountants of good standing. in order to report upon the company's flotation and subsequent management. The mere fact that the board of trade possessed the power to order such an investigation would act as a great deterrent of fraud."

The method of electing auditors should also be reformed; since, under the present system, auditors are restricted in their independence by fear of not being reëlected, if they run counter to the wishes of the directors.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for May is an average number. We have dealt elsewhere with the Rev. W. W. Peyton's paper on "The Crucifixion as an Evolutionary Force," and with the paper on "The Habits and Mimicry of Crabs."

THE CELTIC MOVEMENT.

Perhaps the most interesting among the other articles is that entitled "Celtic," in which Fiona Macleod defines her interpretation of the Celtic nature, and protests against the exclusive attribution of certain spiritual qualities to Celts. She says:

"There is no racial road to beauty, nor to any excellence. Genius, which leads thither, beckons neither to tribe nor clan, neither to school nor movement, but only to one soul here and to another there; so that the Icelander hears and speaks in Saga, and the brown Malay hears and carves delicately in ivory; and the men in Europe, from the Serb and the Finn to the Basque and the Breton, hear, and each in his kind answers; and what the Englishman says in song and romance and the deep utterance of his complex life, his mountain-kindred say in *Mabinogi* or *sgéul*.

"Even in those characteristics which distinguish Celtic literature—intimate natural vision; a swift emotion that is sometimes a spiritual ecstasy, but sometimes is also a mere intoxication of the senses; a peculiar sensitiveness to the beauty of what is remote and solitary; a rapt pleasure in what is ancient, and in the contemplation of what holds an inevitable melancholy; a visionary passion for beauty, which is of the immortal things, beyond the temporal beauty of what is mutable and mortal—even in these characteristics it does not stand alone, and perhaps not preëminent. There is a beauty in the Homeric hymns that I do not find in the most beautiful of Celtic chants; none could cull from the gardens of the Gael what in the Greek anthology has been gathered out of time to be everlasting; not even the love and passion of the stories of the Celtic mythology surpass the love and passion of the stories of the Hellenic mythology. The romance that of old flowered among the Gaelic hills flowered also in English meads, by Danish shores, amid Teuton woods and plains."

THE BELGIANS AT WATERLOO.

Dr. Demetrius C. Boulger has a long and elaborate paper in which he overthrows the prevalent idea as to the cowardice displayed by the Belgian troops on the field of Waterloo. He combats the allegations of Alison and other English historians; but probably Thackeray did more to spread the belief as to Belgian cowardice than all the historians put together. The *Times* newspaper, Lord Castlereagh, and Wellington himself praised the conduct of the Netherlands troops, while "the Prussian General Pirch II., in a proclamation dated June 21, 1815, asserted that the Belgians had sustained their old brilliant reputation for courage, 'especially at the battle of La Belle Alliance, where they fought with such intrepidity that they astonished the Allied Armies.'"

BRITISH TRADE STATISTICS.

Mr. Michael Mulhall contributes one of his luminous statistical articles on the subject of British trade, which he obligingly summarizes for us in the following ten paragraphs:

"1. The weight of imported merchandise has multiplied five-fold in 40 years, averaging at present more than one ton yearly per inhabitant.

"2. More than half of our food supply is drawn from foreign countries, at an annual cost of £5 per inhabitant.

"3. The mean price of imported food is now only £12½ per ton, having fallen 20 per cent. in the last 20 years.

"4. Most of the imported food could be raised in England, but at much greater cost, to the detriment of the working classes.

"5. The consumption of fiber in our mills has doubled in 30 years, and exceeds the aggregate consumption in France and Germany.

"6. The importation of metals and minerals has grown eleven-fold in 30 years, and our export of hardware manufactures has doubled in value.

"7. Our consumption of manufactured goods imported from foreign countries has risen from 15s. per inhabitant in 1869 to 41s. in 1899.

"8. The value of textile goods exported is less than it was 30 years ago, but the volume has risen 70 per cent.

"9. The fall of prices has been a gain to Great Britain of at least £50,000,000 sterling per annum.

"10. The tendency of British trade points to a steady increase of food imports and of hardware exports."

WHY GERMANY IS INCREASING HER NAVY.

Dr. Theodor Barth, of the *Nation*, a leading Liberal member of the Reichstag, says that Germany is increasing her navy because England's policy in South Africa has "led to an uneasy feeling in Germany, that in the future they must be prepared for developments in the policy of England upon which it is impossible to reckon. If the wielders of power in England—so men say—can be so misled by false conceptions of the opposing forces of other states as to enter upon warlike enterprises of the most risky kind, is there not a danger that some day they may let themselves be dragged by their Jingoes into some affront to Germany which must result in war? Perhaps the English hold Germany to be so weak at sea that they can permit themselves to dare her further than she is really in a position to tolerate. This line of thought has had a powerful influence in popularizing the demand for a doubling of our fleet. The Transvaal war has roused among the widest circles of our population a sense of the absolute necessity of strengthening the German fleet. The strengthening of our navy is, above all things, to protect us against the outbreak of such a war. The more powerful we are on the sea, the less is the chance that even the least responsible elements of the English population might be inclined to an attack on Germany. Germans hope to be able to keep at peace with England all the better if they avoid the appearance of weakness."

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE Earl of Iddesleigh contributes, to the *Nineteenth Century* for May, "A Chat About Jane Austen's Novels." The limitation of Jane Austen's genius lay in the fact that she would have no dealing with any circumstances that were not of an exceptional nature; the field of action of her characters is so confined that it is impossible to ascertain how they would have borne themselves in any extraordinary situation. It was ordinary life which she alone de-

picted; but it was to her seeing that life, not partially, as we see it, but in all its actual vastness, that she owed her great success.

THE PRISONER OF CHILLON.

"The True Story of the Prisoner of Chillon" is recounted by the Baronne A. van Amstel; the prisoner, we are told, being by no means a hero of romance, but avaricious, a libertine, and ungrateful, though he was a firm friend of Geneva, the town of his adoption. Bonnivard, whose matrimonial adventures Madame van Amstel details at length, died in 1570, at the age of seventy-seven, "disgusted with humanity in general and the Genevese in particular."

SUBMARINE BOATS FOR THE BRITISH NAVY.

The question of providing submarine boats for Great Britain's navy is treated by Mr. Edmund Robertson. In his article he traces the growth of the idea of the submarine boat to the French experiment, and concludes with a strong appeal to the British Government to be up and doing to cope with the new menace to England's naval supremacy. He quotes M. Lockroy, that in the submarine boat France had a terrible weapon, just what she wanted. The reporter on the naval estimates for the present year, in discussing the continued war, says that the submarine vessels are now proved to be so valuable that adoption of them should be at once provided. According to the *New York Herald* (Paris edition), the French Government has arranged for the building of 100 submarine torpedo-boats, 50 for seagoing purposes, and 50 for coast defense. Mr. Robertson says that the United States Navy Department have resolved upon adding no fewer than 50 submarine vessels to the fleet; that each of these vessels will cost $175,000. In Great Britain the Admiralty have shown no signs of any inclination to move from the policy of preceding years, which has been founded upon hatred of these new vessels; but, in face of the orders given by the governments of France and the United States, it is questionable how far it is safe to preserve this attitude of apathy. The misfortunes which overwhelmed England's army have led many people to ask whether the navy would not prove equally lacking if put to the test.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The Rev. Dr. Jessopp has a gossipy paper entitled "The Elders of Arcady," in which he deals pleasantly with old men and old ways. The "Perseus and Andromeda" of Titian is treated by Mr. Claude Phillips. Mrs. Hugh Bell writes on "The Merits and Demerits of Thrift." Sir Wemyss Reid continues his review of "The Newspaper." The main change in public opinion as regards the war is, he says, a growing desire to disentangle the question of public policy in South Africa from that of the mines and mine-owners.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

MR. RICHARD BAGOT writes, in the *National Review* for May, on "Anglophobia at the Vatican" in a not very liberal article, which a zealous Catholic might entitle "Vaticanophobia in England." He says:

"It may be hoped that Englishmen in general will realize the fact that the political power of Rome is still a living force in the world; and that under the pretense of securing unity of faith, it yet can, and does, work ceaselessly, ever seeking to counteract and destroy that splendid heritage of liberty of conscience and intellect which it is the destiny of the Anglo-Saxon race to carry into the remotest parts of the earth. The unity of Christendom has ever been an attractive idea, though there is ample evidence to show that it never at any time existed, except possibly in the person of Christ, and it may be argued that should it be attained, Christianity would perish."

LADYSMITH AND AFTER.

"Ladysmith After the Siege" is the title of an article by Mr. H. Babington Smith. Speaking of the mysterious dam raised by the Boers on the Klip River, Mr. Babington Smith thinks that an attempt to flood Ladysmith could not have proved successful. Of the complete isolation of the town during the period of the siege, the following anecdote is a good illustration:

"During the siege there had been an almost entire absence of outside news. In the earlier days of Buller's advance, the movements of the relieving force were heliographed into the town and published in orders. When the day of reverses came, nothing was said, with the natural result that rumor created disasters far worse than anything that had actually happened. The strangest stories were repeated and believed, not only about the course of the war—for instance, that Russia was at war with Japan. I cannot give a better idea of the isolation of the garrison than by quoting a question asked me by a distinguished officer some weeks after the relief: 'What is this that I see so many allusions to in the papers; something about an absent-minded beggar?'"

There are some malicious people who will probably say that Ladysmith had at least one compensation for its sufferings.

GREAT BRITAIN'S IMPERIAL RALLY.

Mr. Talbot Baines, in an article on "Some Consequences of the Imperial Rally," pleads for the definite representation of the colonies on questions of foreign policy:

"There is no reason whatever to fear that on any matter in which imperial honor or imperial security was concerned, the influence of the recognized colonial representatives, when thus consulted, would be exercised in a manner calculated in the least to hamper the freedom and effectiveness of the imperial cabinet. Speaking broadly, the temper of British colonial communities has less of qualification and hesitation in its imperialism than that of the dwellers in these islands. But none the less may they fairly desire that before steps are taken in the development by the imperial government of any line of policy which might involve the whole empire in war, their way of looking at the questions in controversy, and at the manner in which they ought to be dealt with, should be clearly understood so far as that can be done through consultation with standing representatives chosen by them as most competent to speak on their behalf."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Arthur Galton publishes the first part of an article describing "Why I Entered and Why I Left the Roman Catholic Church." The article needs to be finished before the moral can be seen.

Mr. Moreton Frewen, writing on "Our Relations to Westward," gives his personal impression of American

opinion on the Boer War and the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. It is not the Irish, but the Germans in America, he says, who are England's foes. As to the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty, the popular objection to it may be stated in a few words: "Why should the United States, having constructed the canal, allow it to be used by the enemy of the United States in time of war?"

CORNHILL.

THE May number of *Cornhill* is happily diversified, if anything a trifle less anecdotal and more serious than *Cornhill* usually is, but full of excellent matter.

THE BRITISH VOLUNTEER MOVEMENT BORN IN NATAL.

Sir John Robinson, continuing his South African reminiscences, writes of settlers and soldiers, and claims the honor of originating the volunteer movement for Natal. He says:

"It was at this time, however, that the volunteer movement—destined in later years to bear such memorable fruit—had its birth in Natal. I believe that to that colony belongs the distinction of having led the way in the modern outgrowth of citizen soldiership. If not its actual originator, Governor Pine was the foster-parent of the organization, as he was of so many other wise and far-sighted projects. The Crimean war had just begun. The possibility of a call from a Russian privateer was suggested. Then, as now, martial enthusiasm in behalf of the empire spread from the mother-country to its offspring. I believe that the 'Royal Durban Rangers' was the first legally constituted mounted volunteer force established in the empire since the close of the Great War; at any rate, it was very nearly so. It had but a strength of some fifty or sixty men, but was officered by a captain, two lieutenants, and a cornet."

BRING UP THE PARENT IN THE WAY HE SHOULD GO!

Mr. Stephen Gwynn tries to protect "the modern parent" from the excesses of the new pedagogy. He finds the modern theorists hopelessly in error, because "both for the moral and the intellectual part they adopt a system of spoon-feeding. They do not trust nature, which, if you provide food, will generally provide the digestion. And the modern parent, so far as I can see, gulps down wholesale what one may call the mud-pie theory of education." He complains that the Kindergarten system confounds work with play, and does not enforce the lesson of personal effort. It makes things too easy.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. C. Parkinson's study of the great birds of the Southern Seas, and notably of the albatross, will command the attention of every one who has ever read the "Ancient Mariner."

The first place in the magazine is given to a poem by Mr. Walter Hogg, entitled "The Sirens." By a happy inspiration the poet inverts, as it were, the ancient fable. The siren-call which allures the modern youth is the call to daring deeds, world-travel, danger, known risk of death.

Mr. A. D. Godley recounts the difficulties of Mr. Bull in the style of "Dame Europa's School;" and any one desiring to know why other nations do not love England will find ample grounds suggested in this little article.

Mr. Sidney Lee commends to public sympathy and support Mr. Benson's experiment with the Shakespearean drama at the Lyceum Theater. He lays special stress on frequent change of play and character and on simple setting.

Hesketh Prichard describes with pathos the sufferings of soldiers' mothers, sisters, sweethearts, wives, especially bride-wives, under the heading of "The Home Army."

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

WE have noticed elsewhere the article on "The Lace Industry in Normandy," in the first April number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and it must be admitted that the rest of the *Revue* does not attain quite to the high standard of interest which generally characterizes it. Nevertheless, there are several articles of interest to foreigners as well as to Frenchmen.

KIPLING AND THE ENGLISH ARMY.

The clever lady who writes under the pen-name of "Th. Bentzon" has studied the English army as painted by that remarkable laureate of Jingoism, Mr. Rudyard Kipling. The study is wonderfully complete, and it would be hard to find any character in Kipling's works really illustrative of "Thomas Atkins" whom Madame Bentzon has omitted. In her pages we meet again with Mulvaney, Ortheris, and Learoyd, the Gentleman Ranker, the Man Who Was, Dinah Shadd, and all the other types in Kipling's marvelous gallery. She says that, like Mérimée, Kipling has the art of making a single word illuminate a whole train of ideas; and she notes, as not the least excellent side of him, that although he sometimes shocks English prudery, yet he never degenerates into sensualism. His Russophobe proclivities are duly noted; she generally brings out the essential brutality and wild Chauvinism of Kipling's views of life and politics; and finally, she compares him—not to his advantage—with Raffet, Charlet, and Béranger. A not very pleasant note of Pecksniffian satisfaction is struck at the end of the article, when Madame Bentzon thanks God that there is no occasion in France for such a poem as the famous one in which Kipling expresses what used to be the popular contempt for the private soldier:

"O it's Tommy this, an' Tommy that, an' Tommy go away:
But it's thank you, Mister Atkins, when the band begins to play."

She makes no allowance for the radically different conditions of a voluntary army such as England's, and a conscript army such as that of France.

THE SUGAR INDUSTRY.

M. R. G. Lévy contributes a remarkable and significant paper upon sugar and the sugar industry. As is well known, the industry on the Continent is protected by bounties, the effect of which is that, although the consumer in France, for instance, consumes French sugar, he has to pay for it far more than it is intrinsic-

ally worth. In view of this situation, M. Lévy looks forward to an international combination for dealing with the sugar question. He roundly declares that France will have to undergo crises which will be difficult and painful in proportion to the artificial means employed to maintain the present abnormal situation. Free trade, he declares, is the end toward which the human race is moving, and it is already established in the interior of every great country. International treaties of commerce are an approximation toward this solution, and so are customs-unions, which already exist between a certain number of nations. This distinguished French publicist, at any rate, is evidently in favor of the reduction, if not the complete abolition, of the system of sugar bounties.

FRANCE AT THE ANTIPODES.

Those who have studied the subject are aware that the history of French colonization is not one of entire failure. The article by M. Pinon in the second April number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on "France in the Antipodes" is a useful reminder that in New Caledonia, at any rate, the prospects of future success are considerable. M. Pinon begins by telling a romantic story of how nearly the Isle of Pines was annexed by a British corvette. A young Frenchman risked his life in running through the surf in a light boat, and to his great joy found that he was not too late, and that the English had not completed their negotiations with the native chief. M. Pinon tells a horrible story of the brutality of which the British commander is said to have been guilty on learning that he had been forestalled: he is said to have dropped the chief's little daughter, whom he was holding in his arms, and also to have thrown the chief himself overboard. M. Pinon enlarges at considerable length on the internal situation of New Caledonia, and its position in regard to the whole trade movement of the Pacific; and he concludes by uttering the old warning to his countrymen—that they conduct their colonization much as they conduct their politics, without any practical spirit, without a general plan, and without a sufficient knowledge of the problems to be solved. New Caledonia, with the nickel-mines and the coffee plantations, contains all the elements of considerable prosperity; and M. Pinon urges prudence and practical knowledge rather than heroic theories and vain boasting of conquest.

REVUE DE PARIS.

UNDOUBTEDLY the most interesting article in the first April number of the *Revue de Paris* is M. Bérard's exhaustive and impartial analysis of the causes which have led to the decline of British trade on the Continent. He quotes the February number of the London *Review of Reviews* and, it need hardly be said, innumerable blue-books; and the result of his inquiry may be summed up in a very few words: "Two moral sins are ruining industrial and commercial England—ignorance on the one hand, and snobbism on the other"; snobbism in this connection meaning the violent conservatism which delights in that splendid isolation which makes Joseph Chamberlain's country at once unknown and odious to the rest of humanity. M. Bérard gives innumerable examples of the kind of folly which has caused so much of England's trade to slip into the hands of Germany; his examples are mostly quoted from British consular reports. He also criticises the Limited Liability Act, which he points out makes the British limited company a very different thing from the French *Société de Commandite* or the German *Vereine*.

GERMAN AGRARIANS.

In the second April number, M. Milhaud discusses the German Agrarian movement, and its effect and influence on modern Germany, especially that side of the empire which is represented by the Emperor. During the last ten years the Agrarians have banded themselves together into a powerful party, and it is their object to defeat any political or other scheme which conflicts in any degree with what they consider the Agrarian interest. The Agrarian League can boast of members belonging to every class; for it welcomes as readily, at any rate in theory, the farm laborer as the great noble. According to this French writer, who has evidently made an exhaustive study of the question, one of the most powerful features of the German Agrarian movement is its intense anti-Semitism. As in France, so in Germany, the Nationalist hates and fears the Jew, who represents in his eyes international commerce and cosmopolitan finance. Accordingly, though the Agrarian League has theoretically nothing to do with those religious questions which play so important a part in German life, its membership is, in practice, only open to Christians; and one of the most popular of its members is a well-known anti-Semite member of the German Parliament—Von Sonnenberg.

THE MOON.

MM. Lœwy and Puiseux have collaborated in a delightful article concerning the moon, evidently inspired by the wonderful telescope which is one of the marvels of the Exhibition, and which is supposed to bring the luminary of the night within a yard of the earth! Lunar map-land dates from Galileo, and though an immense amount of thought and study has been devoted to the subject during the last two and a half centuries, yet it is a curious fact that the maps which were made by the astronomers of the eighteenth century did not differ very much from those which are now drawn by the most modern savants. At one time it was hoped that photography would quite transform the science of astronomy. The question of light has, however, hitherto formed an insuperable barrier, and a hundred attempts, spread over a whole year, have only provided two or three useful negatives; and those, of course, had to be greatly enlarged before any result could be obtained.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

IN the first April number of the *Nouvelle Revue*, M. Barrau discusses, in a very able manner, what may be called the paper famine problem. Probably very few people are aware that the extraordinary increase of papers and magazines has made the problem of the world's paper supply acute. Even in France—where, in comparison with this country or England, popular periodical literature may be said not to exist save in the form of halfpenny daily papers—the price of paper has nearly doubled during the last few years; and, according to M. Barrau, there can scarcely be a more paying trade than that of a paper manufacturer. In old days paper, as most people know, was made of every form of cotton and linen; but that is now no

longer the case. Every kind of vegetable product, even banana-peel, has been pressed into service, and a great deal of very good paper is also made of wood-pulp. As for linen, it is only now used in making a very superior and special quality. The European daily paper, according to M. Barrau, is nearly all made from Canadian and Swedish wood. French and English factories alone eat up between them over 2,000,000 of trees, of which the age in each case must have at least attained fifty years. In another half-century, if this state of things continues, the great European forests will have completely disappeared. In Canada, where the pine-tree is rapidly being replaced by inferior and more quickly-growing trees, there is already some talk of checking the export and of setting up paper manufactories. As for home-grown wood, the *Petit Journal* alone is said to use up 150 trees each day. Pliny tells us how in the Rome of Tiberius, paper—or, rather, the papyrus, which was the paper of that day—suddenly gave out. "Will this state of things ever come to pass in France?" asks M. Barrau; and he apparently considers that it is quite possible that it may do so; and if in France, how much more likely in England, where scarcely a day goes by without an announcement of some new paper or magazine?

FRENCH CANADA.

The place of honor in the number is given to M. Herbette's article entitled "Two Sides of the Water," which deals with the Franco-Canadian question. There is something strange in the thought that, while the population of France is diminishing daily, that of French Canada is increasing by leaps and bounds, and the province of Quebec is like a little corner of home France, self-governed by French-speaking folk. It is very curious that, while paying a high tribute to the fashion in which Canada is governed, the French critic cannot apparently believe that the essentially French provinces of Canada are prosperous because, and not in spite, of British rule. So impressed is M. Herbette by all he saw during a recent tour in the Dominion, that he would fain induce his countrymen and countrywomen to emigrate en masse to Canada.

BRITISH POLITICS THROUGH FRENCH SPECTACLES.

M. Hamelle, in his article "At Westminster," tries to describe in a few pages England's complicated system of parliamentary government, especially as seen at the present moment. Here, as indeed in all the more serious contributions to the *Nouvelle Revue*, the South African imbroglio looms large. Madame Adam devotes to the subject almost the whole of each of her two letters on "Foreign Politics," though she has something also to say in reference to the German Emperor's significant naval scheme, which is looked at with a certain sympathy abroad as being a menace to the British Empire.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE indefatigable Ouida returns yet again to the charge concerning England's iniquity in an article in the *Nuova Antologia*, April 16, entitled "English Imperialism." There are in the article both exaggeration and extreme bitterness; but there is a substratum of solid truth in every accusation that she brings forward, and the style is unvaryingly caustic and incisive. England's lack of good faith, she considers, is only equaled by her brutality. "The war," she declares, "is not finished, but the cause of the Boers is lost unless a miracle occurs on their behalf; and the declaration of Lord Salisbury, that England sought neither gold nor territory, has been transformed into a cunning resolve to seize both one and the other with both hands." She notes that some people anticipate a speedy change in British policy. "I," she says, "entertain no such hope; the miracle will not be seen in our day, or at least it will not be seen until the cold douche of some great disaster leads men back to sobriety and humility, and restores a clear vision to eyes blinded by intoxication." The worst symptom of all she considers to be the way in which the right of free speech has been cast aside, and men are not allowed to lift up their voices against the war without placing their lives in jeopardy.

In more sober language, but with convictions no less profound, Professor C. Lombroso continues the theme in his article, "The United States of America and Africa." He declares that from the first he has believed, and still believes, in the ultimate success of the Boer cause, which he predicts will ultimately bring about the formation of a United States of Africa on the model of the American States—a federation in which the Dutch race will enjoy the supremacy. He points out the many historical points of resemblance in the colonization of the two continents. English imperialism of the present day he regards as the worst enemy of liberty, and utterly unworthy of "the great and beloved England of Gladstone and Spencer."

The *Civiltà Cattolica* continues its learned controversial articles on the deciphering of the recently disinterred inscriptions in the Forum, and publishes a detailed account of the recently vouched-for cures at Lourdes—which, curiously enough, have all taken place, not during the bathing in the spring, but at the daily procession of the Blessed Sacrament through the inclosure.

The article that has the first place in *Rivista Politica e Letteraria* for April 15 is by the anonymous writer who discusses international affairs in it over the signature "X X X." The article in the present number has the title "The Confessions of the Signor Lebon and the International Situation." It is a severe arraignment of the colonial policy of France, and especially of M. Lebon's statement of that policy in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

In "Italy and the Next Antarctic Polar Expeditions," Professor Faustini voices the desire of the Italian Geographical Society in urging the government to fit out an Italian polar expedition. He pays high, and probably deserved, compliments to the Italian naval officers who at various times have been deputed to accompany foreign polar expeditions, and refers appreciatively to the courage and liberality of the Duke of the Abruzzi, as shown in the arctic explorations recently undertaken by the duke; but, besides these manifestations of interest in arctic and antarctic discoveries, Italy ought, through its government, Professor Faustini thinks, to organize an expedition that should be national. Professor Faustini's very interesting account of the equipment and scientific aims of the arctic expedition of the Duke of the Abruzzi, and the references in this account to Mr. Wellman's polar-sledge journey, were reviewed in our February number.

THE NEW BOOKS.

FICTION FOR SUMMER READING.

There is not the slightest sign of any let-up in the hundreds and hundreds of new works of fiction which the publishers give us each season. Indeed, the extraordinary sales, from two to five hundred thousand copies, reached by half a dozen recent novels have, as might be expected, stimulated both authors and publishers to fresh exertions.

RECENT WORK BY WOMEN NOVELISTS.

We noticed last month Miss Mary Johnston's very remarkable historical romance of Virginia, *To Have and to Hold* (whose sale of 200,000 copies in ten weeks is said to eclipse even the record of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*), and *The Voice of the People*, in which Miss Ellen Glasgow has given a picture of some social and political aspects of modern Virginia. For some reason there seems to have been quite a concentration of our women writers on this particular field. Miss Mary E. Wilkins has now forsaken her classic and inimitable New Englanders for the same alluring pastures. Her new book, *The Heart's Highway* (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is a romance of the colony of Virginia in the seventeenth century, and it opens with a dash, color, and romantic zest which prove the author's versatility. As might be expected, Miss Wilkins' tale is more subjective than the ordinary run of historical romances; but there is no lack of dramatic incident, the heroine leading on a patriotic band of planters who fire the tobacco crop and burn it up entirely, in order to elude the obnoxious Navigation Act.

In this flow of romance Miss Edith Wharton's story, *The Touchstone* (Scribners), is like a rock against the current. The author showed her force and literary finish in the book of stories issued last year under the title of *The Greater Inclination*. Like them, *The Touchstone* exhibits most subtle and finished workmanship and a strain of emotion which may fairly be called intense. It is the story of a man who published the love-letters once written him by a famous authoress (the latter having since died), in order to get enough money to marry on; and the results of this in his future relations with his wife, when the book is on every one's tongue, afford the author a chance for depicting very real, dramatic, and vital emotions.

Nor is there any truckling to human weakness or softness in Miss Mary Cholmondeley's *Red Pottage*, which is as clever as it is disagreeable. At the very opening the reader is plunged into an intrigue between Hugh and a married lady of whom he has grown tired. Her husband has for some time been aware of the *liaison* without betraying his knowledge. He languidly invites Hugh into his study during the entertainment with which the story opens and—adopting what is, for some reason, known as the "American" duel, which figures prominently in one of Marus Jokai's romances—demands that they shall draw lots, the one who loses being under oath to kill himself in five months. With this auspicious beginning the author proceeds with her dramatic and tragic story, depicting the life of fashionable English society with no little insight and epigrammatic wit. The novel has already proved very popular both in England and America, figuring repeatedly among the "best-selling books."

Blanche Willis Howard's (Baroness von Teuffel's) posthumous love-story, *The Garden of Eden* (Scribner's), evidently contains much of the author's own foreign experiences, the scenes being laid in America and Germany. It is a sad tale of a nature made to love, yet twice choosing an unfortunate object of affection.

Miss Julia Magruder, too, turns from these modern methods to lead the reader, in *A Manifest Destiny* (Harper's), through the more tranquil byways of an old-fashioned story. Bettina's manifest destiny consisted: first, in subduing Lord Hurdly, as she had conquered even her fellow-travelers on the steamer, at the point of her amazing beauty; next, in finding that the English aristocracy, whatever its virtues and ornamental fitness, does not always make good material for husbands; and, finally, when this rickety bridegroom of sixty-two is providentially removed to another world through the agency of his horse and a fox-hunt, Bettina comes to the happiness which wealth and position had failed to bring.

Mrs. Amelia E. Barr's latest story has the suggestive title, *Was It Right to Forgive?* (Stone). It contrasts the experiences of two married couples, a woman of strong character married to a weak man, and a frivolous lady whose husband is of too fine fiber not to be overwhelmed by the fondness for wine which proves her special temptation. In the introduction of this motive there is a suggestion, though of course no similarity, of Mrs. Gertrude Atherton's *Daughter of the Vine*. The latter has again forsaken her California scenes in *Senator North* (John Lane), and taken instead for a background the throbbing political life of Washington during the exciting times just preceding the war with Spain. There is an extraordinary scene in the novel, where North, who has had to vote for war against all his convictions, returns to his home sore and humiliated and wondering what this momentous departure from tradition may mean to the United States. To him appears the ghost of his political ideal, Alexander Hamilton; and in a long conversation, during which the shade of the great statesman exhibits a surprising knowledge of contemporary politics, they agree that the Americans "have gone mad with democracy," and may now "die of their own poison;" also that "the real, the great Republic," will never appear here till the Constitution is "torn down its middle" and a monarchy has prepared the people for the necessary sweeping changes.

The Queen's Twin, and Other Stories (Houghton), is a collection of characteristic stories by Sarah Orne Jewett, who has almost as proprietary a claim on the "country of the pointed firs" as Miss Wilkins has on the Massachusetts villagers. These eight tales show the repression, the narrow, restricted lives, and the quiet humor of the simple Maine country folk. Lower in the social scale and more restricted, but just as typical of New England, are the characters in *Kate Wetherill* (Century), which the author, Jennette Lee (Mrs. C
Stanley Lee, whose magazine stories have appe
the name of "Jennette Barbour Perry"),

Earth Comedy." "Kate" is born and brought up in a factory town, and, of course, marries a mill-hand. He happens to be much beneath her in mental and moral endowments, and Mrs. Lee's tale deals with the dreary disillusionment but final victory that comes to her. It is all too true a picture of social conditions often met with in the manufacturing villages. *The Sea-Farers* (Doubleday, Page & Co.), a first book by Mary Gray Morrison, is also a New England story, but far different from either of the foregoing. The scene is laid in a Massachusetts coast town, like Salem, during a period just before and after the Civil War. Miss Morrison has tried to depict the strangely different workings of the old Puritan spirit in subsequent generations; and the main figure of her novel is a descendant of a line of merchant princes, who has always found the bonds and conventions of his forebears intolerable.

Mormonism has caused so much talk lately, by reason of the expulsion of Mr. Roberts from Congress, that Mrs. A. G. Paddock's *The Fate of Madame La Tour* (Fords, Howard & Hulbert) has rather a timely interest, which has caused the publisher to issue a new edition of this presentation of Mormonism as it was fifty years ago.

The "musical novel" is apt to be in a class by itself; but Miss Elizabeth Godfrey's *The Harp of Life* (Holt), following her former story, *Poor Human Nature*, does not differ strikingly from other tales of unhappy marriages. The flirtatious soprano marries the first violin, and rebels when he wants her to give up her art. It takes a very discordant twanging of life's harp to bring her to a sounder state of mind, but everything ends in complete harmony and accord. In this latter particular, if in no other, it resembles *The Farringdons* (Appleton), the latest book by the author of *A Double Thread*, *Concerning Isabel Carnaby*, and so on. Miss Fowler's heroine, however, makes all her mistakes before marriage; genius and heiress though she is, she is completely deceived by a childish fortune-hunter in the likeness of a Greek god, and it takes a cruelly plain intercepted letter from the masquerader aforesaid to another woman to convince her of her folly.

BOOKS OF ARTIST AUTHORS.

Mr. Ernest Seton-Thompson adds this spring to the list of wild-animal friends whom he has introduced to the public Wahb, the silver-tip grizzly bear. *The Biography of a Grizzly* (Century) is, indeed, the most detailed study of a wild creature's life that Mr. Seton-Thompson has yet given us; and, as is always the case in this author's books, one soon gets a feeling of entire sympathy and understanding companionship with the poor lonely bear-cub, finding his world full of nothing but enemies. It makes little difference from this standpoint whether the scientific critics who look askance at the writer's "facts" are correct or not. Turner once demolished a skeptical critic, who declared she had never seen a sky in nature like the one he was painting, by asking if she did not wish she could: and similarly, if the wolves and bears and foxes and cotton-tails do not all act in the woods exactly as they do in Mr. Seton-Thompson's pages, so much the worse for them. For certainly it would be hard to find anything more delightful than his stories and drawings, and they have been potent factors in the new movement of studying animals instead of slaying them. The publishers of *The Biography of a Grizzly* and the author's wife (who designed its general make-up) are to be congratulated on producing the most artistic book we have seen in a long time.

Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith's part as an author is far more important in *The Other Fellow* (Houghton) than his artistic representation; for of the eight illustrations in the volume, two are by A. B. Frost, one by F. C. Yohn, and one from a photograph. But Mr. Smith is always satisfactory, whether lecturing, writing novels or stories, painting pictures or building bridges and lighthouses; and this heterogeneous collection of fiction, consisting of humorous, pathetic, and dramatic tales of all sorts of people in all sorts of places, needs no other connecting link to assure its effect than that of coming from the pen of the author.

Men With the Bark On (Harpers) is what Frederic Remington calls his latest book about the American soldier, whose ablest chronicler and painter he is. And it is a good and expressive title; for whether he is doing police duty among the Western Indians, or scouting, or in garrison, or charging up San Juan Hill, or chasing Aguinaldo in the Philippines, the United States soldier,



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MR. FREDERIC REMINGTON.

according to Mr. Remington, is a Man. He has his little faults like his cousin across seas, but nobody can read these tales without a new sense of pride in the rank and file of our army.

OTHER TALES OF THE FRONTIER.

The cowboy, lariat in hand, who figures on the cover of Alfred Henry Lewis's *Sandburrs* (Stokes) (so called because a sandburr is "a foolish, small vegetable, irritating, and grievously useless") is really rather misleading; for the larger number of the very short stories are of the Bowery and Mulberry Bend, told in the peculiar dialect of "Chucky d' Turk" and "Molly Matches." Some of the fifty, however, return to that delightful town of *Wolfville*, whose picturesque people and habits the present editor of the *Verdict* chronicled over the name of "Dan Quin" for a large circle of delighted

readers. This is much the same region as that in which Owen Wister's characters live and have their being, different as the two points of view are. Mr. Wister follows up his *Lin McLean* this season with a new collec-



MR. JACK LONDON.

tion of stories, most of which have already seen the light in *Harper's*, called, from the opening one, *The Jimmyjohn Boss* (Harpers).

The Son of the Wolf (Houghton), by Jack London (a new name among the "bookmakers"), deals with a frontier new to fiction—Alaska and the great icy Northwest. There are eight strenuous tales in the volume, and they give the reader vivid pictures of a strange, frozen world, where life is very different from any of its multitudinous phases in these temperate climes of ours. We shall probably hear from Mr. London again; and it may confidently be expected that he will give us something distinctly worth while. Indeed, *The Son of the Wolf* differentiates itself sharply from the run of current fiction.

In *The Sky Pilot* (Revell) Mr. "Ralph Connor" has written a companion story to his *Black Rock* of last year. The main figure is a young missionary whose work lies among the rough-and-ready miners and lumbermen of the Selkirk Foothills, "beyond the great prairies and in the shadow of the Canadian Rockies." How he first wins the respect and affection of all by his ball-playing, his courage, and his simple manliness, and finally dies in the discharge of his duty, makes a pathetic tale.

STORIES OF THE SEA.

There is hardly anybody who is writing better sea-yarns to-day than Morgan Robertson, and his latest book, *Where Angels Fear to Tread* (Century), contains some of his best work so far. The title-story is particularly good, detailing the experiences of a party of lake sailors carried off on a long ocean voyage, who finally mutiny at the abuse they receive. "Primordial" is the only tale which is much out of the author's usual style, and it is perhaps the most finished and distinguished thing he has yet published. Chronicling the life and growth of a boy cast away on an uninhabited island, it has a delicacy, romance, and quiet charm altogether remarkable in view of the forceful, strenuous, knockdown nature of Mr. Robertson's former work.

The only marked change in Clark Russell's *Rose Island* (Stone) from the many books which have appeared over his name since *The Wreck of the Grosvenor* is that the real story is told by Captain Foster, of the Australian clipper *Suez*, to beguile the time for his passengers. Beyond a striking plethora of quotation-marks, however, this awkward machinery entails no hardship on the reader, and the marvelous adventures of the fascinating Rose are elaborated with the author's well-known ingenuity and mastery of sea-staging.

Cyrus Townsend Brady's new historical novel, following his *For Love of Country* and *For the Freedom of the Sea*, is called *The Grip of Honor* (Scribners). Its culminating point is in the famous fight of the *Bon Homme Richard* and *Serapis*, wherein the author has taken some liberties with exact history "in the interests of the story." As might be expected, the heroic figure of John Paul Jones looms large throughout, though the hero of the love-story is a certain "Barry O'Neill," the captain's first lieutenant on the *Ranger*.

TWO METROPOLITAN MEN OF LETTERS.

Both of the stories in Dr. Weir Mitchell's *Autobiography of a Quack* (Century) appeared originally in the *Atlantic Monthly*, though the titular tale has now been rewritten. It is the frank confession of a rogue who writes the record of his life as a diversion while lying ill in a hospital. Dr. Mitchell is always at his best in depicting the subtleties of character, and the psychological interest is admirably developed. The shifts and adventures of this humbug, who is born with the conviction that the world owes him a living, form a remarkable chapter of experience; and there is much quiet humor in the narrative, particularly in the slight digs into the ribs of the homœopathist brethren which the author gives through the mouth of "Ezra Sandcraft."



MR. EGERTON CASTLE. (SEE PAGE 760.)

It is a little difficult to get at the deeper meaning of *The Action and the Word* (Harpers), Brander Matthews' latest novel. It evidently *has* a deeper meaning, for the full-fledged collection of "types" chorus many clever things that seem to imply some broad generalization to be drawn from the course of events. The story itself tells how a New York society woman becomes infatuated with the stage, receives a most flattering offer from a famous Hebrew theatrical manager, and, after driving her husband to desperation by telling him one night that she is going to tour the country and leave their child to take care of himself, refuses the offer aforesaid the next day.

A GROUP OF HISTORICAL ROMANCES.

Young April (Macmillan) Mr. Egerton Castle calls the successor to his *Pride of Jennico*; and it is an apt enough title, for it is compounded of youth, spring, romance, and adventure. Young "Edward Warrender," over-tutored and restrained, learns while on the Continent that his uncle, the Duke of Rochester, has died, leaving him the heir to the dukedom. He resolves, during the month that remains before he becomes of age, to see something of life; and with one sudden leap of gallantry he embarks on a series of adventures in which the author's dash, verve, and fencing craft have full scope.

Mr. Castle, in addition to this story of his own, launches another romance this season in collaboration with his wife, who shared the honors with him in *The Pride of Jennico*. *The Bath Comedy* (Stokes) carries one to the latter half of the eighteenth century, and that unrivaled Spa where Fashion held full sway. Mirth, frivolity, and gay flirtation are incarnated in the person of the twice-widowed Lady Kitty Bellairs. She counsels her more simple-minded friend, Lady Standish, to hold her husband's love by making him jealous, with the result that that nobleman's wandering fancies presently return so vehemently as to drive him into a very madness of passionate suspicion.



MR. CY WARMAN.

S. R. Crockett goes to Bor-Russia and Wendishland in the fifteenth century for his setting of *Joan of the Sword Hand* Dodd, Mead & Co.). "Joan, Duchess of Hohenstein," is an imperious maiden, who can use her sword as well as her tongue, and cut her way through the press of battle to rescue her surrounded prince. Needless to say, such a damsel finally marries, not the royal suitor picked out for her, but the man of her own choice.

Mr. Crockett seems to be content only with doubling the two books a year which the ordinary industrious romancer considers a fair stint. In addition to the above, he gives us a romance, just issued this week, of Scotland and the West Indies, called *The Isle of the Winds* (Doubleday & McClure Company). For this he is said to have drawn largely upon a private memoir, and upon hitherto unexploited records of the town of Aberdeen. From this material he has constructed one of his usual dashing romances, full of action and happenings, yet moving along from one climax to another quite convincingly. Nor does he depend on mere adventure; the characters of "Philip Stansfield" and his wife are drawn with much acuteness and mastery of the subtleties of human nature.



MR. FRANK H. SPEARMAN.



MR. JOHN A. HILL.

The Rhymer (Scribner's), by Allan McAulay, might best be called a biographical novel, for it is a daring attempt by a young Scotchman to weave a novel about the figure of Robert Burns. It must be confessed that the result makes the bard more plowman than poet. He is generally drunk in the tale, always quite unprincipled, and exhibits no trace of the fascinations which enabled him to have so many different names in his lyrics. Indeed, he serves rather as a foil for the honorable lawyer "Herries," who is in love with "Alison Graham," and thus comes into opposition with the "Rhymer."

Sophia (Longmans), by Stanley Weyman, is very different from the stories by which that author first made his reputation. Although it is laid in the middle of the last century, the most dangerous encounter in it is that in which "Tom" kisses the masquerading "Lady Betty,"—and presently finds his head ringing and cheek burning in consequence. She is a haughty and rather shrewish beauty,—this young lady,—and successfully contests throughout with the real heroine for

the center of the stage in the plots and counterplots that make up the tale.

W. H. Long's *Naval Yarns* (Francis P. Harper) hardly belongs among the fiction at all, except by virtue of its interest. It consists of tales of "sea fights and wrecks, pirates and privateers from 1616 to 1831, as told by men-of-war's men." Many of the narratives and sailors' letters are printed here for the first time; and though the collection is most miscellaneous, nearly all of the chapters are exceedingly vivid, and give a peculiarly good idea of the conditions afloat a hundred years ago. Somewhat similar in character is the little narrative of *The Mutiny on Board H. M. S. Bounty* in 1789 (M. F. Mansfield). Lieut. William Bligh is responsible for the narrative of the outbreak and "the subsequent voyage of a part of the crew in the ship's boat from Tofoa, one of the Friendly Islands, . . . to Timor, a Dutch settlement in the East Indies."

The French Revolution is inexhaustible as a background for the writers of historical fiction. The latest addition to the already formidable list of such books is by William Sage. *Robert Tournay* (Houghton), son of the intendant of the "Baron de Rochefort,"—and therefore a servant,—comes into conflict with the betrothed of his master's daughter, a marquis with the suggestive title of "de Lacheville." Forced to flee, he reaches Paris on July 12, 1789, and from this point to the end the tale is interwoven with the fall of the Bastile, and all of the subsequent saturnalia when France drank deep of the blood of her people. In good romantic fashion, just as the Reign of Terror ends, "Tournay," now a colonel in the Republican army, marries the fair "Edmé de Rochefort."

The Rebel (Harpers), by H. B. Marriott Watson, goes back to the restoration of King Charles, and is as gay and merry a tale as one should be that presumes to deal with the Merry Monarch. The main figure of Mr. Watson's romance is "Anthony, Earl of Cherwell," whose dare-devil recklessness is well illustrated by the fact that he dares to quarrel with James Stuart, Duke of York, and afterward King James II. The author builds his drama with due regard to the convention that requires the duels to be scattered in with a generous hand lest the action and the reader's interest flag.

Miss M. Imlay Taylor continues the historical peregrination which has given us from her pen stories of the past in Russia, England, and America, with a tale called *The Cardinal's Musketeer* (McClurg). The "Cardinal," of course, is Richelieu, and, naturally, any story dealing with him and Marie de Medicis has no lack of plots and movement. The reader follows the fortunes of "Péron," the musketeer, from his childhood as a foundling in the old clockmaker's shop to the moment when, as a marquis, he wins the proud "Renée," who had once been so far above him.

The author of *A Man of His Age* (Harpers), Hamilton Drummond, seems to be a newcomer among the romancers. His story is of the court of Catherine de' Medici and Henry of Navarre; and though much after the usual fashion, it is strong enough in places, and the grim and fierce figure of La Hake dominates the scenes where he appears in a masterly way.

Love and adventure hold the stage in E. S. Van Zile's *With Sword and Crucifix* (Harpers). The French count, "de Sancerre," who accompanies La Salle on his last voyage along the Mississippi, and finds captive among the sun-worshipers the beautiful Doña Julia, who had enslaved his heart in France, is the typical courtier of Versailles, gay, polished, insincere; but his love for the Spanish maiden brings out all the true metal and fine spirit that is rightfully his by birth.

RAILROAD ROMANCES.

The extension of literature into so many fields of actual life and work is particularly noticeable in the case of the books that draw inspiration from the railroad. Cy Warman and Herbert E. Hamblen were pioneers in this direction, bringing to their task the perfect and technical knowledge of the working engineer. John Alexander Hill, editor of the *American Machinist*, is a very similar example, and his *Stories of the Railroad* are very typical both in form and matter. Frank H. Spearman is, we believe, a new member of this company. His *The Nerve of Foley and Other Stories* (Harpers) tells of strikes, wrecks, and strange track happenings, with a full share of the characteristic dash and breathlessness that seem to belong to the subject. Closely allied to this group is Jasper Ewing Brady's *Tales of the Telegraph*, which details the many exciting experiences of a telegrapher from his apprenticeship in a Western "ham factory" (school of telegraphy!) to the time when he acts as military censor at Tampa during the Spanish-American war.

TALES OF COLLEGE LIFE.

The Undergraduate has been making a great many books about himself (and herself) during the last few years. We find on the lists of a single publisher no less than seven volumes of college fiction, most of which has appeared quite recently. Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, Vassar, Smith, and doubtless others have each had their chronicler. Most of the literature thus evoked has been in the shape of the short story; and while it seems particularly difficult for an author who has the college feeling and sympathy to get far enough away from his subject to gain a proper perspective, there is much clever work in these volumes, and they give one vivid glimpses of university life. Among several books of this sort just issued *Stanford Stories* (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is notable as presenting the first exploitation in this manner of any Western college. Its authors are Charles K. Field (a nephew of Eugene Field) and W. H. Irwin, and there is much unusual local color, since this Southern California institution has a very distinctive *milieu* of its own. *Boys and Men* (Scribners), by Richard Holbrook, is a novel of life at Yale, covering the four years there of the principal characters and presenting



MR. JEROME K. JEROME.

a rather tangled love-story. The ten tales in Josephine Dodge Daskam's *Smith College Stories* (Scribners) naturally present a good many features not discoverable in their masculine counterparts; but it must be confessed that when in the basket-ball game "Alison Greer," rusher and "a perfect tiger," charges down the freshmen's center, and when the frenzied freshies rub down the players with whisky while chanting triumphantly:

Here's to *Theodora Root*,
She's our *dandy* substitoot;
Drink her *down*, drink her *down*, drink her *down*,
down, *down*.

—at this juncture it would be difficult to discriminate between Smith and Yale or Harvard.

Jesse Lynch Williams can always be depended on to write an interesting story; and, as his *Princeton Stories* showed, he is particularly good when dealing with Nassau Hall. The *Adventures of a Freshman* tells of the "breaking in" of a Princeton greenhorn, fresh from a country academy of Illinois (Scribners).

NEW BOOKS BY ENGLISH AUTHORS.

Lying Prophets (Stokes) seems to have been written four or five years ago—before its author, Mr. Eden Phillpotts, had become the "publisher's prize" he has been since the appearance of his *Children of the Mist*. It is the very old story of the artist believing only in reality, who paints the simple Cornish fisher-girl secretly, for fear of the stern and relentless Luke Gospeler who is her father. Joan's lover and betrothed has just sailed on a long cruise. It is hardly necessary to hint at the rest of the story, the only peculiarity of which is in presenting the artist as forceful, yet so weakly contemptible.

In an apparent attempt to evoke the past, Mr. Jerome K. Jerome (whose *Three Men in a Boat* made his reputation as a humorist) calls his new volume *Three Men on Wheels* (Dodd, Mead & Co.). In this the same characters who furnished the amusement by their nautical experiences take a bicycle tour through Germany, and Mr. Jerome's admirers will find much that is characteristic in this chronicle of their *bummel* ("a journey, long or short, without an end; the only thing regulating it being the necessity of getting back within a given time to the starting-point").

Anthony Hope's little story of *Captain Dieppe* (Doubleday, McClure & Co.) is laid in one of his usual imaginary Continental kingdoms. The adventurous captain, through stopping for shelter at the Castle of Fieramondi, becomes presently involved in a most ingeniously complicated situation, requiring all the bravery, courage, and gallantry at his command.

There is a particular appropriateness in the opening story of Dr. Conan Doyle's *The Green Flag and Other Stories* (McClure, Phillips); for, though this particular flag waved before the eyes of the Egyptian dervishes instead of the Boers, it was backed up by the same irresistible Celtic fighting blood which has been calling forth from the South African war correspondents a chorus of adjectived laudation.

The Princess Sophia (Harpers), whose vagaries Mr. E. F. Benson chronicles, is the ruler of "the independent principality of Rhodopé," which lies "on the wooded coast-line of Albania, . . . bounded on the south by the kingdom of Greece." The principal occupation of the "Princess," like that of her subjects, is gambling; and when she has staked and lost "Rhodopé" itself in playing with the "Black Domino," who turns out to be her son, she joyfully abdicates and goes to Monte Carlo "for ever and ever."

E. W. Hornung returns to Australia in *The Boss of Taroomba* (Scribners). While the boss in question is a young lady, well accustomed to taking care of herself as well as her station, the attack on the place by a band of thieves shakes her nerve, and, with "the feminine instinct to lay hold on something when trouble comes" (as one of our own humorists puts it), she decides to let Engelhardt, the little piano-tuner, take care of her in future and to give up Taroomba for Europe.

Tales of Space and Time (Doubleday & McClure Company) is a collection of Mr. H. G. Wells' remarkable peerings into the future (when the country is depopulated and the cities are even more appalling monstrosities than are dreamed of at this end of the nineteenth century), varied with several tales of the stone age.

SOME FAMOUS FOREIGN NOVELISTS.

In *Resurrection* (Dodd, Mead & Co.), Count Leo Tolstoi's much-discussed latest novel, the great Russian author returns to the form of fiction which made him famous, but which it was announced he had definitely abandoned. Indeed, he himself, in his deeply interesting *What is Art?* condemned everything he had done as false art, declaring that of all his own works only the simple religious tales written for the instruction of his *moujiks* possessed the universality which he considers the distinguishing characteristic of all true art. This apparent inconsistency is explained, however, by the fact that *Resurrection* was written to aid the sect of Russian Quakers, or "Doukhobors," as they are called, in their efforts to escape to a land of liberty; and all the proceeds from its sale in Russia, England, the Continent, and America will be devoted to this purpose. It is a powerful story of a man and woman who have sinned and repented, and who, each in a different way, finally reach the highest ideal of life in serving others. The vivid pictures of Russian society, of peasant life, of the ghastly prisons and the squalid existences that lead to the prison, of the crowded and filthy trainload of exiles being transported to Siberia—all these are marked by the terrible realism and large feeling of the master craftsman. It is as relentless, as overpowering by sheer truth of detail, as a Verestschagin battle scene.



MR. FRANK NORRIS.

The author of *Quo Vadis* has chosen for his *Knights of the Cross* (Little, Brown & Co.) those Middle-Age times when the religious but militant order of the "Krzyzacy" (somewhat analogous to the Knights of

St. John) were engaged in the conquest of pagan Lithuania. To the fact that these fierce Christians carved a path for the Cross with their swords is partly due the later ineradicable hate of the Polish nation for everything Teuton. The romance runs closely along the lines of *With Fire and Sword*, *Pan Michael*, *The Deluge*, and the whole group of the author's historical novels of Poland.

Witty Max O'Rell calls his first novel *Woman and Artist* (Harpers). It is an amusing tale of an English painter who, in order to surround his wife with greater luxury, tries to sell a patent to both the French and the Russian Governments. The result is a series of ludicrous diplomatic complications which in the end send the artist back to his wife well content to resume his love idyl.

Maurus Jókai's *Debts of Honor* (Doubleday & McClure Company) hinges on a so-called "American duel" (as noted under Miss Cholmondeley's *Red Pottage*), which threatens to repeat its tragedy in the second generation. The gypsy girl and the atheistic nobleman, the hypocritical "Sárvölgyi," the band of robbers and their mad attack on "Topándy's" castle—all this is characteristically Magyar, and has a fine reckless dash and adventurous interest. The same writer forsakes his beloved Hungary in *A Christian, But a Roman* (Doubleday & McClure Company), to paint a dramatic picture of Rome under Carinus.

RECENT STORIES OF AMERICAN WRITERS.

Judge Robert Grant, well known as essayist and instructor in the art of living, as well as writer of short stories, makes his début as a novelist with *Unleavened Bread* (Scribners). There does really seem to be a serious lack of leaven in the characters of Mr. Grant's story. "Selma White," "the smartest girl in Westfield," and as ambitious as possible even for a country-bred American, makes two unfortunate marriages before she meets James O. Lyons, widower and rising star in the political firmament. The latter, when word comes that he has been elected to the United States Senate, makes the townsfolk of Benham a spread-eagle speech, pledging himself "to remain a Democrat of the Democrats, and an American of the Americans." "Selma heard the words of his peroration with a sense of ecstasy. She felt that he was speaking for them both, and that he was expressing the yearning intention of her soul to attempt and perform great things. She stood gazing straight before her with her far-away, seraph look, as though she were penetrating the future, even into paradise."

Of other recent fiction Frank Norris writes in *A Man's Woman* (Doubleday & McClure Company) of a conflict between wifely love and the realization of a husband's place in the world, the whole hingeing upon the arctic exploration for which the hero is peculiarly fitted. Paul Laurence Dunbar collects in *The Strength of Gideon* (Dodd, Mead & Co.) twenty of his recent stories, ranging from the pathetic tale of slavery times, where "Ben" manages to buy "free papers" for "Viney," his wife, to stories of political intrigue in a modern Afro-American convention. By the *Marshes of Minas* (Silver, Burdett & Co.) contains a dozen of Charles G. D. Roberts' Acadian stories "in that picturesque period when Nova Scotia was passing from the French to the English *régime*." The author says in his preface: "The book is named from those wide sea meadows and that restless water around which chiefly clusters the romance of Acadian story." *The Seekers* (Stone) of whom Stanley Waterloo writes, though they live in Illinois, are apparently like the Athenians, seeking for some new thing, especially in religion. "Zadski" and his "House of Twelve Stones" seems to provide this novelty for a time, but when the "miraculous children" at the "Twelve Stone Settlement" bring down the White Caps and put a noose about "Zadski's" neck, the mysterious structure which he has so laboriously raised drops like a pack of cards. I. K. Friedman's *Poor People* (Houghton) are seekers, too, but seekers after bread, for the story deals with the lives and loves of the Chicago tenement dwellers; and though at the end of the novel one finds that "laughter has claimed its pages as well as sorrow, and the tear-stained cheek has often touched the mirthful jowl;" though "love is a resurrection plant imperishable by nature," which blossoms even in the squalor of the tenements, the grim and bitter struggle for a mere existence which permeates the volume leaves perhaps the strongest impression on the reader's mind. Henry Wilton Thomas's *The Last Lady of Mulberry* (Appleton) is concerned with poor people of a very different stamp: it deals with the Italian quarter of New York, where the vendetta is as sacred a duty as in its Sicilian home. The author seems to know intimately this strange foreign community engrafted on our greatest American city, and he gives one new insight into the lives of the organ-grinders, barbers, bootblacks, "hokey-pokey" men, and its other inhabitants.

Deacon Bradbury (Century), whose historian is Edwin Asa Dix, is as far from any of these as an American could well be. He is a typical New England farmer of indomitable will and stern conscience, who is precipitated by the act of his son into a spiritual conflict as fierce and powerful as might be expected from the granite character of the man. *Madrine Doucet* (Weymouth, Mass.: Weymouth Gazette) is a love story, laid in a Massachusetts seashore town, by Major Walter Leigh; *Kela Bai* (Doubleday & McClure Company), by Charles Johnston, of the Bengal Civil Service (retired), is a glimpse into the hidden village life of India, altogether fascinating in its distinction of style and its quiet convincingness; *The Surface of Things* (Small, Maynard & Co.), by Charles Waldstein, contains three stories originally published over the name of "Gordon Seymour," and here prefaced by an introduction giving the author's ideas regarding fiction in general; *Marcelle of the Quarter* (Stokes), by Clive Holland, of course deals with the *Quartier Latin*, with a love story woven among the pictures of Bohemian artistic life in Paris; *Pepys's Ghost* is by Edwin Emerson, Jr., and details the supposed wanderings of the sprightly memoirist "in Greater Gotham, His Adventures in the Spanish War, together with his Minor Exploits in the Field of Love and Fashion, with his thoughts thereon;" while Charles Battell Loomis comes to the fore once more with a volume of fun entitled *The Four-Masted Catboat* (Century), containing "A Few Idiotisms," sketches "At the Literary (Bargain) Counter," "Unrelated Stories—Related," and "Essays at Essays;" finally, there is a very clever and amusing volume by Robert W. Chambers, called *The Conspirators* (Harpers), in which he relates the adventures of an American attaché in the little Duchy of Luxembourg, with much satirizing of the methods of government in the German principalities.

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Cowper, William, Centenary of, Alice Law, Fort; A. Moorhouse, LQ, April; A. E. Spender, West.
Cow-Punchers, Colorado, on a "Round-up," G. L. Burton, O.
Crabs, Mimicry and Other Habits of, M. Dunn, Contem.
Cricket-ball, Throwing the, W. J. Ford, Bad.
Cricket Field, Heroes of the, A. Porritt, YM.
Cricket. Some Hints on Captaincy in, G. L. Jessop, NatR.
Criminality in Women, Frances A. Kellor, Arena.
Cripple Creek, F. Lynde, Scrib.
Criticism, Academic, H. N. Snyder, MRN.
Cromwell, Oliver—VII., Flight of the King, Second Civil War, Cromwell's Share in the Final Crisis, J. Morley, Cent.
Cromwell, Oliver—V., The Commonwealth and Protectorate, T. Roosevelt, Scrib.
Cromwell, Oliver, Unpublished Letters of, RRP, May 1.
Crucifixion, as an Evolutionary Force—II., W. W. Peyton Contem.
Cuban Census, NatGM.
Currency Act of 1900, F. W. Taussig, QJEcon.
Daudet and Mistral, F. Raoul-Aubry, Nou, April 1.
De Brosses, Charles, Letters of, A. L. Cotton, Gent.
Derby Winner, Rearing a, Str.
De Riquer, Alijandro, F. de A. y Pereira, IntS.
Dewey, Admiral, Presidential Candidacy of, Gunt.
Dial, The, 1880-1900, Dial, May 1.
Diplomats, Literary, L. Swift, BB.
Dramatic Action in Painting and Poetry, Florence P. Holden, Wern.
Dudleian Lecture for 1899, J. J. Fox, Cath.
Eclipse of the Sun, May 28, 1900, F. H. Bigelow, APS; Julia MacNair Wright, Lipp; S. Newcomb, McCl; W. H. Pickering, and H. C. Wilson, PopA.
Eclipse: Photographing the Corona, W. B. Featherstone, PopA.
Education:
Aid to Pupils, Judicious, W. G. Thayer, EdR.
American Education, B. A. Hinsdale, Dial, May 1.
Card System of Informational Teaching, V. Hillyer, Ed.
Child and His Book, Anna H. Wikel, Ed.
Curriculum: Is It Crowded? H. P. Amen, EdR.
Education and Contemporary Needs, E. D. Mead, EdR.
Education in the United States, N. M. Butler, EdR.
Elective Systen in High Schools, C. C. Ramsay, Ed.
Elective System, Limitations of the, J. H. Harris, EdR.
Examinations, Influence of, E. H. Nichols, EdR.
Geography, Apperception in, M. E. Kelton, NatGM.
Geometry in Secondary Schools, B. F. Brown, School.
Latin, Elementary, Suggestions for Teachers of, H. L. Wilbur, School.
Lectures, Free, in New York Schools, S. T. Willis, Forum.
Literary Study and Character Formation, E. L. Miller, School.
Mathematics, Routine Work in, H. L. Coar, School.
New Spirit of Education, A. Henry, Mun.
Normal Schools, Original Investigation in, F. E. Bolton, Ed.
Physical Exercises, Graded—II., Bertha L. Colburn, Wern.
Punishment of Pupils, Legal Aspects of, I. Browne, GBag.
School Reform, H. Münsterberg, Atlant.
Secondary Education, Higher Ideals in, F. Whitton, School.
Temperance Instruction, Scientific, H. Sabin, Ed.
University of American Life, A. D. Mayo, Ed.
Vacation School in Oakland, California, Eva V. Carlin, Over.
Electricity and the Human Body, A. de Neuville, RRP, April 15.
Electricity in Military Operations, J. P. Wisser, Eng.
Electric Oven, A. Dastre, RDM, May 1.
Elwin, Rev. Whitwell, QR, April.
Employment Offices, Public, E. L. Bogart, QJ Econ.
Encyclopædia Biblica, Cheyne-Black, Vol. I., AJT, April.
Engines, Horizontal British Steam, W. D. Wansbrough, CasM.
England: see Great Britain.
Engraving Methods, WPM.
Ethical Elements, Genesis of, E. A. Ross, AJS.
Evil, Violence Against, L. Tolstoi, RRP, May 1.
Expansion of the American People—XXIX.-XXXII., E. E. Sparks, Chaut.
Expansion the Doom of Protection, Gunt.
Explosives, Use of Liquid Air in, H. Maxim, AngA.
Fantin-Latour, Henri, F. Keppel, Cent.
Fiction and Philanthropy, Edin, April.
Fiction, Heroes and Heroines of, W. D. Howells, Wern,
Fiction, Modern—V., E. Ridley, AngA.
Fiction, Slum Movement in, Jane H. Findlater, NatR.
Fiction, Spanish, from Caballero to Pereda, J. Reinhard, SR, April.
Financial History of the United States, Chapter of the, C. N. Jordan, BankNY.
Fishes, Blind, Structure of, C. H. Eigenmann, APS.
Fishes, Psychology of, R. W. Shufeldt, ANat, April.
France:
Athletic Development in France, C. Whitney, O.
Education and Political Organization in France, 1894-1899. M. Fournier, RPP, April.
England and France, Possibility of a War Between, P. de Coubertin, Fort.
France in the Antipodes, R. Pinon, RDM, April 15.
Naval Defense of France, RPar, May 1.
Normandy, I. Prime-Stevenson, Chaut.
Savoy Alliance, Duchess of Burgundy and the, Count d'Haussonville, RDM, April 15.
Southwestern France, Visit in, Alice A. Catlin, Cath.
Franchises, Public, in New York, G. Myers, MunA, March.
Franconia, White Mountains, May in, B. Torrey, Atlant.
Frog-Lore, G. J. Varney, SelfC.
Gas Engines for Electric Stations, A. D. Adams, CasM.
Gas, Natural, in the United States, G. E. Walsh, CasM.
Geometry, Non-Euclidean, G. B. Halsted, PopA.
George Junior Republic, D. L. Pierson, WWM.
Germany:
Agrarian Movement in Germany, E. Milhaud, RPar, April 15.
England and Germany, T. Barth, Contem.
German Press and Foreign Politics, M. von Brandt, Deut.
Naval Question at the Beginning of the New Century, Deut.
Golfer, How to Become a Good, H. Vardon, O.
Golf in California, A. Inkersley, Over.
Gospel, Fourth, and Its Author, J. C. C. Newton, MRN.
Great Britain: see also Transvaal.
America, British Interests in, M. Frewen, NatR.
Americans, Mr. Bryce's Manifesto to the, A. Hillier, Fort.
Annexation and After, Fort.
Army and Its Badges, W. Wood, PMM.
Army, Future of the, T. von Sosnosky, Fort.
Army, Organization of the, for War, C. E. D. Telfer-Smollett, USM.
Army Reform, Contem.
Asia, British Sphere in, C. E. D. Black, NineC.
Bureaucracy, Growing, Alice S. Green, NineC.
Churches and the War, J. G. Rogers, Contem.
Code, Victorian, Plea for a, J. E. R. Stephens, Gent.
Company Law, Reform of, QR, April.
Consequences of the Imperial Rally, T. Baines, NatR.
Consular Service, NatR.
Corps of Royal Engineers, B. F. Robinson, Cass.
Drill and Tactics, Antiquated, E. N. Newdegate, Fort.
Educational Department, Code of the, E. F. M. MacCarthy, Contem.
Empire, British: What Holds It Together, W. H. Fitchett, RRM, March.
Federation, Imperial, and Colonial Ties, J. Macdonell, NineC.
France Possibility of a War Between England and, P. de Coubertin, Fort.
Frontiers of the Empire, W. J. Gordon, LeisH.
German and French Public Opinion of England, J. Rodenberg, and F. Brunetière, QR, April.
Germany, England and, T. Barth, Contem.
Imperialism, English, "Ouida," NA, April 16.
Imperialism, The True, W. T. Stead, RRL.
Imports and Exports of Forty Years, M. G. Mulhall, Contem.
Intelligence Department, F. S. Russell, Black.
Japan, Great Britain's Debt to, NatR.
Liberal Party and Imperial Federation, J. A. M. Macdonald, Contem.
Liberal Party: "For Honor! For Fatherland!" West.
Military Training, Local, H. Birchenough, NineC.
Naval Engineers, Dearth of, C. E. Lart, NineC.
Navy, Submarine Boats and the, E. Robertson, NineC.
Poor-Law, Church and the, J. F. Cornish, Mac.
Soldiers, British: Where They Learn to Shoot, E. A. B. Hodgetts, Str.
South African Reconstruction, E. Dicey, Fort.
Vatican, Anglophobia at the, R. Bagot, NatR.
Volunteers and Insecurity, J. G. B. Stopford, NineC.
Volunteer System British, E. Brownlow, NAR.
Greece: Literary and Political Phases of Pan-Hellenic Festivals, Leonora B. Ellis, SelfC.
Greek Literature, Religion in, Edin, April.
Gutenberg Anniversary, T. L. DeVinne, Out.
Hamlet, Argument for, Mary E. Cardwill, GBag.
Hampton Court Palace, H. W. Brewer, PMM.
Hampton Roads Conference, A. S. Colyar, SelfC.
Harper's Magazine, Fifty Years of, H. M. Alden, Harp.
Hauptmann, Gerhart, Plays of, QR, April.
Hawaii, Servant Question in, E. S. Goodhue AngA.

Hebrew People, Ancient, Life and Literature of the, L. Abbott, Out.
Heine, Heinrich, W. A. R. Kerr, Can.
Hindu of Southern India, N. E. Yelser, MisR.
Holy-Week Festivities in Mexico, G. C. Terry, WWM.
Honolulu, Bubonic Plague in, R. D. Silliman, AMRR.
Horse, American, Genesis of the, J. G. Speed, Ains.
Horse-Branding in New South Wales, A. Brunton, Cass.
Horses, Fine, Homes of, F. Morris, Mun.
Hospitals, Small, Founding of, G. W. Shinn, NEng.
Housing Problem in Great Cities, E. R. L. Gould, QJEcon.
Huneker's "Chopin and His Works," E. Swayne, Mus.
Hunting-Trip in the Rocky Mountains, F. C. Selous, Bad.
Ibsen, Henrik: A Literary Study, S. Schell, Weru.
India:
Famine, Greatest, of the Century, MisR.
German Route to India, G. Smith, Cham; G. H. Grosvenor, NatGM.
Maharaja's Water Festival, R. D. Mackenzie, Cent.
North-West Frontier Policy, QR, April.
Water of the Great Rivers of India, Value of the, Black.
Indians, Blackfeet, at Festival-Time, J. W. Schultz, WWM.
Indian, Representative, Jessie W. Cook, Out.
Indian Treaties, E. B. Osborn, Gent.
Infant Feeding, Hens' Eggs in, A. C. Cotton, San.
Infants, Vital Statistics of, H. Bryn, San.
"In His Steps," J. F. Bonnell, MRN.
Insect, Bubble-Blowing, E. S. Morse, APS.
International Exhibitions, Promise of, F. G. Aflalo, Fort.
International Law and the Peace Conference, J. H. Vickery, APS.
Ironmasters, Oldest Association of, B. H. Brough, CasM.
Irrigation, Cost and Conditions of, IA, April.
Irrigation Development, C. E. Richards, IA, April.
Irrigation of the Ancients, IA.
Italian Independence, Struggle for: 1815-1849, Edin, April
Italy: Emigration, Italian, C. Carocci, RasN, April.
Italy: Exports of Italy, N. Colajanni, NA, April 16.
"Japan in Transition," Japanese View of, A. Kinnosuké, Crit.
Japan, Journalism in, T. J. Nakagawa, Forum.
Jarvis, Charles H., T. C. Whitmer, Mus.
Jew in Modern Europe, J. B. Sanborn, Arena.
Jews, Dress of, in the Time of Jesus, A. K. Glover, Bib.
Johnson's (Samuel) Monument, E. E. Morris, Long.
Johnstown Flood, A Story of the, C. A. Richwood, WWM.
Justice, Mystery of, M. Maeterlinck, RPar, May 1.
Kentucky, Social Conditions in, W. Lindsay, IntM.
Kindergarten, Citizen's Interest in the, S. Baker, CAge.
Kindergarten, Public School, Ways and Means in the, Kind.
Kindergarten Union, International, Convention of, KindR.
Kindergartner and Her Mothers' Meetings—VII., Helen L. Dunckiee, KindR.
Kings of the Highways and High Seas, E. Saltus, Cos.
Klondike, All-American Route to the, E. Gillette, Cent.
Klondike: Seattle to Dawson, FrL.
Labor Questions in England and America, C. B. Going, Eng.
Labrador, Iron Ores of, A. P. Low, Eng.
Lasko and the Reformation in Poland, G. Bonet-Maury, AJT, April.
Lavroff, Pierre, C. Rappoport, RSoc, April.
Lawmaking, Our Process of, R. P. Reeder, Arena.
Lee, Robert Edward, Inner Life of, J. W. Jones, Chaut.
Leicester, Massachusetts, J. W. Chadwick, NEng.
Leslie, Alexander, and Prince Rupert, Edin, April.
Lewis, James Hamilton, E. D. Cowen, Ains.
Libraries, American, W. H. Brett, Dial, May 1.
Lichens, Fungus and Alga in, G. J. Pierce, ANat, April.
Lichfield Cathedral—II., C. Bodington, Sun.
Life, Experimental, C. H. Henderson, Atlant.
Literary Palate of the American People, Jessie C. Glasier, SelfC.
Literary Shrine—"Dove Cottage," W. Knight, Cent.
Literature, American, F. F. Browne, Dial, May 1.
Literature, Contemporary German, French Influence in, E. Seillière, RDM, April 15.
Literature: Grub Street of To-day, Bkman.
Literature, Modern French, E. P. Bazan, EM, April.
Literature, Sources of: Are They Exhausted? W. H. Hillyer, Arena.
Literature, Transatlantic, W. M. Payne, Dial, May 1.
Literature, Vital Study of, W. N. Guthrie, SR, April.
London Coffee-Houses, Old, A. W. Jarvis, NIM.
London, East, in the Middle Ages, H. F. Hills, Gent.
London, Jack, M. L. Osborne, NatM.; Ninetta Eames, Over.
London, University of, QR, April.
Luther, Martin, N. M. Steffens, PQ, April.
Lyceum Platform, J. Hedley, CAge.
Man, Artificial Growth of, Dr. Cabanès, RRP, April 15.
Manufacturers' Associations and Labor Unions, H. W. Hoyt, Eng.
Mark, Gospel of—II., E. D. Burton, Bib.
Marksmanship, Old and New, W. A. Baillie-Grohman, NineC.
Marriage, Civil and Religious, V. Sartini, RasN, April.
Martineau, James, P. T. Forsyth, LQ, April; M. D. Conway, OC.
Marxist Doctrines, Revision of, RSoc, April.
Master, Life of the—V., The Relations of Jesus with the Samaritans and the Pharisees, J. Watson, McCl.
Materialism and Agnosticism, J. A. Quarles, PQ, April.
Maternal Associations, Early History of, Mary L. Butler, Chaut.
Matter, Modern Views of, O. J. Lodge, IntM.
May of the Old Ballad, Anna H. Wikel, SelfC.
Mecca, Arabia, S. M. Zwemer, Record.
Medical Science, Endowment for, D. B. St. J. Roosa, IntM.
Methodist Educational Policy, J. H. Reynolds, MRN.
Military Morality, J. Chester, JMSI.
Military News and Criticism, J. Chester, JMSI.
Millennial Reign, L. Link, PQ, April.
Milman, Dean Henry Hart, Edin, April.
Milton (John) Manuscripts at Trinity, E. Gosse, Atlant.
Minister: Is He an Idler? J. Watson, LHJ.
Missions:
China, North, Situation in, J. Smith, MisH.
China, Outlook in, A. H. Smith, Record.
Corea, Latest Advance in, C. C. Vinton, MisR.
Ecumenical Mission Conference, J. M. Whiton, Out.
Hausaland, Western Sudan, Entrance of, J. T. Johnston, MisR.
Hymns, Missionary, Old and New, J. N. Ross, Hom.
Italy, Protestant Missions in, J. Gibson, MisR.
Medical Missions in North Ceylon, Mary and Margaret W Leitch, MisH.
Pima Indians, Work Among the, D. M. Wynkoop, Record.
Providence of God in Foreign Missions, A. T. Pierson, MisR.
South Africa, Church Work in, Sun.
Trophies of the Mission Field—III., J. D. Mullins, Sun.
Zinzendorf, the Father of Modern Missions, Belle M. Brain, MisR.
Models for Children, Making of, R. Machray, Cass.
Mohammedan Brotherhoods, Some, W. G. Pope, MisR.
Money, Token, of the Bank of England, M. Phillips, BankL.
Moon at Thirty-six Miles, A. Anderson, Pear.
Moon Hoax in the Middle of the Century, S. A. Mitchell, PopA.
Moon, The, M. Loewy and P. Puiseux, RPar, April 15.
Moose-Hunting in Northern Canada, A. P. Silver, WWM.
Morocco, Sport in, F. G. Aflalo, NIM.
Morris, William, and Dante Gabriel Rossetti, Edin, April.
Motor-Cars, Modern, D. Turner, Cham.
Municipalization, Moral Aspects of, R. F. Cutting, MunA, March.
Municipalize? Shall American Cities, J. G. Agar, MunA, March.
Municipal Ownership of Docks in New York, B. S. Coler, MunA, March.
Municipal Subway in Boston, B. L. Beal, MunA, March.
Municipal Telephones in Amsterdam, P. Falkenburg and J. H. van Zanten, MunA, March.
Municipal Tramways in Glasgow, M. R. Maltbie, MunA, March.
Music-History, Study of, E. Dickinson, Mus.
Muslim Jurisprudence, D. B. Macdonald, Hart.
Mussulman Festivals, R. A. de los Rios, EM, April.
Mysteries, Historic—V., A. Upward, Pear.
National Guard, Future of the, C. S. Clark, NAR.
Nations and the Decalogue, H. D. Sedgwick, Jr., Atlant.
Naturalism, Evolution of, Crit.
Negri, Ada, the Poetess, A. M. Von Blomberg, Bkman.
Negro and the Soil, D. A. Willey, Arena.
Negro Race, Origin of the, H. M. Stanley, NAR.
Negro Since the Civil War, N. S. Shaler, APS.
Neoplatonism and Christianity, W. R. Inge, AJT, April.
New Orleans, Battle of, January 8, 1815, C. Slack, USM.
Newspaper Ideal: a Symposium, YM.
Newspaper Reform, R. F. Bishop, MRN.
Newspapers and Journalists—II., A. Bonnard, BU.
Newspapers, Russian, Bkman.
New-Testament Books, Zahn's Vindication of the, G. H. Schodde, Hom.
New Testament Canon in the Syrian Church, J. A. Bewer—II., AJT, April.
New York, Rapid Transit in, W. B. Parsons, Scrib.
New York's Underground Railway, E. W. Mayo, Out.
New York, the Most Expensive City in the World, B. S. Coler, APS.
New Zealand; an Infernal Region, F. Dolman, NIM.
Nibelungenlied, Margaret Watson, Dub, April.
Nippur, Mesopotamia, Excavations at, T. Waters, Ains.
Nurses, Army, Cham.
Oberammergau, Passion Play at, O. von Schaching, DH, Heft 10.
Obituary Notices from Their Humorous Side, Cham.
"Oceanic," the Biggest Steamship Afloat, E. Mayo, McCl.
Oehlenschläger, Adam Gottlob, W. M. Payne, SR, April.
Officials, Public, Salaries of Our, A. H. Steele, Gunt.
Pacific, Western, Partition of the, Edin, April.
Panceltic Movement, C. Le Goffic, RDM, May 1.
Parent, Modern, S. Gwynn, Corn.
Paris, American Artists in, V. Thompson, Cos.

Paris: Comédie Française, 1680-1900, F. Bournand, RGen, April.
Paris Exposition:
Art at the Exposition, R. de la Sizeranne, RDM, May 1.
Exposition, One Way to See the, Elizabeth R. Pennell, Lipp.
International Congress of Religions, J. Réville, OC.
National Pavilions, Josephine Tozier, Over.
Paris Exposition, AJ; H. de Varigny, BU.
Picturesque Sides of the Exposition, E. C. Peixotto, Scrib.
Parisian Pastimes, R. Whiteing, Cent.
Patriotism, The Larger, H. Davies, SelfC.
Pauper Babies, Psychology of, P. Lombroso, NA, April 1.
Pearson, Cyril Arthur, W. T. Stead, RRL.
Pepys, Samuel, and His Wife, Marianne Dale, West.
Periodicals, American, H. L. Nelson, Dial, May 1.
Petőfi, Alexander—the Hungarian Byron, A. Hegedüs, Jr., Crit.
Petty's (William) Place in Economic Theory, C. H. Hull, QJEcon.
Phelps, Edward J., S. E. Baldwin, GBag.
Phelps, Edward J., as Seen in His Letters, Ellen B. Sherman, Crit.
Philippines:
Chinese Exclusion, S. W. Belford, Arena.
Diseases, Prevalent, S. Flexner and L. F. Barker, JMSI.
Filipino in Sport, E. Wildman, O.
Filipino Leaders, C. G. Calkins, Ains.
Iloilo, Panay, G. D. Rice, Over.
Jolo, Our Friend the Sultan of, C. B. Hagadorn, Cent.
Lawton's, General, Work in the Philippines, D. C. Worcester, McCl.
Pirates of the Philippines, R. R. Lala, FrL.
Rizal, José, the Filipino Martyr, W. P. Moffet, FrL.
Soldier's Wife in the Philippines, Eda B. Funston, Cos.
Sulu and the Sultan, O. K. Davis, Ains.
War Claims in the Philippines, W. F. Morris, GBag.
Photography:
Astronomical Photography, H. Jacoby, IntM.
"Chance" Photographs, H. A. Beasley, PhoT.
Composition, Pictorial, J. A. Gallagher, PhoT; H. J. Dobson, WPM.
Developers Compared, F. C. Lambert, APB.
Developers, Old and New, G. H. Bothamley, WPM.
Fortifications, Photographing, W. A. Miller, PhoT.
Käsebier, Gertrude, Work of, S. Hartmann, PhoT.
Lantern Slide Making for Beginners—VII., PhoT.
Mirrors in Photography, Use of, APB.
Negatives, Rapid Drying of, APB.
Negatives, Washing of, J. Gaedicke, APB.
Platinotype Toning, P. Adamson, WPM.
Portrait Photographs, How to take, WPM.
Portraiture, At-Home, E. Fellows, PhoT.
Stereoscopic Views, Dr. Holm, APB.
Tele-Photography, H. C. Fyfe, Pear.
Physical Science versus Matter and Form, J. C. Bredin, Dub, April.
Plague, Bubonic, in Honolulu, R. D. Silliman, AMRR.
Plague, Fighting the World's Epidemic of, AMRR.
Planets, Supposed Conjunction of, W. H. S. Monck, PopA.
Plant Life, Study of, T. Cooke-Trench, Long.
Plants, Poisonous, P. Heinrichs, DH, Heft 10.
Plays and Players, Some Recent, G. Kobbé, Forum.
Plevna, Siege of, S. Crane, Lipp.
Plover, Killdeer, and Her Treasures, H. W. Gleason, O.
Poets, Religious Element in the—V., W. B. Carpenter, Sun.
Poets, Spanish-American, EM, April.
Poor in their Homes, Relief of the, E. T. Devine, Char.
Porto Rico, First Governor of, H. Macfarland, AMRR.
Preaching from the Student's Standpoint, A. J. Lyman, Hom.
Presbyterian Symbols, and the Holy Spirit, W. W. Harsha, PQ, April.
Presidential Campaign, Approaching, H. L. West, Forum.
Priesthood, Concerning the, RasN, April.
Profit-Sharing: Is It Justifiable? L. Katscher, Cath.
Proportional Representation in Belgium, J. R. Commons, AMRR.
Prosperity, The New, R. S. Baker, McCl.
Proverbs, Book of, G. D. Sparks, SR, April.
Psychology and Christianity, J. Iverach, LQ, April.
Putney (England) in the Past, LeisH.
"Pygmalion," or the Opera Without Singers, J. Combarieu, RPar, May 1.
Quick, R. H., An Educational Reformer, W. L. Bevan, SR.
Railway Management, Some Problems of, Black.
Religion? What Is, H. Bassermann, Deut.
Revelation, Modes of, W. T. Hall, PQ, April.
"Richard Carvel"—II., Mary Bigot, BU.
Roads, Good, for Bad, T. Dreiser, Pear.
Roman Catholic Church: "Anglophobia at the Vatican," R. Bagot, NatR.
Roman Catholic Church, Why I Entered, and Why I Left the, A. Galton, NatR.
Roman Catholic Crisis in France, M. O. Guerlac, MisR.
Roman Catholicism in Rome, Miss M. E. Vickery, MisR.
Rome: American Villa at Castel Gandolfo, P. L. Connellan, Cath.
Rome, Noble Christian Families in, Under the Pagan Emperors, J. A. Campbell, Dub, April.
Rossetti, Dante Gabriel, William Morris and, Edin, April.
Rostand, Edmond, C. Moffett, NIM.
Ruskin, John, W. P. P. Longfellow, Forum: R. F. Horton, LQ, April.
Ruskin's Social Reforms, Annie R. Marble, Arena.
Russia, Growth of, E. A. Grosvenor, NatGM.
Russian Moujik, Life of the, W. Durban, Out.
St. Anselm of Canterbury, R. T. Kerlin, MRN.
Sacrifice in the Old Testament, H. Schultz, AJT, April.
Scandinavia, Some Modern History-Makers of, Winifred Wendell, SelfC.
Schwann, Theodor, J. J. Walsh, Cath.
Science and Government, S. Newcomb, NAR.
Science Study and National Character, A. B. Crowe, APS.
Scientific Thought, Progress of, G. F. Wright, Hom.
Scotland, New History of, Black.
Sea-Power as a Source of Light and Sound, H. Hamilton, Pear.
Sea, When the Novice Goes to, J. R. Spears, Cos.
Self-Government, Natural Right of, A. Steckel, Arena.
Servant, How to Treat and Keep a, Mrs. S. T. Rorer, LHJ.
Shaker Communities in New England, NEng.
Shakespearean Theater, Permanent, H. H. Fyfe, Fort.
Shakespeare's History, Studies in, J. L. Etty, Mac.
Shakespeare, William—V., The London Stage, H. W. Mable, Out.
Shelley, Carlyle and, W. Larmie, Contem.
Siberian Railway, M. Mikhailic, NAR.
Signets, Badges, and Medals, J. Carus, OC.
Slaves, Uncle Sam's Legacy of, H. O. Dwight, Forum.
Sociology, Scope of—III., A. W. Small, AJS.
Soldiers' Home, National, E. Stevens, NEng.
Sovereignty, Sociological View of—XII., J. R. Commons, AJS.
Speech, Visible, A. M. Bell, Cern.
Spiritual Crisis, Some Causes of the, D. S. Gregory, Hom.
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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

Ains.	Ainslee's Magazine, N. Y.
ACQR.	American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila.
AHR.	American Historical Review, N. Y.
AJS.	American Journal of Sociology, Chicago.
AJT.	American Journal of Theology, Chicago.
ALR.	American Law Review, St. Louis.
AMonM.	American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C.
AMRR.	American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y.
ANat.	American Naturalist, Boston.
AngA.	Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y.
AngS.	Anglo-Saxon Review, Y.
Annals.	Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila.
APB.	Anthony's Photographic Bulletin, N. Y.
APS.	Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y.
Arch.	Architectural Record, .
Arena.	Arena, N. Y.
AA.	Art Amateur, N. Y.
AE.	Art Education, N. Y.
AI.	Art Interchange, N. Y.
AJ.	Art Journal, London.
Art.	Artist, London.
Atlant.	Atlantic Monthly, Boston
Bad.	Badminton, London.
BankL.	Bankers' Magazine, Lond
BankNY	Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
Bib.	Biblical World, Chicago.
BSac.	Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberli
BU.	Bibliothèque Universelle, sanne.
Black.	Blackwood's Magazine, E burgh.
BTJ.	Board of Trade Journal, L don.
BB.	Book Buyer, N. Y.
Bkman.	Bookman, N. Y.
BP.	Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
Can.	Canadian Magazine, Toron
Cass.	Cassell's Magazine, London
CasM.	Cassier's Magazine, N. Y.
Cath.	Catholic World, N. Y.
Cent.	Century Magazine, N. Y.
Cham.	Chambers's Journal, Edi burgh.
Char.	Charities Review, N. Y.
Chaut.	Chautauquan, Cleveland, O.
CAge.	Coming Age, Boston.
Cons.	Conservative Review, Wash ington.
Contem.	Contemporary Review, Lon don.
Corn.	Cornhill, London.
Cos.	Cosmopolitan, N. Y.
Crit.	Critic, N. Y.
DH.	Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg.
Deut.	Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart.
Dial.	Dial, Chicago.
Dub.	Dublin Review, Dublin.
Edin.	Edinburgh Review, London.
Ed.	Education, Boston.
EdR.	Educational Review, N. Y.
Eng.	Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
EM.	España Moderna, Madrid.
Fort.	Fortnightly Review, London.
Forum.	Forum, N. Y.
FrL.	Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y.
Gent.	Gentleman's Magazine, London.
GBag.	Green Bag, Boston.
Gunt.	Gunton's Magazine, N. Y.
Harp.	Harper's Magazine, N. Y.
Hart.	Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn.
Home.	Home Magazine, N. Y.
Hom.	Homiletic Review, N. Y.
HumN.	Humanité Nouvelle, Paris.
Int.	International, Chicago.
IJE.	International Journal of Ethics, Phila.
IntM.	International Monthly, N. Y.
IntS.	International Studio, N. Y.
IA.	Irrigation Age, Chicago.
JMSI.	Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.
JPEcon.	Journal of Political Economy, Chicago.
Kind.	Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago.
KindR.	Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass.
LHJ.	Ladies' Home Journal, Phila.
LeisH.	Leisure Hour, London.
Lipp.	Lippincott's Magazine, Phila.
LQ.	London Quarterly Review, London.
Long.	Longman's Magazine, London.
Luth.	Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa.
McCl.	McClure's Magazine, N. Y.
Mac.	Macmillan's Magazine, London.
MA.	Magazine of Art, London.
MRN.	Methodist Review, Nashville.
MRNY.	Methodist Review, N. Y.
Mind.	Mind, N. Y.
MisH.	Missionary Herald, Boston.
MisR.	Missionary Review, N. Y.
Mon.	Monist, Chicago.
MunA.	Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
Mun.	Munsey's Magazine, N. Y.
Mus.	Music, Chicago.
NatGM.	National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
NatM.	National Magazine, Boston.
NatR.	National Review, London.
New.	New-Church Review, Boston.
Neng.	New England Magazine, Boston.
NIM.	New Illustrated Magazine, London.
NW.	New World, Boston.
NineC.	Nineteenth Century, London.
NAR.	North American Review, N. Y.
Nou.	Nouvelle Revue, Paris.
NA.	Nuova Antologia, Rome.
OC.	Open Court, Chicago.
O.	Outing, N. Y.
Out.	Outlook, N. Y.
Over.	Overland Monthly, San Francisco.
PMM.	Pall Mall Magazine, London.
Pear.	Pearson's Magazine, N. Y.
Phil.	Philosophical Review, N. Y.
PhoT.	Photographic Times, N. Y.
PL.	Poet-Lore, Boston.
PSQ.	Political Science Quarterly, Boston.
PopA.	Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn.
PRR.	Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila.
PQ.	Presbyterian Quarterly, Charlotte, N. C.
QJEcon.	Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
QR.	Quarterly Review, London.
RasN.	Rassegna Nazionale, Florence.
Record.	Record of Christian Work, East Northfield, Mass.
RefS.	Réforme Sociale, Paris.
RRL.	Review of Reviews, London.
RRM.	Review of Reviews, Melbourne.
RDM.	Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris.
RDP.	Revue du Droit Public, Paris.
RGen.	Revue Générale, Brussels.
RPar.	Revue de Paris, Paris.
RPP.	Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris.
RRP.	Revue des Revues, Paris.
RSoc.	Revue Socialiste, Paris.
RPL.	Rivista Politica e Letteraria, Rome.
Ros.	Rosary, Somerset, Ohio.
San.	Sanitarian, N. Y.
School.	School Review, Chicago.
Scrib.	Scribner's Magazine, N. Y.
SelfC.	Self Culture, Akron, Ohio.
SR.	Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn.
Str.	Strand Magazine, London.
Sun.	Sunday Magazine, London
Temp.	Temple Bar, London.
USM.	United Service Magazine, London.
West.	Westminster Review, London.
Wern.	Werner's Magazine, N. Y.
WWM.	Wide World Magazine, London.
WPM.	Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y.
Yale.	Yale Review, New Haven.
YM.	Young Man, London.
YW.	Young Woman, London.

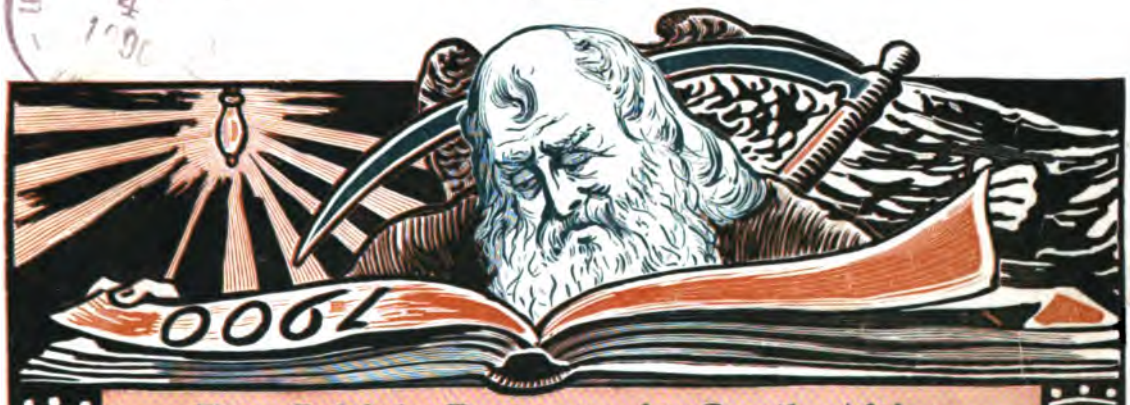
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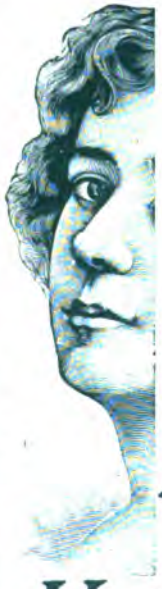


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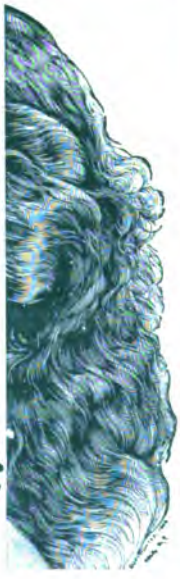
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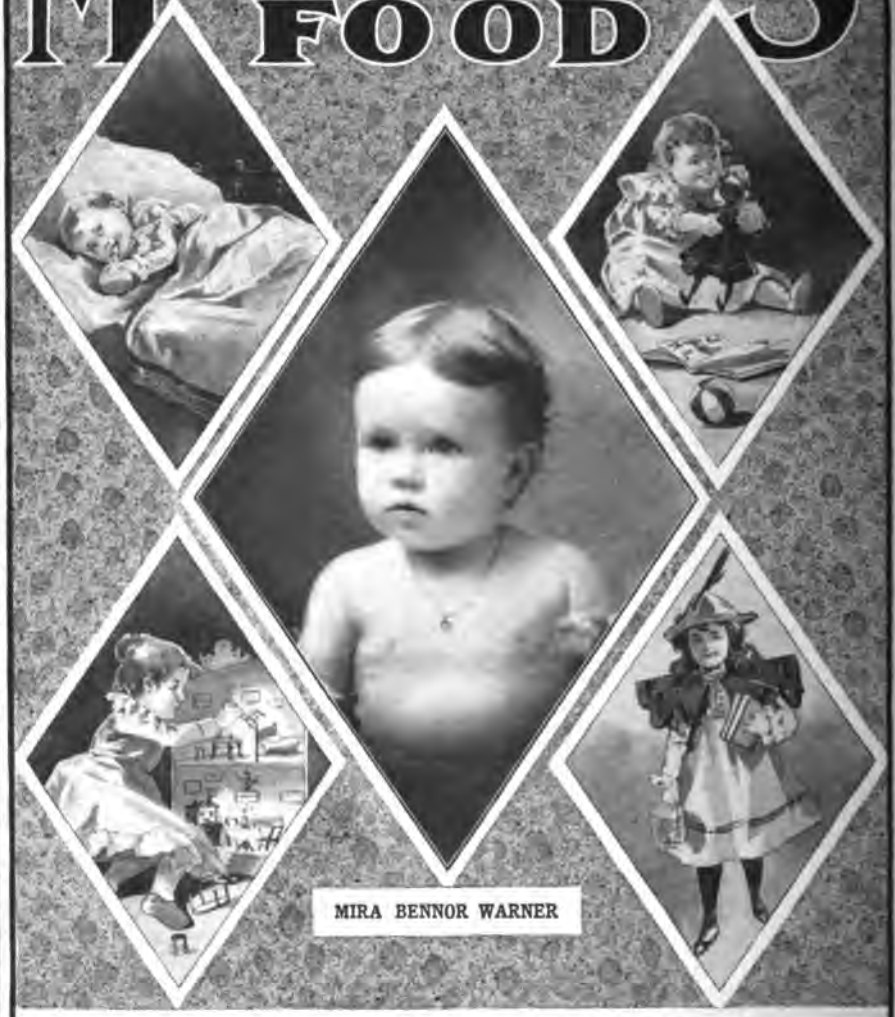
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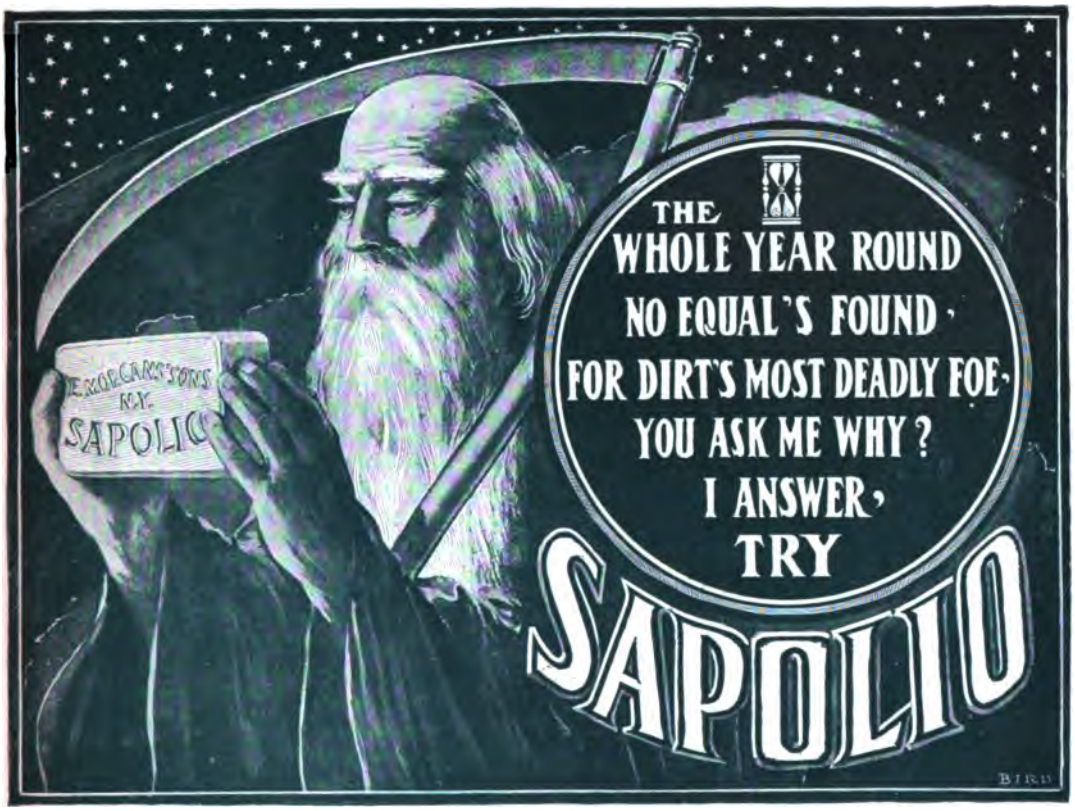
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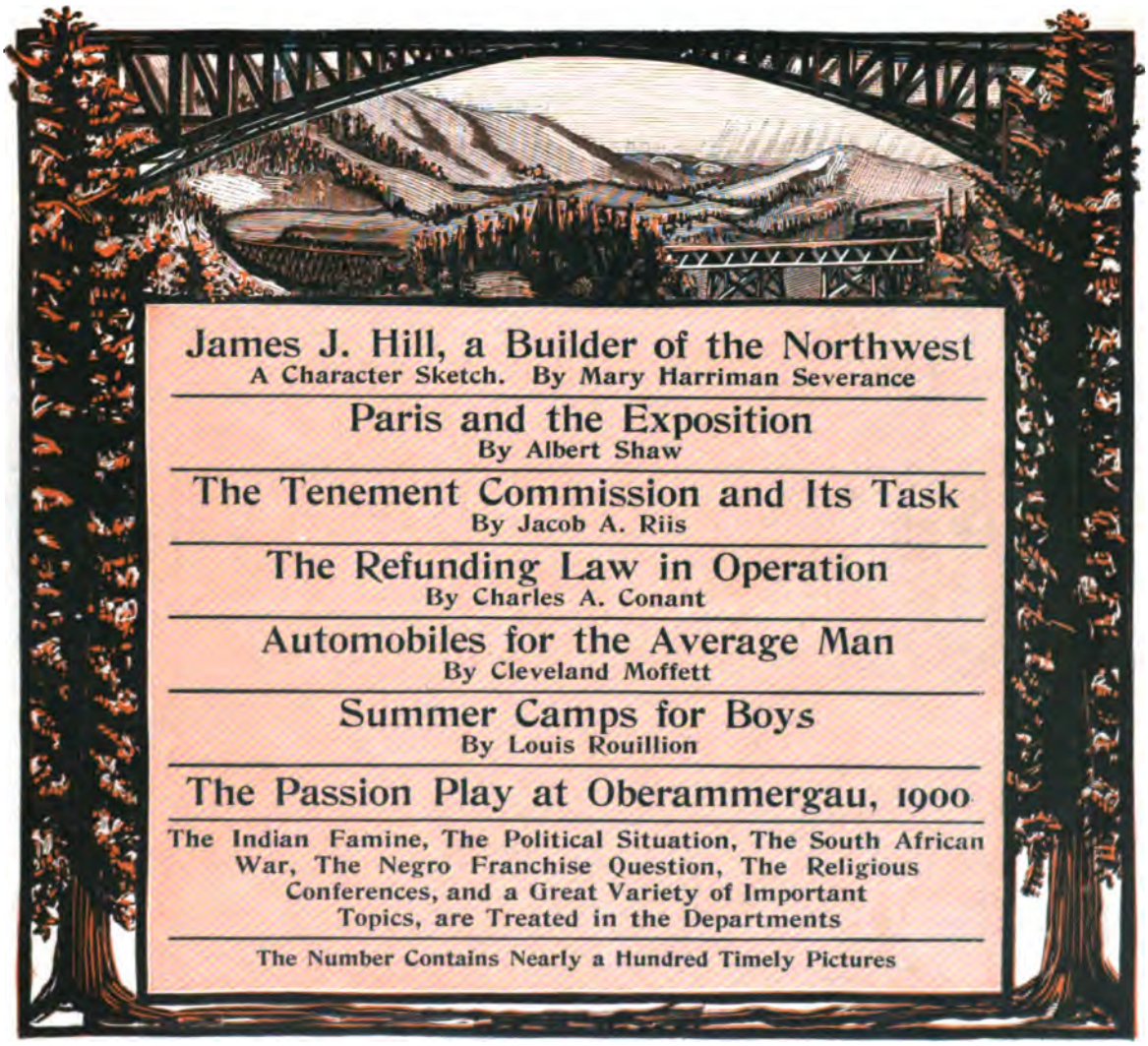
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By Albert Shaw

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By Charles A. Conant

Automobiles for the Average Man
By Cleveland Moffett

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By Louis Rouillion

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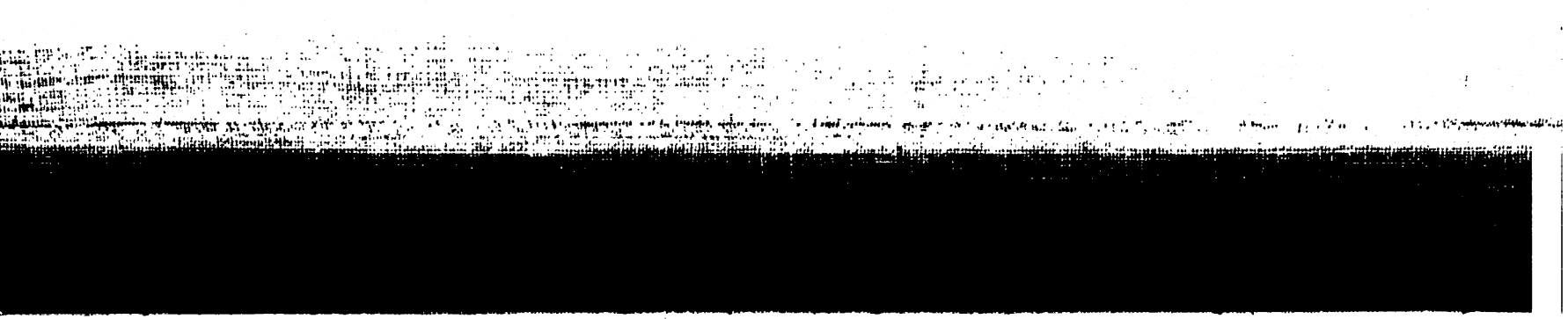
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